Gazetteer of India

Maharashtra State

NAGPUR DISTRICT

(Revised Edition)

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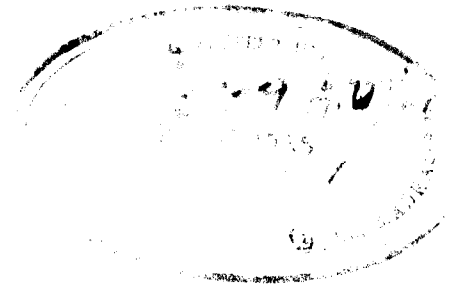

NAGPUR DISTRICT GAZETTEER

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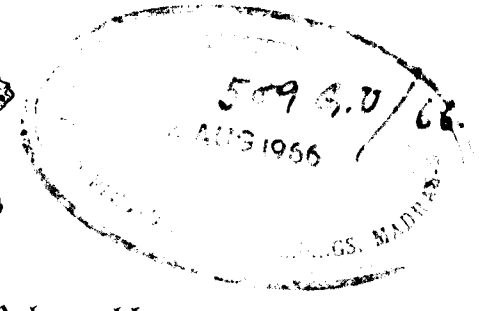

Government of Maharashtra

NAGPUR DISTRICT

(REVISED EDITION)

(Revised edition of the original Gazetteer of the Central Provinces relating to Nagpur)

BOMBAY
DIRECTORATE OF GOVERNMENT PRINTING, STATIONERY
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1966

GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

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PREFACE

THE NAGPUR DISTRICT GAZETTEER was prepared by Mr. R. V. Russell, I.C.S., in 1908. This revised edition has been prepared under the orders of the Government of Maharashtra by an Editorial Board, specially created for that purpose in 1949. The following are the present members of the Editorial Board:—

Chief Secretary to Government (Shri D. R. Pradhan, I.C.S.).

Dr. S. G. Panandikar, retired Principal, Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay.

Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. V. V. Mirashi, Nagpur.

Dr. S. M. Katre, Director, Deccan College Post-Graduate and Research Institute, Poona.

Shri S. L. Karandikar, Poona.

Director of Archives, Government of Maharashtra, Bombay (Dr. M. G. Dixit).

Executive Editor and Secretary (Shri P. Setu Madhava Rao, I.A.S.).

Diacritical marks to explain the pronunciation of names of places and of words in Indian languages have been used only in three chapters, namely, Chapter 2 — History, Chapter 3 — People and Chapter 19 — Places and also in the Directory of Villages and Towns. In other chapters the current spellings have been retained. A key to the diacritical marks used is given at page 779.

My thanks are due to Dr. B. G. Kunte, M.A., PH.D. (Economics), PH.D. (History), Joint Editor, Shri K. V. Yohannan, B.A., LL.B., Superintendent, Shri D. C. Deo, M.A. and Shri K. K. Chaudhari, M.A., Research Assistants and other members of the staff for their valuable assistance in the preparation of this Volume.

My thanks are also due to Shri J. W. D'Souza, Director, Government Printing, Stationery and Publications, Bombay and Shri S. R. Desai, Manager, Government Press and Book Depot, Nagpur, for the execution of the printing work of this Volume.

BOMBAY :
March 1966.

P. SETU MADHAVA RAO,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

In 1867 a Gazetteer was published for the Central Provinces with the following remarks from Sir R. Temple, the then Chief Commissioner of the Provinces:—

"It has long seemed to the Chief Commissioner that a Gazetteer is needed for the Central Provinces. None will dispute that for the good management of districts local knowledge is necessary. The more detailed and intimate such knowledge is, the better. This remark, however general may be its application, is particularly applicable to provinces like these, where the areas are wide-spread; where the tribes and circumstances are diverse; where the component parts are separated from each other by mountain barriers or other physical obstacles; where information is often difficult of acquisition by reason of the remoteness of localities; and where the annals of the country, though to some extent existing, are for the most part inaccessible to the majority of our countrymen.

"When such knowledge is merely acquired by individuals, it is apt to be of a fugitive character, owing to those frequent changes which are inevitable in Indian administration. It constantly happens that when an officer has, by travelling about, and by communicating with the people, learnt very much regarding his district, he is obliged by ill health, or by the requirements of the service, or by other reasons, to leave, and then he carries all his knowledge away with him, his successor having to study everything *ab initio*.

"Thus it becomes of importance that the multiform facts of local interest and value should be recorded by all who have the means of knowing them; and that such record should be embodied in an abiding shape, patent to, and within the reach of all, so that everyone who is concerned to ascertain these things may have the ordinary resources of information ready to hand.

"Therefore it was in 1864 resolved to collect materials for a Gazetteer. With this view all officers serving in these Provinces were furnished with a sketch of the information required. In due course every officer transmitted the data for his district. Advantage was also taken of the Settlement Department being in operation to obtain therefrom all the facts bearing on the subjects in question. Thus in the course of two years a mass of information in manuscript was accumulated.

"The work thus brought out, though probably as complete as it can be made at the present time, is yet avowedly imperfect, and is in some respects only preliminary. The information generally may from year to year be supplemented by further details, and on numerous points will doubtless be found susceptible of emendation. The statistics especially will constantly be open to enlargement and rectification. Still a broad foundation for future superstructure has at least been raised.*."

The impression of that edition was soon exhausted and a revised edition was prepared in 1870 by Mr. Charles Grant, Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces. The article on Nagpur in the volume running into 54 pages and divided into various sections, with the exception of one or two slight interpolations, was contributed by Mr. M. Low, a former Deputy Commissioner of Nagpur.

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*The Gazetteer of the Central Provinces of India by Charles Grant, 1870, pp. v-vi.

The Gazetteers for the various districts of the Central Provinces were compiled in the beginning of this century and the first Nagpur District Gazetteer was prepared by Mr. R. V. Russell, I.C.S., in 1908, who in his prefatory note wrote:

"The extant Settlement Reports on the Nagpur District are those of Mr. A. B. Ross (1869) and Mr. R. H. Craddock (1899). A large part of the Gazetteer has simply been reproduced from Mr. Craddock's Report, including the description of the District, the notice of climate, several notices of castes, a part of the chapter on Agriculture and that on Land Revenue Administration with numerous other quotations. The description of the Bhonsla dynasty and of the occurrences during the Mutiny is taken from Mr. M. Low's interesting article on the Nagpur District in the Central Provinces Gazetteer of 1871; and some details have been added from the collection of papers called 'Sitabaldi', printed under the direction of Mr. J. O. Miller, then Chief Commissioner. The chapter on General Administration, the article on Nagpur City and a note on the Material Condition of the People were furnished by Mr. F. Dewar, lately Deputy Commissioner of the District, and constitute an interesting epitome of its recent rapid development. A number of the Gazetteer articles, including those on Saoner, Katol, Kalmeshwar, Mohpa, Mowar, Narkher, all the articles on rivers, and those on tahsils, together with the notice of Wild Animals, were contributed by Mr. D. G. Mitchell, Assistant Commissioner; and the section on Manufactures by Mr. B. De, Assistant Commissioner. The section on Geology and Minerals were written by Mr. L. L. Fermor of the Geological Survey; that on Communications by Captain Oldham, R. E., and the excellent article on Kamptee by Lieut.-Col. F.A.C. Kreyer, for many years Cantonment Magistrate. The articles on Ramtek, Nagardhan and Mansar were written from notes drawn up by Mr. Hira Lal, Assistant Gazetteer Superintendent. The photographs of Sitabaldi, Ambajheri tank and Government House were given by Mr. J. K. Batten."

In Bombay Presidency as early as 1843 an attempt was made to arrange for the preparation of Statistical Accounts of the different districts. The following extracts* will be found interesting as giving an idea of the intention of those who desired to have such Accounts compiled:—

Government called on the Revenue Commissioners to obtain from all the Collectors as part of their next Annual Report, the fullest available information regarding their districts . . . . . Government remarked that, as Collectors and their Assistants during the large portion of the year moved about the district in constant and intimate communication with all classes, they possessed advantages which no other public officers enjoyed of acquiring a full knowledge of the condition of the country; the causes of progress or retrogradation, the good measures which require to be fostered and extended, the evil measures which call for abandonment, the defects in existing institutions which require to be remedied, and the nature of the remedies to be applied. Collectors also, it was

*Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Part I (History of Gujarat, pp. iii and iv).

observed, have an opportunity of judging of the effect of British rule on the condition and character of the people, and their caste prejudices, and on their superstitious observances. They can trace any alteration for the better or worse in dwellings, clothing and can observe, the use of improved implements of husbandry or other crafts, the habits of locomotion, the state of education, particularly among the higher classes whose decaying means and energy under our most levelling system compared with that of preceding Governments will attract their attention. Finally they can learn how far existing village institutions are effectual to their end and may be made available for self-government and in the management of local taxation for local purposes:—

"In obedience to these orders, reports were received from the Collectors of Ahmedabad, Broach, Kaira, Thana and Khandesh. Some of the reports contained much interesting information. These five northern reports were practically the only result of the Circular Letter of 1843."

The matter does not seem to have been pursued any further.

In October 1867, the Secretary of State for India desired the Bombay Government to take concrete steps for the compilation of a Gazetteer of the Presidency on the model of the Gazetteer prepared during that year for the Central Provinces. The Government of Bombay then requested some of its responsible officials to submit a scheme for carrying into effect the orders of Secretary of State, and in 1868, appointed the Bombay Gazetteer Committee to supervise and direct the preparation of the Gazetteer. After a few organisational experiments the responsibility was finally entrusted to Mr. James M. Campbell of the Bombay Civil Service, who commenced the compilation in 1874 and completed the series in 1884. The actual publication, however, of these volumes was spread over a period of 27 years between 1877 and 1904 in which year the last General Index Volume was published.

Though a Gazetteer literally means only a geographical index or a geographical dictionary, the scope of this particular compilation was much wider. It included not only a description of the physical and natural features of a region but also a broad narrative of the social, political, economic and cultural life of the people living in that region. The purpose which the Gazetteer was intended to serve was made clear in the following remarks of Sir William

Hunter, Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India, when his opinion was sought on a draft article on Dharwar District in 1871*. He said--

"My own conception of the work is that, in return for a couple of days' reading, the Account should give a new Collector, a comprehensive, and, at the same time, a distinct idea of the district which he has been sent to administer. Mere reading can never supersede practical experience in the district administration. But a succinct and well-conceived district account is capable of antedating the acquisition of such personal experience by many months and of both facilitating and systematising a Collector's personal enquiries . . . . But in all cases a District Account besides dealing with local specialities should furnish a historical narration of its revenue and expenditure since it passed under the British rule, of the sums which we have taken from it in taxes, and of the amount which we have returned to it in the protection of property and person and the other charges of Civil Government."

The Gazetteer was thus intended to give a complete picture of the district to men who were entire strangers to India and its people but who as members of the ruling race carried on their shoulders the responsibility of conducting its administration.

The Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency had 27 Volumes, some split up into two or three parts, making a total of 35 books including the General Index which was published in 1904. Some of the Volumes were of a general nature and were not confined to the limits of a particular district. For example, Volume I dealt with History and was split up into two parts, one dealing with Gujarat and the other with Konkan, Deccan and Southern Maratha Country; Volume IX was devoted to the Population of Gujarat and contained two parts, one describing Hindus and the other Musalmans and Parsis, but there was no corresponding Volume devoted to the population of Maharashtra or Karnatak; Volume XXV gave an account of the Botany of the area covered in the whole Presidency. The remaining volumes dealt with various districts of the Presidency and with what were then known as Native States attached to the Bombay Presidency. Some of the District Volumes had two or three parts, for example, those of Thana, Kanara, Poona and Bombay. On the other hand, there was only one combined volume for some districts as for example, Surat and Broach, and Kaira and Panch Mahals.

The scheme of the contents was more or less the same for all the District Volumes though the accounts or particular items varied considerably from district to district. Information was collected from Government offices and, in respect of social and religious practices, from responsible citizens. Eminent scholars, experts and administrators contributed articles on special subjects.

*Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Part I (History of Gujarat), p. vii.

This Gazetteer compiled over many decades ago had long become scarce and entirely out of print. It contained authentic and useful information on several aspects of life in a district and was considered to be of great value to the administrator, and scholar and the general reader. There was a general desire that there should be a new and revised edition of this monumental work. The then Government of Bombay, therefore, decided that the old Gazetteer should be revised and republished, and entrusted the work of revision to an Editorial Board specially created for that purpose in 1949. This new edition has been prepared under the direction of that Editorial Board. In view of the reorganization of States in 1956 and the coming into existence of the State of Maharashtra in 1960, areas for which no District Gazetteer had previously been compiled are taken up and new District Gazetteers are being compiled in accordance with the common pattern.

In the nature of things, after a lapse of over many decades after their publication, most of the statistical information contained in the old Gazetteer had become entirely out of date and had to be dropped altogether. In this edition an attempt has been made to give an idea of the latest developments whether in regard to the administrative structure or the economic set-up or in regard to social, religious and cultural trends. There are portions in the old Gazetteer bearing on archaeology and history which have the impress of profound scholarship and learning and their worth has not diminished by the mere passage of time. Even in their case, however, some restatement is occasionally necessary in view of later investigations and new archaeological discoveries by scholars, and an attempt has been made to incorporate in this edition, the results of such subsequent research. The revision of old Volumes has, in fact, meant an entire rewriting of most of the chapters and sections. In doing so, statistical and other information is obtained from the relevant Departments of Government, and articles on certain specialised subjects are obtained from competent scholars.

In this dynamic world, circumstances and facts of life change, and so do national requirements and social values. Such significant changes have taken place in India as in other countries during the last half-a-century, and more so after the advent of Independence in 1947. The general scheme and contents of this revised series of the Gazetteers have been adapted to the needs of altered conditions. There is inevitably some shift in emphasis in the presentation and interpretation of certain phenomena.

For example, the weighted importance given to caste and community in the old Gazetteer cannot obviously accord with the ideological concepts of a secular democracy, though much of that data may have considerable interest from the functional, sociological or cultural point of view. What is necessary is a change in perspective in presenting that account so that it could be viewed against the background of a broad nationalism and the synthesis of a larger social life. It is also necessary to abridge and even to eliminate, elaborate details about customs and practices which no longer obtain on any extensive scale or which are too insignificant to need any elaboration. In the revised Gazetteer, therefore, only a general outline of the practices and customs of the main sections of the population has been given.

An important addition to the District Volume in this edition is the Directory of Villages and Towns given at the end which contains, in a tabulated form, useful information about every village and town in the district. The district map given in this edition is also fairly large and up-to-date.

The revised Gazetteers are published in two series:—

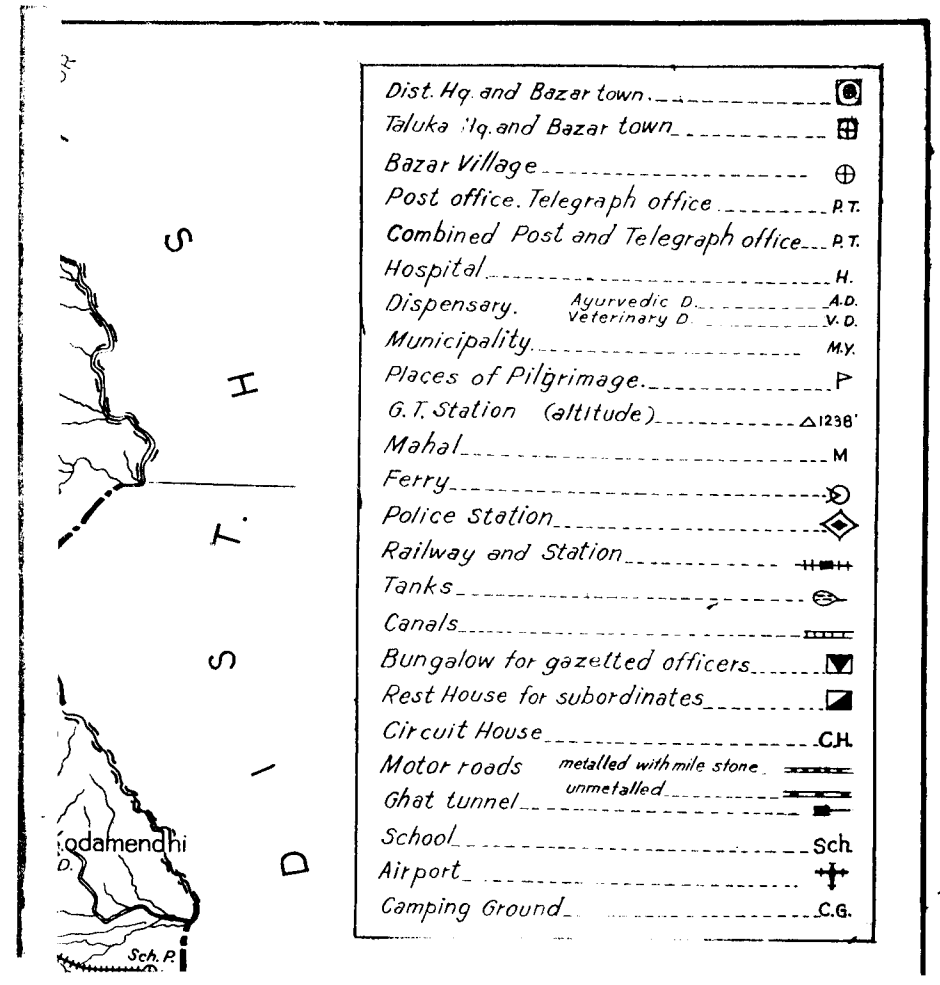
1. *The General Series*:—This comprises volumes on subjects which can best be treated for the State as a whole and not for the smaller area of a district. As at present planned, they will deal with Physical Features, Fauna, People and their Culture, History, Language and Literature, Botany, and Public Administration.

2. *The District Series*:—This contains one Volume for every district of the Maharashtra State. The information given in all the Volumes will follow the same pattern, and the table of contents will more or less be the same for all the districts.

In the preparation of this Volume, this Department has received every assistance from the Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, Government of India. A draft copy of this Volume was sent to the Gazetteers Unit and was returned with valuable suggestions which have been incorporated in the Volume. The Government of India gives a grant-in-aid of Rs. 6,000 per Volume towards the cost of compilation and 40 per cent of the actual printing charges.

BOMBAY :
March 1966.

P. SETU MADHAVA RAO,
Executive Editor and Secretary.



NAGPUR

CHAPTER 1—GENERAL

CHAPTER 1*

General.

GEOGRAPHY†

Situation.

NAGPUR DISTRICT LIES BETWEEN 20°35′ AND 21°44′ NORTH AND 78° 15′ AND 79° 40′ EAST, in the plain to which it gives its name at the southern base of the Satpuda Hills. It has an area of 9,930.0 km.² (3,834.0 sq. miles) and a population of 1,512,807 according to 1961 census. In size, it ranks 18th in the Maharashtra State and in population eleventh. Administratively it has five sub-divisions or tahsils, *viz.*, Katol, Saoner, Ramtek, Nagpur and Umrer. It has 12 urban centres and 1,653 rural settlements.

Boundaries.

The district is bounded on the north by the Chhindwada and Seoni districts of the Madhya Pradesh, on the east by Bhandara, on the south and west by Chanda and Wardha, respectively, and along a small strip on the north-west by the Amravati district.

Physical Features, Relief and Drainage.

The district has an average elevation between 274.50 and 305 metres (900 and 1,000 feet) above sea level and its relief features are characterised, by and large, by the residual hill ranges of the Satpudas and their detached members, enclosing between them undulating black soil valleys. Much of the topography is typically one of the Deccan Trap having flat-topped and terraced features, low buttressed sides and isolated knolls. Eastwards and north-eastwards, the landscape changes in an interesting manner due to the change in the underlying rocks. The rocks of Gondwana series are not only important because of their coal and manganese deposits, but in their surface expression they present a low rolling topography with a poor soil cover and vegetation.

The greater part of the district is an undulating plateau with a variation in height between 652.70 metres (2,140 feet) above sea level on the upland ridges in the north and about 274.50 metres (900 feet) near the Kanhan river. This plateau surface of the district falls into three distinct drainage basins. The north-eastern and east-central portion, which is about the two-thirds area of the district, is drained by the river Wainganga and its tributaries; the central and southern portion by the Wunna system which is itself a tributary of the river Wardha. The

*The area and population figures are taken from the Nagpur District Census Handbook, 1961.

†The section on Geography is contributed by Dr. C. D. Deshpande, Director of Education, Maharashtra State.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

GEOGRAPHY.

Physical Features, Relief and Drainage.

north-western fringes are drained by the Wardha and its tributaries, the Jam and the Kar. The terraced landscape of the Deccan lavas on the west has several flat-topped hills well-furrowed on their sides by streams. In the north, the upland ranges are an extension of the Satpuda ranges; these are narrow in the west but widen to a breadth of about 19 km. (twelve miles) towards the east. Immediately south of these upland ranges, stretch the Ambagad hills, the western extremity of which lies in the Nagpur district. The historic temple of Ramtek is situated on a spur of this range. The western border of the district is marked by a low hill range extending more prominently from the environs of Mohli to the south of Umrer, with the break of the Wunna river almost in the middle. The Pilkapar hills in the Katol tahsil are a smaller counterpart of this hill range. There are several detached hills, notably that of Sitabuldi in Nagpur City which is visible from a long distance. These isolated hills or knolls attain to no great altitude, hardly rising from 91.50 to 106.75 metres (300 to 350 feet) above the surrounding level country, but they present a characteristic appearance of flat or slightly rounded tops, covered with thin forests or brushwood and in some cases completely bare and stony. The Wardha and Wainganga rivers flow along a part of the western and the eastern borders respectively, and the drainage of the district is divided between them. The waters of the north-western and western areas are carried to the Wardha by the Jam and the Kar, and of the south-eastern portion by the Wunna and other minor streams. The north-eastern and east-central portion is drained by the Pench and Kanhan rivers, which flowing south through the Satpuda hills, unite just above Kamptee where they are also joined by the Kolar; from here the Kanhan carries their united waters along the northern boundary of the Umrer tahsil to join the Wainganga on the Bhandara border. To the east a few small streams flow direct to the Wainganga. The richest part of the district is the western half of the Katol tahsil, cut off by the small ranges described above. It possesses a soil profusely fertile, and teems with the richest garden cultivation. Beyond the Pilkapar hills, the country extends to the eastern border. Its surface is scarcely ever level, but it is closely cultivated, abounds in mango groves and other trees, and towards the east is studded with small tanks which form quite a feature in the landscape.

The Satpuda Hills.

The northern range of hills extends along the whole border, being pierced only in two places where the Kanhan and Pench rivers have broken through. On the west it consists merely of the outlying foothills of the Satpudas, the plateau proper lying behind them in Chhindwada. But from the Kanhan to the Pench, it is the major range of the Satpudas themselves which dominates the landscape, and the ascent of the Khamarpani plateau is made in Nagpur. Along this length the hills are well-wooded and picturesque, and there is some striking scenery on the Pench river. The old Gond fort of Bhivagad stands on this range. Government-managed forests in this district mainly belong to these hills between the Kanhan and the Bawanthari.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

GEOGRAPHY.

The Satpuda Hills.

The cultivated villages are scattered here and there in the river-valleys, and the country is very pleasing and well-wooded, open glades alternating with patches of forest and clearings of cultivation. Mahua trees and tanks abound, and the Gond villages, with their clean little streets and neat back-gardens, have a far more picturesque appearance than the monotonous mud walls of the more imposing houses in the rich villages of the plain country.

A few miles to the south of the main Satpuda range are two minor lines of hills, to the west and east of the Pench. Those to the west lie between Bhivagad and Parseoni, terminating in the peak of Tekadi 508.34 metres (1,669 feet). East of the Pench are the Mansar hills, both these and the western range being now denuded of trees, and, after a gap of a few miles, come the well-known Ramtek hills, rising to 427 metres (1,400 feet) at Ramtek proper. Timely measures by the Government have helped in retaining the wooded character of this range. Three miles east of Ramtek the Sur river has forced a passage through the hills. Beyond this point they are called the Ambagad range of Bhandara. The Ramtek hills terminate on the west in the form of a horse-shoe curve, its inner sides enclosing the beautiful and sacred tank of Ambala, one of the most charming pieces of scenery in the district. The temple hill at the extremity of the ranges, rising 183 metres (600 feet) sheer above the level of the plain, is at once a landmark to the surrounding country and a vantage ground from which the great Wainganga plain may be seen spread out below, its irregularities of surface softened into smoothness by the height from which one looks down upon it.

Minor Ranges.

The second main hill tract extends along the south-east of the district from Khargad on the Wardha river, where there are some fine waterfalls, to the junction of Wardha and Chanda with Nagpur. They separate the valley of the Kar from that of the Jam up to Kondhali and further south-east form the water-shed between the latter river and the Bor. Near Bori they become the Kauras plateau and here terminate to afford a passage for the Wardha river, continuing afterwards south-eastwards and dividing the valley of the Nand from the Wainganga plain. West of the Wunna the range is mostly well covered with picturesque valleys and ravines, among which are narrow strips of rich well-irrigated land of great fertility. But to the east towards Umrer the range has lower levels and is uninteresting. It consists of low bare hills which are grass-covered and boulder-strewn, except where, overlooking the Nand valley, some excellent teak is grown.

The third main range runs northwards through the Katol tahsil from Kondhali to Kelod, separating the Wardha and Wainganga valleys. The highest part of it is at Pilkapar. The hills are generally clear of trees, but there is a great deal of cultivation scattered among them, and here and there are found upland plateaus covered with stones and with soil of varying depth, suitable only for the production of rain crops. Connected with this range is the hill system which divides the Wunna

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valley from the Wainganga plain, and bisects the Nagpur tahsil. These hills in part striking eastward from the third range, and in front projecting from the Kauras plateau are low and bare. To them belong those dreary stone-covered downs which shut in the city of Nagpur on the west.

The Wardha and its Tributaries.

The Wardha valley proper includes but a small proportion of the district, consisting of the rich Amner pargana to the north-west of Katol. But its tributaries drain the bulk of the Katol tahsil, a half of Nagpur and a small part of Umrer. The principal of these are the Bor, the Wunna, the Jam and the Kar. The Bor rises in the hills near Bazargaon and rushes down a winding and rocky channel between the Kondhali uplands and the Kauras plateau, passing into the Wardha to join the Wunna. Its narrow valley is very fertile and the high well-wooded cliffs on either side render it a wild and beautiful spot in the whole of the district. The Wunna rises near the hill of Mahadagad in the Pilkapar range and flows along the northern base of the Kauras plateau past Hingna and Bori where it is crossed by the Central Railway. It leaves the district at Ashta. The small Krishna river joins it at Bori. The Jam rises among the hills south of Kondhali and flowing northwards into the centre of the Katol tahsil, takes a westerly turn past Katol and joins the Wardha at Jalalkheda. The Kar rises in the same range, but flows directly south-west, separating the Wardha and Nagpur districts till it joins the Wardha river at Khargad, the trijunction point of the two districts with Berar. The Nand flows across a small strip in the south of the district and joins the Wunna beyond the border of Wardha.

The Kanhan and its Tributaries.

The eastern two-thirds of the district belong to the drainage system of the Wainganga and except for the northern range of the Satpudas consist of an undulating plain of cultivation, broken only by isolated hills and by the hollows and depressions marking the course of the innumerable streams, which traverse its surface and feed the larger rivers. The chief rivers of this tract are the Pench and the Kanhan, both of which flow down from the Satpuda range in the Chhindwada district, and meet near Kamptee, where they are also joined by the Kolar. The upper reaches of the Pench among the hills and jungles north of Bhivagad afford some pleasing views. The Kanhan, entering the district near Baregaon, takes a south-easterly course past Khapa to Kamptee, where it receives the Pench and Kolar and is crossed by two bridges. In its subsequent course it marks the boundary of the Ramtek tahsil, and after receiving the Nag river near the hills of Bhivakund, finally empties itself into the Wainganga at Gondpipri in Bhandara. The Kolar rises in the north-east corner of the Katol tahsil, and after passing through the rocky country of Lohgad in the Pilkapar range, emerges into the fertile plain of Saoner and separates the Nagpur from the Ramtek tahsil until its place as a boundary river is taken by the Kanhan. Its bed is generally rocky. At Patansaongi it receives the Chandrabhaga, which brings in the drinage of the Kalmeshwar plain. It is bridged at Dahegaon, where it is crossed by the road from

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Nagpur to Chhindwada. The *doab* of Parseoni between the Pench and the Kanhan, and the *doab* of Patansaongi on the narrow strip of land enclosed between the Kolar and the Kanhan, are the most fertile and highly cultivated portions of the Ramtek and Saoner tahsils, respectively.

Other Rivers.

The only other rivers of importance are those draining the eastern half of the Ramtek tahsil, the Bawanthari, Sur and Gaotala-Sand. The Bawanthari only passes through the extreme north-east of the district, but it drains the country to the north of Chorbaoli and east of the Seoni road. The Sur, rising in the hills west of the Seoni road, follows a most erratic course, and after cutting its way through a narrow gorge in the Ramtek range, flows eastward past Aroli and Kodamendhi into Bhandara, where it joins the Wainganga. The Sur is remarkable for the shallowness of its bed, the level character of the land immediately on its margin, and the fertile properties of this land in producing sugarcane and garden crops. The Gaotala-Sand issues from the Ramtek tank and joins the Kanhan at the south-east of the Ramtek tahsil near the hill of Sitapahar.

General Characteristics of the Rivers.

Most of the large rivers, where they flow through plain country, are characterised by high banks and rapid streams when in flood, but in the hot weather they are mere rivulets, with deep pools here and there where the bed is rocky and hollow among the rocks have been formed by the action of the stream. The wide wastes of sand which are exposed to the sun's rays during the hot weather months seem in the case of the large rivers to neutralise the cooling effect of the small streaks of water in the centre of the bed, and the influence on the country around these rivers, though of course very great, is not directly discernible except in the rugged ravines with short scrub which mark their banks. But their tributaries, the numerous shallow streams with a fringe of vegetation on either side, or winding amidst *sindi bans* or woods of date palm, exercise a more patently beneficial effect on the surrounding lands, which are generally fertile and are kept moist all the year round. Such streams are, however, only to be found in the most level plains, or in deep valleys among the hills. Over most of the great wheat tract of Umrer, where the more marked undulations of the country cause the water to be carried rapidly away, are deep water-courses absolutely dry during half the year, with bare banks devoid of all vegetation. These become small torrents after each heavy fall of rain, and the fields in their neighbourhood are scoured out of all recognition, despoiled of their soils, and speedily rendered unfit for cultivation.

Regional Aspects.

The foregoing description of relief and drainage provides a suitable introduction to the understanding of the varied regional aspects of the district. Climate and vegetation, as has been described in the pages that follow, have an interesting regional variation. Conditions of temperature are more or less common to all parts of the district, but the rainfall is heavier in the east than in the west and this coupled with the variation in soils gives a changing regional landscape. Although the district as a whole

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belongs to the monsoonal deciduous type of flora, forests cling only to the protected areas under Government control in the more hilly parts of the district. Valleys are almost completely occupied by cultivation, but the plateau forms and residual hills of lower order support only scrub and poorer grassland. It is, however, the relief and its orientation through drainage pattern that gives the regional landscapes their characteristic form, and it is, therefore, possible to distinguish four tracts in the district.

(i) *The North-eastern and East-central valleys.*—Here, bordered at places by the Satpudas in the north, and abutted by the Ramtek hills, the valleys of the Pench, the Kanhan, and the Kolar rivers have encouraged economic development and population settlement, though the immediate banks of these rivers are characterised by intense gully erosion. The agricultural land is a good deal intermixed with forest, scrub and grassland. Rural population is settled mainly in hamlets. The local topography being favourable, tank irrigation plays an important role in agriculture in the eastern margin. Of the irrigated crops, betelnut leaves from the environs of Ramtek are famous. The other leading crops are jowar, wheat and rice, and to some extent oilseeds. Saoner is a route centre situated on the transitional line between this tract and the north-western plateau tract. Immediately south of the Kolar river, the land is more even and agriculturally better, though several knolls like the Dudhbhardi hill are prominent on the landscape particularly because of their bare aspect. Commercial activity follows the Nagpur-Jubbulpore road and the Nagpur-Calcutta rail-route. Locally, of rising importance is the new industrial development. Opening of the Kamptee coalfields has spurred industrial activity in various ways. The location of the State Government's leading Thermal Electric Power Station at Khaparkheda on the left bank of the Kanhan river is due to the availability of water and coal locally and its accessibility through the narrow gauge railways and the nearness of the industrial city of Nagpur. Kanhan town, situated on the other bank of the Kanhan river, facing the old cantonment town of Kamptee, is a rising industrial township with ferro-manganese unit already working. Although the cantonment of Kamptee with its military-type bungalows and barracks now wears a quaint and sleepy look, the surrounding area is full of promise for industrialisation and should in course of time become an extension of industrial Nagpur. In the south, the Nag and the Amb rivers have more open valleys supporting better agriculture. Umrer (population 22,682) situated in an amphitheatre of residual hills is a route centre.

(ii) *The North-western plateau tract.*—This tract bears, with its trappean land forms and well weathered black soil in valleys, a marked contrast to the north-eastern part. This is a rich cotton-jowar area, with an emphasis on dry cultivation. It is more densely populated being in large-sized compact villages; but the population is rural in character. Katol is a route centre and a commercial town. The Nagpur-Delhi Grand Trunk route takes advantage of the low-lying areas to traverse this region. Separated by a range, the Kar valley has an almost similar land

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utilization characteristics though on a narrower scale because of its deeply entrenched nature. The left bank portion of the Wardha valley belonging to this district is a further enlargement of these land-use features, though gully erosion acts as a handicap to cultivation. But upstream, the Wardha left flank in the region of Mowad (population 4,841) has a developed well irrigation belt which supports a variety of crops. The twin town of Amner-Jalalkheda situated at the junction of the Jam and the Wardha is a local market centre.

(iii) *The Wunna and Nand river valleys.*—This is the south-eastern strip of the district with an extension in the centre through the Wunna drainage. Flanked on both sides by the trappean hill ranges, the valleys widen out towards the border of the district as the rivers approach the Wardha. Black soil landscape predominates. Although this is a predominantly dry cultivation area, with cotton, jowar, oil-seeds as the leading crops, well-irrigation is of some significance. Crops like chillis and turmeric are grown under well irrigaton. But the region as a whole is sparsely populated with large tracts of impoverished grassland and scrub, scattered hamlets and hardly any urban settlement except perhaps Bori and Raipur.

(iv) *The Residual hills.*—The residual hills of the district offer a distinct topographical and land-use contrast to the valleys. In the north, extension of the Satpudas presents a highly eroded topography covered by the monsoonal forests. Here the cultivation and habitation are restricted to the lower valleys. In the north-east and east, under the influence of the Gondwana rocks they have in most places a rolling appearance and irregular trend and are either bare or covered by scrub. The trappean hills which dominate the west-central and southern margins of the district, with their rounded crestline features and flat shoulders stand in contrast with the hills of the north-eastern portion. The more uneven areas including steeper valley sides are protected Government forests, but the flatter plateau levels have fairly good agricultural land. Kondhali and Kauras plateau tract is typical of this landscape, though further south in the Umrer tract, the plateau areas uniformly belong to the Government forest reserves. These are thinly populated areas of the district served with poor communications and supporting small rural settlements.

Nagpur.

The main centre of human attraction in the district is the City of Nagpur, and its suburban extension which now almost reaches up to the industrial nucleus of Kanhan, 19.312 km. (twelve miles) east. Originally, a vantage point for defence, Nagpur grew into an urban centre under the Bhosles of the Maratha confederacy. With the formation of the Central Provinces under the British regime, the town acquired a new importance as the administrative capital. This growth coincided with the economic development of the surrounding region based on cotton. The cotton textile industry made its appearance on account of cotton cultivation, easy communications, access to coal deposits and adequate labour supply. The city derived an industrial bias and

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Nagpur.

the mills and the concomitant labour slums became a characteristic feature of the urban landscape. As is the case of larger cities, Nagpur developed a complex structure based on administrative, economic and social forces, which find expression in its various urban and suburban areas. The administrative changes which resulted in the formation of the Maharashtra State are not likely to affect Nagpur adversely. It continues to be administratively important; it draws a greater strength from the new industrialisation, and rightly competes with Bombay and Poona in its economic and social growth.

GEOLOGY.*

Introduction.

The geological sequence observed in the district is tabulated below:—

Name of the formation	*Age*
Soil	Recent.
Deccan basalt flows (Traps) with associated Intertrappean sediments.	Lower Eocene to Upper Cretaceous.
Lameta beds	Cretaceous.
Gondwana group .. Kamthi stage	Permian.
Gondwana group .. Barakar stage ..	
Gondwana group .. Talchir stage ..	Carboniferous.
Streaky Graniticgneisses Sausar and Sakoli series of metasediments ..	Archaeans.

Nagpur city is almost the dividing line between Archaean rocks exposed to the east and younger formations, *viz.*, Deccan-basalts, the infra-trappean Lametas and the Gondwanas on the west.

Description of Rock Units.

Archaean Rocks.

The Archaeans of Nagpur district are comprised of two distinct lithological units; the older unit comprising gneisses and schists resulting from repeated metamorphism of ancient sediments (similar to Dharwar formation of Southern India) and a younger group of gneisses representing perhaps a granitic intrusion into above metasediments. As both these rock units have suffered intense deformation and metamorphism it is difficult to distinguish them from each other and consequently are generally grouped together as unclassified metamorphic and crystalline series.

Sausar and Sakoli Series.

Rocks of the older metasedimentary group have been mapped in great detail and named Sausar series (occurring in the Northern 'Nagpur-Chhindwada' region) and Sakoli series (occurring in the Southern 'Nagpur-Bhandara' region); the latter, *viz.*, Sakoli series are assumed to be an upward continuation of the former, *viz.*, Sausar series. The Sausar series is further subdivided into stages mostly on their lithology; the Lohangi, Mansar and Chorbaoli being important in view of their containing manganese ore zones. The rock types comprising these series include biotite-gneiss, quartz-pyroxene-gneiss, calcyphyre, crystalline limestone, quartzite, mica-schist, hematite-schist, pegmatite and various manganiferous rocks known as Gondite.

*The Section on Geology is contributed by Shri A. K. R. Hemmady of the Geological Survey of India.

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Description of Rock Units.

Sausar and Sakoli Series.

Gondite (named after the aboriginal tribe 'Gonds' found in these areas) is a rock composed of quartz and manganese Garnet 'spessartite'. Many other rock types carrying rare species of manganese minerals such as *Blanfordite*—a manganese pyroxene (from Kachurwahi and Ramdongri), *Vrendenburgite*—a strongly magnetic manganese ore (from Beldongri), *Hollandite*—crystalline form of psilomelane (from Junawani) and *Beldongrite*—black pitch like mineral regarded as an alteration product of spessartite, have been grouped under the Gondite series. Of the other minerals found in the manganiferous rocks of the region, *Sitaparite, Chiklite, Winchite, Juddite, Rhodonite* and *Piedmontite* deserve mention. An excellent exposure of crystalline limestone containing piedmontite nodules occurs in the Pench river at Ghogra (Gokula) about 3 km. north-east of Parseoni.

Streaky-Granitic-gneisses.

Rocks of the younger group comprise coarse grained granitic-gneisses, prevalent amongst which, is a streaky biotite gneiss which at places covers large areas. These are, however, distinguished from schists and gneisses of sedimentary origin (Sausar series) in view of their not being confined to any particular horizon, and occurring adjacent to any of the stages of the Sausar series. Another feature of these rocks is the occurrence in them of coarse pegmatite intrusive. Based on these and other lines of field evidence, it is thought that these rocks are intrusive into the Sausar series.

Structure of Archaean Rocks.

The Archaean rocks of this district have a very complex structural pattern. The Sausar series (northern belt) generally dips towards south-south-east or south and the Sakoli series to the north-north-west while the middle or axial region may be a zone of faulting or overthrust. In the Sausar series the southern part is composed of isoclinal folds with steep (50°—80°) dips to south; in the middle strip the folds are recumbent, with 30° to 60° dip to the south, while the northern strip shows thrust sheets. There are many steep dipping strike faults which are generally thrust faults. Three 'Nappe' units have been recognised in the Nagpur-Chhindwada region at Sapghota, Ambajhari and Deolapar from west to east, all of them having a low southernly dip. 'Nappe' is a structure wherein a sheet of rocks has been tectonically transported far from its original site. Earlier folds in Sausar series have been refolded by late stage deformation and the resulting 'cross-fold' structure is seen at Ramtek, Junawani and Deolapar. Lineations of various kinds are well developed in the Archaean rocks of the district, all of which plunge 20° to 30° towards east.

Gondwana group.

Rocks referable to the Talchir, Barakar and Kamthi stages of the Gondwana system of fluviatile and lacustrine origin were deposited in troughs, generally produced by faults, which in many cases form the boundary of Gondwanas with older rocks and therefore known as 'Boundary fault'. The Kelod-Kamptee line which marks the north-east boundary of Kamthi beds with Archaeans is a boundary fault. The Gondwana formations have been affected by other minor faults as revealed in several drill

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Description of Rock Units.

holes put down to prove the existence of coal seams around the towns of Kanhan and Kamptee. There is a marked unconformity between the Barakars and Kamthis; during the time interval indicated by this unconformity, Barakars were partially or completely eroded away in some areas and the Kamthis rest directly over the Talchirs. At other places absence of Barakar outcrops is due to overlap (extension of a strata in a conformable sequence beyond the boundaries of those lying beneath) by Kamthis.

Gondwana group.

Talchirs.

Talchir beds are exposed at Kodadongri (north of Patansaongi) and 9 km. north of Nagpur near Suradevi hills, while to 8 km. north of these hills minor exposures are seen. Talchirs comprise green shales and sandstones with minor intercalations of clay and rest unconformably with a basal conglomerate over the Archaean rocks.

Barakars.

Coal-bearing Barakar beds consisting of white and grey sandstones and grits, fireclays and carbonaceous shales are exposed in Tekadi-Silewada-Patansaongi and Bhokara-Chakki-Khapa tract. They are also reported from below the Lameta beds near Umrer. Barakar outcrops are generally lacking in the district, being either overlapped by Kamthis or concealed under the alluvium. About 200 metres north of Kanhan Railway Station a drill hole has revealed Barakars beneath the alluvium.

Kamthis.

These rocks occupy an area which is bounded by Kelod-Kamptee line towards north-east along which Kamthis have been faulted against Archaeans. Southwards they stretch upto Bhokara, 6 km. north of Nagpur. The western boundary is the irregular edge of the Deccan basalts. At Silewada, about 8 km. north-west of Kamptee, a low range of hills is composed of Kamthis. Detached from above, two inliers are seen in the trap area to the west. One of these (about 14 km. long by 6 wide) lies to the north-east of Bazargaon and the other roughly 54 km. north-west of Nagpur at Ghorkheri (6 km. long by 4 wide).

Kamthis trend in west-north-west—east-south-east direction with 5° to 30° dip towards south-south-west and their estimated thickness is about 1,500 km. Predominantly composed of soft and coarse grained sandstones. Kamthis also contain fine grained micaceous sandstones, hard and gritty sandstones and homogeneous and compact shales. Bazargaon inlier contains considerable thickness of conglomerates composed of white quartz pebbles set in a matrix of grit. Interstratified with this conglomerate is a fine red argillaceous sandstone.

Fossil flora include species of *Phyllotheca, Vertebraria, Pecopteris, Gangamopteris, Angiopteridium, Macrotaeniopteris, Noeggerathiopsis* and *Glossopteris*. The best known localities for fossils in Kamthis are the stone quarries at Silewada and Kamptee.

Lametas.

Lametas, also known as Infratrappeans for their subjacent position to traps (Deccan basalts), are fresh water deposits which rest horizontally over the older Gondwana and Archaean rocks with an unconformity. Lametas which rarely attain a thickness up to

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Description of Rock Units.

8 metres grade from calcareous sandstones to sandy limestones with intercalations of chert and clay. These occur at the foot of Kelod and Sitabuldi (Nagpur) hills, west of Adyal and at Ketapur. A large spread of these rocks is situated immediately to the west of Umrer. Lametas have also been found fringing the trap outliers in the north-west corner of the district. Fossil Mollusca found in the beds at Nagpur are *Melania, Paludina* and *Corbicula* and *Physa*.

Lametas.

Deccan basalts (Traps) and Intertrappeans.

The western part of the district is covered by layers of doleritic and basaltic lavas, commonly known as 'traps' because of steplike appearance of their outcrops, the term being of Scandinavian origin. Apart from the main area to the west, several outliers are found north-west of Bhivagad, whilst the southern end of the tongue of trap separating the Pench Valley in Chhindwada district just crosses the border into Nagpur.

These traps are of fissure-eruption type, *i.e.*, they welled up through long narrow fissures in the earth's crust and flowed out as horizontal layers one over the other. Individual flows (layers) have been traced for distances of 100 km. in this district. Some layers are hard and compact while others are soft, vesicular or amygdaloidal having cavities filled with secondary calcite,, zeolite and quartz. Columnar joints, sheeting and spheroidal weathering are characteristic of these rocks.

The Deccan traps belong to 'Plateau basalt' type, essentially composed of plagioclase (mostly labradorite) and augite with some magnetite. Palagonite is abundant in the basalts near Nagpur. These rocks are generally dark grey in colour having a specific gravity of 2.9.

Intertrappeans.

Layers of fresh water sedimentary rocks, are interbedded with the Deccan basalt flows to the west of Nagpur. Such intertrappean beds occur near Dhapewada, between Bhokara and Mahujhari, Takli, Telankhedi and Sitabuldi. They range in thickness from a few centimetres up to two metres and are composed of cherts, impure limestones and pyroclastic material including trap detritus. Numerous fossils have been collected from these rocks, the most famous locality being Takli. The collection includes Replitian bones, remains of a fresh water Tortoise, Fish-scales, Coleoptera, Entomostracans, Dinosaurian tooth similar to Megalosaurs and following fresh water mollusca—*Ballinus, Melania, Limnaea, Succinea, Paludina, Physa* and *Vilvala*. Fossil flora includes over 50 species of fruits and seeds, 50 species of exogenous and endogenous leaves and stems, some of the latter being six feet in girth, roots and *Chara*.

Soil.

In the Archaean area the rocks are hidden beneath a considerable thickness of alluvial soil, deposited by the tributaries of the Kanhan and the Wainganga rivers. In the trappean area the soil is usually the black cotton soil known as regur with Kankar, which is also found in the soils on the Archaean areas.

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Useful Rocks and Minerals.

Industrial minerals and rocks found in various geological formations of the district are tabulated below:—

Soil	..	Brick clays and Kankar.
Deccan basalts	..	Building material (dolerite and basalts), Ornamental stones and Ochres.
Lameta	..	Building material, Limestones.
Kamthis	..	Building material, Abrasives and Clays.
Barakar	..	Coal and Clays.
Talchirs	..	Nil.
Archaean Rocks	..	Abrasives; Building material; Ores of Copper, Manganese, Lead and Tungsten; Limestone; Ornamental stones and Clays.

Brief description of the useful minerals and rocks of the district is as follows:—

Abrasives.

Various types of quartzite in the Archaean formations and some of the sandstones of the Kamthi stage are quarried for making millstones. Garnets found in abundance in the Archaean garnetiferous mica schists may be utilised as an abrasive.

Building Material.

The alluvial tracts of the Kanhan and the Wainganga rivers and their tributaries yield excellent brick-making clay, while the Deccan basalts provide excellent building stone and are quarried at several places. The Lameta limestones have been extensively used for making railway bridges in the district. Sandstones, suitable for fine carving is obtained from quarries in Kamthi beds at Silewada and Kamptee. The bridge over Kanhan at Kamptee is of this rock. The crystalline limestones occurring near Chorbaoli and Baregaon would make fine marbles, while beautifully marked serpentine marbles are found near Khorari. Slightly micaceous quartzites forming the Ramtek range of hills may be used as building stones. Kankar occurring extensively on the soil mantle is locally burnt for making lime used in mortar for construction purposes.

Clays.

Pottery clays are worked around Shemda, Chorkhairi, Khairi and Bazargaon. They all have medium to good plasticity, little shrinkage and give light cream colour when burned. The quarries at Chorkhairi and Shemda are 6 to 14 metres deep.

Coal.

Exploratory drilling near Kanhan Railway Station and just west of Kandri has proved the existence of several coal seams up to a thickness of 10 metres. These seams were found in Barakar beds (concealed beneath Kamthi beds) at various levels down to 100 metres from the surface. A shaft sunk near Tekadi passed a four-metre seam of workable coal containing 21% ash, having a calorific value of 9408 B.T.U. This seam is estimated to yield about 17·5 million tons of coal of which perhaps 13 million tons can be exploited; however, so far it has been proved that only about a million tons of this can be taken. Coal seams have also been met with in the bore-holes put down at Sonegaon (1.6 km. west of Umrer) where Gondwana rocks are concealed below Lameta beds. Nearly 300 million tons of coal of which more than 150 million tons is of first grade and the rest of third grade has been proved in an area of 10.36 km.^{2} in the Kamptee-Saoner belt. The indicated reserves in this belt alone are of the order of 1,000 million tons. Several other coal fields in Nagpur district are likely to be proved and the expected reserves may be more than double the above quantity. 'It will be interesting to note that the coal output in the Nagpur district increased from 70,539 metric tons in 1959 to 89,421 metric tons in 1961.'*

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Coal.

Limestone.

The Lameta beds at Kelod and Chicholi contain workable limestones and several bands of crystalline limestones are found in the Archaean rocks near Koradi, Baregaon and in the north-east corner of the district. Much of these limestones are, however, too impure to be used as a source of lime. Detailed prospecting may, however, bring to light deposits pure enough for burning into lime.

Manganese.

It was in 1900 that the extraction of manganese ore started in the district. Some of the most famous mines are located in the district. The ore bodies occur in rocks of the Gondite series (forming a portion of Sausar series), regarded as metamorphosed manganiferous sediments of Pre-Cambrian age.

Much of the workable ore bodies occur as lenticular masses and bands intercalated in quartzites, schists and gneisses and appear to have been formed at least in part, by chemical alteration of the rocks of Gondite series. The ore bodies are often well bedded parallel to the strike of the enclosing rock and several of them are often disposed along the same line of strike. An example is the line of deposits stretching from Dumri Kala to Khandala for about 20 km. and includes the valuable deposits of Beldongri, Lohdongri, Kachurwahi and Waregaon. Along with the enclosing rocks, the ore bodies have suffered repeated foldings. The deposits attain great dimensions as at Manegaon where it is about 2 km. long, the thickness, however, never exceeds 16 metres. The depth to which these ore bodies may persist is unknown but it is certain that in many cases they persist from 40 to 140 metres below the outcrop. The ore consists essentially of braunite, psilomelane and cryptomelane occasionally with hollandite and vrendenburgite. Frequently the ore bodies pass both along and across the strike into partly altered or fresh members of Gondite series. Manganese deposits of above types are mainly being worked at Kodegaon, Gumgaon, Ramdongri, Risala, Nandgondi, Kandri, Mansar, Parsoda, Borda, Parseoni, Bansinghi, Satak, Beldongri, Nagardhan, Nandapuri, Lohdongri, Kachurwahi, Waregaon, Khandala, Mandri, Panchala, Manegaon, Guguldoh and Bhandarbori. At Sitagondi and Dumri pebbles and fragments of ore not 'in situ' have been found.

A second type of ore associated with piedmontite and occurring as bands and nodules in crystalline limestones is found at Mohgaon, Pali, Gokula, Mandvi Bir, Junewani and Junapani. These deposits are not large enough for profitable working, except the one at Junewani where ore bed is of much greater thickness.

*Administration Report, Directorate of Geology and Mining, Maharashtra State, for the year 1960-61, p. 19.

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Useful Rocks and Minerals.

Manganese.

The quality of the ore in the district may be judged from an average of 30 samples, analysis of which is given below:

	Percentage	
Manganese	42·28	56·52
Iron	2·09	16·34
Silica	2·90	18·48
Phosphorus	0·04	0·65
Moisture	0·11	1·32

The ore from Pali is particularly suitable for the glass industry. Much of the ore produced in the district is exported, while a part is employed in the indigenous Ferro-manganese industry. The reserves of manganese ores of all grades in the district are of the order of 3,048,000 metric tons (3 million tons).

Ochres.

Yellow Ochre is associated with the Deccan lava flows at Kalmeshwar, and is locally used as a cheap distemper.

Ornamental Stones.

The large variety of marbles that occur in the Archaean rocks of north-eastern portions of the district and the Gondites with Rhodonite and Spessartite in the manganese belt provide excellent ornamental stones. The Rhodonite has a beautiful rose pink colour, often marked with black veins and spots due to alteration and is often spotted with orange due to the inclusion of Spessartite. Agates and Chalcedony found in the trappean portion of the district, may be cut and polished into ornamental objects of considerable beauty.

Minor occurrences of other ores.

Tungsten Ore.

Wolfram, associated with traces of Scheelite is found 1.2 km. west of Agargaon (51 km. south-east of Nagpur) on a low ridge on the right bank of the Kanhan river. The ore occurs in quartz veins intruding the phyllitic tornaline schists belonging to Sakoli series and can be traced for about 1,300 metres. Maximum width of a cluster of ore is about a metre.

Copper and Local Ores.

Chalcopyrite occurs in a basic dyke at Mahali about 6 km. north-east of Parseoni while specks of the same mineral occur in quartzose matrix in a cutting near Mandri. Fragments of Galena (Lead ore) are reported to have been found at Nimbha (27 km. north of Nagpur).

Ground water.

On the basis of the mode of occurrence of ground water, which is controlled by the type of geological formation present, the district can be classified into three distinct areas as detailed below:—

Archaean area.

The ground water may be capped in the weathered and jointed zones in these rocks, generally within 80 metres of the surface. The granite-gneisses and schists are commonly weathered to depths of 30 metres and this weathered mantle though constituting a large reservoir is not a specially permeable zone. The wells dug in this zone tap water at depths varying from 8 to 30 metres from the surface. A well of about 3 metres in diameter may afford a sustained daily yield. The quartzites and marbles are the poorest water-bearing rocks. Being massive they are devoid of permeable zones for circulation of water.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

GEOLOGY.

Ground water.

Gondwana (including Lameta) area.

Although the Talchir shales and Lameta beds are compact and impermeable, they carry some water along the joint and bedding planes and in the weathered mantle. The Barakars and Kamthis generally consisting of medium to coarse-grained friable sandstones constitute the most important aquifer in the district. In fact, the water-bearing Kamthis are dreaded by coal miners in the adjacent district who take special precautions not to puncture Kamthis so that they may not flood the mine. In these formations dug wells are capable of yielding up to 4,550,000 litres (one million gallons) a day and tube wells should be a success.

Trappean area.

Deccan basalts are poor water-bearing rocks. The weathered basalt 'Mooram' joint planes and flow contacts widened by weathering collectively constitute the ground water reservoir. Generally basalts hold very little or no water below 50 metres from the surface.

CLIMATE*.

Seasons.

The climate of this district is characterised by a hot summer, well distributed rainfall and dryness except in the rainy season. The cold season is from December to February and is followed by the hot season from March to May. The south-west monsoon season is from June to September while the period October-November constitutes the post-monsoon season.

Rainfall.

Records of rainfall in the district are available for ten stations for periods ranging from 27 to 94 years. The details of the rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole are given in tables 1 and 2. The average annual rainfall in the district is 1,161.54 mm. (45.73 inches). The rainfall generally increases from the west to the east in the district. The south-west monsoon usually reaches the district in the second week of June. The rainfall during the period, June to September constitutes about 90% of the annual total, July being the month with the highest rainfall. The variation in the annual rainfall from year to year is not large. In the fifty-year period 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall amounted to 133% of the normal for the district and occurred in 1917 and 1944. The lowest annual rainfall in the same fifty-year period was in 1920 and was 59% of the normal. The rainfall was less than 80% of the normal in nine years out of fifty, of which two were consecutive. But at some individual stations two or three consecutive years of rainfall less than 80% of the normal have occurred on more than one occasion. Rainfall less than 80% of the normal occurred practically throughout the district on two consecutive years 1920 and 1921, while in the Parseoni-Ramtek-Khindsi region 1922 was also a year with rainfall less than 80% of the normal. It will be seen from table 2 that the rainfall in the district as a whole was between 899.92 mm. and 1,400 mm. (35.43 inches and 55.12 inches) in 29 years out of 50.

On an average there are 59 rainy days (i.e., days with rainfall of 2.5 mm.—10 cents or more) in a year. This number varies from 55 at Parseoni to 63 at Tharsa and Nagpur.

*The section on 'Climate' is contributed by the Meteorological Department of the Government of India, Poona.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

CLIMATE.

Rainfall.

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 330.20 mm. (13.00 inches) at Umrer on August 14, 1953.

Temperature.

The only meteorological observatory in the district is at Nagpur, records of which are available for a long period of years. The cold weather commences towards the end of November and December is usually the coldest month with the mean daily maximum temparature at 27·7°C (81·8°F) and the mean daily minimum at 14·0°C (57·2°F). In the wake of western disturbances which pass across North India in the cold season, the district is sometimes affected by cold waves when the minimum temperature may go down to 4°C (39°F). From the beginning of March, temperature begins to rise rapidly. May is the hottest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at 42·7°C (108·8°F). The heat in the summer season is severe during the day, the nights being comparatively cooler. The afternoon heat is sometimes relieved by thundershowers. The onset of the south-west monsoon by about the second week of June brings welcome relief from the heat, with a considerable drop in temperature. With the withdrawal of the south-west monsoon by the beginning of October, the day temperature shows a slight increase in October and thereafter begins to fall, while the night temperature decreases after September.

The highest maximum temperature recorded at Nagpur was 47·8°C (118·1°F) on May 26, 1954 and the lowest minimum temperature was 3.9°C (39.0°F) on January 7, 1937.

Humidity.

Except during the monsoon season when the humidities are high, the air is generally dry. The summer season is the driest part of the year when the relative humidities go down to 20% or less particularly in the afternoons.

Cloudiness.

Skies are mainly heavily clouded to overcast in the south-west monsoon season. In the post-monsoon months moderate cloudiness is common. In the rest of the year skies are usually clear or lightly clouded. But the cloudiness increases on many summer afternoons.

Winds.

Winds are generally light to moderate with some increase in speed in the later part of the summer season and the monsoon months. During the monsoon season winds are mostly from directions between south-west. In the period from October to December the winds are mainly northerly to north-easterly in the mornings and north-easterly to easterly in the afternoons. In January, winds from directions between north-west and north-east are common in the mornings and between north-east and south-east in the afternoons. While the winds in the mornings of February and March are as in January, the afternoon winds become variable. In the rest of the summer season winds are mostly from directions between south-west and north-west.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

CLIMATE.

Special Weather Phenomena.

In the monsoon months, depressions from the Bay of Bengal move westwards across the central parts of the country and affect the district and its neighbourhood causing widespread heavy rain and strong winds. Thunderstorms occur in all seasons although their frequency is very small in the period from November to January. The frequency of occurrence is highest in June when the incidence of thunderstorm is as high as once in three days. Dust-raising winds and less frequently, dust-storms, occur in the summer season.

Tables 3, 4 and 5 give the temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and the frequency of special weather phenomena, respectively, for Nagpur.

TABLE

NORMALS AND

Station (1)	Number of years of data (2)		January (3)	February (4)	March (5)
Nagpur	50	*a*	11·4	23·4	16·8
		b	0·9	1·8	1·6
Umrer	50	*a*	13·2	21·8	14·7
		b	1·0	1·7	1·5
Ramtek	50	*a*	14·7	26·9	17·3
		b	1·2	1·8	1·9
Katol	50	*a*	15·0	22·6	14·5
		b	1·0	1·5	1·3
Saoner	42	*a*	16·0	23·1	16·0
		b	1·2	1·8	1·8
Tharsa	35	*a*	15·2	27·4	19·1
		b	1·1	2·0	1·9
Deolapar	34	*a*	20·8	19·6	16·3
		b	1·1	1·7	1·5
Parseoni	34	*a*	18·0	27·7	15·2
		b	1·2	1·4	1·4
Khindsi	37	*a*	15·2	23·1	16·5
		b	1·2	1·7	1·6
Bori	27	*a*	10·7	20·1	11·4
		b	0·9	1·5	1·2
Nagpur (District)		*a*	15·0	23·6	15·8
		b	1·1	1·7	1·5

(*a*) Normal rainfall in millimetres.

No. 1.

EXTREMES OF RAINFALL.

April (6)	May (7)	June (8)	July (9)	August (10)
16·3	20·8	222·0	376·2	286·3
1·5	2·1	9·9	16·3	13·6
13·5	15·2	199·6	395·5	314·2
1·1	1·4	8·9	16·5	13·0
15·5	14·0	184·1	375·9	300·2
1·2	1·2	8·9	16·8	14·2
12·2	15·0	175·3	292·6	216·4
1·0	1·5	8·9	14·8	11·6
12·5	19·1	196·1	311·7	229·4
1·2	1·7	10·0	14·9	11·5
13·7	12·7	191·5	391·7	323·3
1·4	1·3	9·5	17·0	14·4
17·3	12·9	175·3	364·0	285·7
1·0	1·2	9·4	16·4	14·5
10·7	12·9	169·9	365·8	252·0
0·8	1·2	8·6	15·4	12·4
9·9	12·7	189·5	384·6	284·7
0·8	1·1	8·2	16·7	13·6
18·8	14·7	173·5	318·0	221·2
1·0	1·3	9·6	15·2	11·5
14·0	15·0	187·7	357·6	271·3
1·1	1·4	9·2	16·0	13·0

(*b*) Average number of rainy days (days with rainfall of 2·5 mm. or more).

TABLE No. 1.

NORMALS AND EXTREMES OF RAINFALL.

Station	Number of years of data	September	October	November	December	Annual	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal and year †	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal and year †	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours*	
									Rainfall (mm.)	Date
(1)	(2)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
Nagpur	50	184·7	54·6	19·8	9·9	1,242·2	156 (1933)	58 (1902)	315·0	1911, June, 12
		10·1	3·2	1·1	0·7	62·8				
Umrér	50	210·1	54·1	19·8	7·6	1,279·3	167 (1936)	49 (1902)	330·2	1953, Aug , 14
		10·2	2·7	1·0	0·6	59·6				
Ramtek	50	188·7	49·0	17·3	7·1	1,210·7	144 (1937)	55 (1902)	287·0	1890, Sept., 25
		9·8	2·7	1·1	0·6	61·4				
Katol	50	176·3	43·9	18·5	8·4	1,010·7	164 (1944)	55 (1920)	261·6	1879, June, 1
		9·6	2·6	1·2	0·8	55·8				
Saoner	42	167·9	52·1	21·1	9·7	1,074·7	145 (1949)	53 (1950)	215·7	1942, July, 11
		9·5	2·8	1·2	0·7	57·8				
Tharsa	35	201·4	60·2	23·1	4·1	1,283·4	145 (1938)	66 (1921)	222·0	1937, Sept., 7
		10·0	3·2	1·2	0·3	63·3				
Deolapar	34	197·4	55·6	16·3	2·0	1,183·2	148 (1944)	54 (1920)	152·4	1954, Sept., 22
		10·4	2·4	0·9	0·2	60·7				
Parseóni	34	162·3	51·8	13·5	5·6	1,105·4	145 (1938)	57 (1950)	318·8	1942, July, 12
		8·3	2·7	0·8	0·4	54·6				
Khindsi	37	193·0	46·7	13·7	3·8	1,193·4	160 (1917)	58 (1924)	279·4	1942, July, 12
		10·4	2·8	0·8	0·3	59·2				
Bori	27	163·1	62·0	14·5	5·6	1,033·6	152 (1938)	57 (1920)	162·1	1940, June, 26
		9·5	3·2	1·0	0·5	56·4				
Nagpur (District) ..		184·5	53·0	17·8	6·4	1,161·7	133 (1944)	59 (1920)		
		9·8	2·8	1·0	0·5	59·1				

(*a*) Normal rainfall in mm.
*Based on all available
†Years given

(*b*) Average number of rainy days (days with rainfall of 2·5 mm. or more).
data up to 1950.
in brackets.

CHAPTER 1.
General.
CLIMATE.
Rainfall.

TABLE No. 2.

FREQUENCY OF ANNUAL RAINFALL IN THE NAGPUR DISTRICT

(Data 1901—1950)

Range in mm. (1)	No. of years (2)	Range in mm. (3)	No. of years (4)
601—700	2	1101—1200	7
701—800	3	1201—1300	6
801—900	3	1301—1400	3
901—1000	4	1401—1500	7
1001—1100	9	1501—1600	6

TABLE No. 3.

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY (NAGPUR DISTRICT).

Month	Mean Daily Maximum Temperature	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature	Highest Maximum ever recorded		Lowest Minimum ever recorded		Relative humidity	
							0830	1730*
	°C	°C	°C	Date	°C	Date	per cent	per cent
January	28·7	14·3	35·0	1900, Jan. 29 ..	3·9	1937, Jan. 7 ..	58	37
February ..	31·2	16·6	38·9	1887, Feb. 28 ..	5·0	1950, Feb. 12 ..	49	31
March	35·9	20·7	45·0	1892, Mar. 28 ..	8·3	1898, Mar. 4 ..	36	23
April	40·3	25·1	46·1	1942, April 30 ..	13·9	1905, April 1 ..	32	20
May	42·7	28·3	47·8	1954, May 26 ..	19·4	1917, May 4 ..	31	19
June	37·6	26·2	47·2	1931, June 10 ..	20·0	1919, June 18 ..	60	50
July	31·2	24·2	40·6	1897, July 4 ..	19·4	1942, July 13 ..	78	75
August	30·7	23·9	37·8	1899, Aug. 25 ..	18·3	1939, Aug. 20 ..	78	75
September	32·1	23·7	38·9	1899, Sept. 29 ..	18·3	1904, Sept. 30 ..	75	67
October	32·8	20·6	38·3	1899, Oct. 8 ..	11·7	1952, Oct. 30 ..	62	46
November	29·8	16·5	35·6	1899, Nov. 2 ..	6·7	1912, Nov. 30 ..	57	59
December	27·7	14·0	33·9	1941, Dec. 25 ..	5·6	1936, Dec. 30 ..	58	38
Annual	33·4	21·2					56	43

*Hours I.S.T.

TABLE No. 4

MEAN WIND SPEED IN KILOMETRES PER HOUR

(NAGPUR DISTRICT)

January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Annual
5·5	6·4	7·2	8·0	10·3	11·3	10·8	9·0	7·4	6·1	5·6	5·1	7·7

TABLE No. 5

SPECIAL WEATHER PHENOMENA

(NAGPUR DISTRICT)

Mean number of days with	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Annual
Thunder	1·3	3·1	3·8	4·3	5·2	10·8	4·5	5·4	5·8	2·5	0·1	0·2	47·0
Hail	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.5	0·1	0·6
Dust-Storm ..	..	..	0·1	0·4	0·3	0·1	..	..	..	..	..	..	0·9
Squall	..	0·1	0·2	0·1	0·1	0·1	..	..	..	..	..	..	0·6
Fog	..	..	0·1	..	..	..	..	0·1	..	..	0·1	0·1	0·4

Up to December, 1959 Wardha and Nagpur districts had a combined forest division. Since then two separate divisions were created.

Territorial Changes.

The Nagpur district has at present a total of 2,256.67 km² (882.88 square miles) of area under forests. It lies approximately between 79° to 80° east longitude and 20° to 21° north latitude. Of the total area, 1,326.749 km² (512.11 square miles) are under reserved forests and 960.786 km² (370.77 square miles) under protected forests. It has been proposed to declare the latter as reserved forests under section 4 of the Indian Forest Act, 1927.

To exercise a strict supervision over the forests and for efficient management the forest division has been sub-divided into smaller units called ranges, rounds and beat charges. The following table gives the number of ranges, rounds and beats as also headquarters and area of reserved and protected forests falling within each range:—

TABLE No. 6.

Name of Range (1)	Headquarter (2)	Area in km². Reserved Forests (3)	Protected Forests (4)	Total (5)	Number of Rounds (6)	Number of Beats (7)
1. Kondhali	Kondhali	251·90 (97.26)*	317·81 (122.71)	569·72 (219.97)	3	30
2. Ramtek	Ramtek	274·54 (106.00)	80·54 (31.10)	355·08 (137.10)	3	18
3. Deolapar	Deolapar	305·43 (117.93)	31·96 (12.34)	337·39 (130.27)	3	18
4. Khapa	Khapa	303·72 (117.27)	80·26 (30.99)	383·99 (148.26)	4	24
5. South Umrer ..	Umrer	152·93 (59.05)	169·23 (65.34)	322·17 (124.39)	3	10
6. North Umrer ..	Umrer	37·81 (14.60)	280·47 (108.29)	318·28 (122.89)	3	17
	Total ..	1,326·33 (512.11)	960·29 (370.77)	2,286·65 (882.88)	19	117

*Figures in brackets indicate area in square miles.

The distribution of forests and type of vegetation is mainly governed by the rainfall, climate and geological formations of the tract.

The plains in the district are under cultivation and are usually of a park-like appearance owing to the scattered groves of tamarind, mango, mahua and other fruit trees. The courses of the streams are fringed with lines and clumps of date-palm, and the most common tree of the open country is the *babul* (*Acacia arabica*). The hills that separate the various plains and valleys are at times bare except for a few grasses and stumpy shrubs, such as *flueggea*, *Phyllanthus* and the like, or are clothed with a sparse jungle of which *Boswellia* is the principal constituent with little or no undergrowth of grass. The forests are mainly situated on a large block on the Satpuda hills to the north-east, while smaller isolated patches are dotted on those extending along the south-western border. The forest growth varies with the nature of the soil, *saj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *achar* (*Buchanania latifolia*) and *tendu* (*Diospyros tomentosa*), being characteristic on the heavy soils, teak on good well-drained slopes, *Salai* (*Boswellia serrata*) on the steep hillsides and ridges, and satinwood on the sandy levels. Mixed with these are *Anogussus latifolia*, *Adina cordifolia*, *Butea frondosa* and other similar trees. The scrub growth consists of shrubs as *woodfordia*, *Antidesma*, *clustanthus*, *Grewia*, *Nyetanthes*, with stunted *Diospyros* and other trees. The following are the main local types of forests:—

(*I*) *Good quality teak with well-stocked mixed forests.*—In these forests, the proportion of teak varies from 30% to 60% of the crop and the average height varies from 13.716 m. to 18.30 m. (45′ to 60′) corresponding to type IV and type III of the standard quality. Other associates of teak are *saj*, *salai*, *dhaora*, *tendu*, *ghot*, *mahua*, *tiwsa*, *achar*, *bija*, *shisham*, *dhaman*, etc. These forests are capable of producing big-sized timber. The proportion of this type of forests in trap zone is 13·58% of the total area.

(*II*) *Poor quality teak forests.*—This type is found in dry exposed localities and the quality of the crop is mostly IV b (C. P.). Proportion of teak varies from 50% to 95% of the crop and other associates of teak are *lendia*, *dhaora*, *bhirra*, *garai*, etc. Preponderance of *Salai*, especially on hill slopes is noticeable. This type of forest is capable of producing only small-sized poles below 0.61 metre (2′) in girth at breast height and firewood. The proportion of these forests is 35·90% of the total area.

(*III*) *Mixed Forests.*—This type is confined to poorly drained stiff soil. The main species occurring are *saj*, *tendu*, *lendia*, *dhaora*, *achar*, *mahua*, *aonla*, *birla*, *bija*, *shisham*, etc. This type of forests is capable of producing small-sized poles and firewood. The proportion of these forests is 22·99% of the total area.

(*IV*) *Poorly and openly stocked forests.*—The following local subtypes which are almost pure in composition may be distinguished:—

(*i*) *Saj.*—Where the soil contains moisture and the drainage is poor, specially in depressions, Saj thrives well.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

FORESTS.

Composition and Condition.

(*ii*) *Palas*. This is chiefly found in heavy water-logged areas and in areas of black soil subjected to very heavy grazing.

(*iii*) *Khair, Ber sub-type*.—Wherever grazing is heavy and fires frequent, this sub-type comes up well, specially on arid soils.

Protection of Wild Life. In order to protect wild life shooting blocks have been prepared and thus unauthorised and excessive shooting is checked.

Under Third Five-Year Plan, Pench National Park has been established for preservation of wild life in this division.

FISH AND FISHERIES.

Sources and Prospects.

There are no major riverine fisheries in Nagpur district. Of the rivers of Nagpur only Wainganga, Wardha, Kanhan and Pench are important from the fishery point of view. The fisheries in the district are located along the tanks and lakes. The most important lakes and tanks in the district from this point of view are: (1) Lake Ramsagar, (2) Ambazari, (3) Gorewada, (4) Telankhedi (5) Gandhi Sagar, (6) Mansar and (7) Chakorda. Save in tanks Nos. 2 and 3 fish culture is undertaken on scientific lines. In addition to the above tanks there are several small perennial tanks at Katol, Umrer, Bhivapur, Kuhi, Bhojapur, Bazargaon and Gumgaon, where fish culture has been undertaken either in public or in private sector. There are about 37 perennial and 241 seasonal tanks in the district which provide excellent scope for fishery development.

Fishing Communities.

The chief fishing communities are *Bhois*, *Kahars* and *Dhiwars*. Except at Nagpur and Ramtek the fishermen population is scattered throughout the district. At places other than Ramtek and Nagpur the fishermen are not wholly dependent on fishing because it does not provide them with full-time gainful employment. They, therefore, keep themselves busy with other petty professions.

Methods of Fishing.

Fishing in tanks and rivers is done by means of cast nets (*'bhor Jal'*). Drag net, gill-*cum*-bag net (*'pitai'*) and gill net.

The following is a brief description of each type of net:—

Cast net: locally known as *'Bhor jal'* is the commonest gear used in the district. This net when cast in water becomes conical. The periphery of the bottom is provided with heavy beads, used as sinkers, whereby the net sinks quickly and traps the fish. When the net is pulled with the string provided at the top, the peripheral margin forms a series of pockets, and it is in these pockets that the fish get entangled. The mesh size of this net is 1.27 cm. (½ inch) to 2.54 cm. (1 inch) depending upon the size of the fish to be caught.

Drag net: Drag net is formed of many pieces joined together, depending upon the width of the water sheet. The net when cast forms a semi-circle around certain area. It is then drawn on the opposite bank and the fish is collected.

Gill-cum-bag net: locally known as *'pitai'* is used in tanks having a good stock of fish, especially major carps. The gear consists of 30.48 metres (100 feet) long and 5.49 to 6.09 metres (18 feet to 20 feet) deep webbing with a mesh size of 0.38 metre to 0.61 metre (1½ feet to 2 feet). The floats are made of the

CHAPTER 1.

General.

FISH AND FISHERIES.

Methods of Fishing.

bark of tree or of gourds while lead beads are used as sinkers. The nets are spread in a semicircular fashion and are held by two fishermen. Others scare the fish towards the nets by beating the water and shouting aloud. The fishermen make use of two sealed tins tied together which are used as floating seats. When the area is completely encircled by the net the foot rope and the head rope are brought together thus forming a bag in which the fish are trapped. The collected fish are put in the net-bag called *'Kharya'*. This type of gear is rather selective as small-sized fish pass through the net trapping only the bigger fish. The fish is not gilled in this method.

Gill net: was formerly made of cotton twine but the fishermen now make use of synthetic twines of nylon and terylene which are more lasting. The size of the mesh of this net depends upon the size of the fish to be caught. The webbing of the net is fastened with the head-rope above and foot-rope below. The upper border of the net is made to float by means of floats while the lower one tied with the foot rope is made heavy by means of beads of lead. In this way the net is kept horizontally spread in the water in which the fish get entangled while moving through it and thus serves the purpose. This is now becoming popular among the fishermen in the district.

Fishing Craft: As the water strips are very small, there are no special type of crafts. Fishermen use *'dongis'* or small boats. Mostly two sealed tins tied together which form a floating seat called *'ghodi'* are used.

Co-operatives.

The first co-operative society known as Fishermen's Multi-purpose Co-operative Society, Limited, was established at Ramtek in 1944. At present the district has nine such co-operative societies with a total membership of 1,449 persons and a total share capital of Rs. 17,336.

Five-Year Plans.

During the First Five-Year Plan progress made in the culture of fisheries was negligible. At the beginning of the Second Five-Year Plan an extensive survey of the tanks in the district was conducted and these tanks were brought under fish culture. The inland waters were stocked with carp fry and units of nursery and rearing were set up at Takli and Telankhedi. A loan of Rs. 30,000 was given to the Nagpur Municipal Corporation for constructing a fish-market. Arrangements were made to establish cold storage plants and for marketing fish in hinterland. The fishermen were provided with fishery requisites and the societies at Ramtek and *Jal Kshetra* Society at Nagpur were given loan-*cum*-subsidy for the construction of boats. Private parties and societies at Nagpur were given subsidy for the purchase of nylon and terylene twines.

The Third Five-Year Plan envisages the following different schemes:—

(1) *Assistance for purchase of fishery requisites*.—This scheme proposes to spend Rs 44,000 in granting subsidy for the purchase of nylon and cotton twines, and fish hooks.

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Five-Year Plans.

(2) *Stocking of tanks with carp fry.*—This has two sub-schemes, *viz.*, (i) establishment of nurseries on which Rs. 23,000 would be spent and (ii) stocking of inland waters with carp fry.

The scheme envisages increase in the yield of fish in inland fisheries. Baby fish (carp fry of select growing varieties) is to be imported from West Bengal and is to be stocked in Government owned tanks and also to be made available to local authorities on sale to be nurtured in the tanks owned by them along with the collection of local fry. The operation of rearing the baby fish up to the fingerling stage is to be undertaken prior to their stocking in larger sheets. The target for the State as a whole is to stock about three crores of imported carp fry, to collect about twelve lakhs of local carp fry and to establish 30 nurseries. The scheme is estimated to cost Rs. 10·78 lakhs, half of which is to be borne by the Panchayats and other local bodies.

(3) *Preservation, marketing and transport facilities.*—Rs. 35,000 have been set aside for making one truck available for the transport of fish. The object of the scheme is to assist fishermen in realising full value of their production by providing them with facilities of preservation, transport and marketing of fish from landing sites to fish markets.

(4) Scheme for development of co-operative fisheries.

(5) Grant of loan for fishery co-operatives for which purpose a sum of Rs. 40,000 has been set aside.

[1] 'The object is to encourage the fishermen to organise themselves into co-operatives in order to improve their productive capacity and to make them less dependent on middlemen for marketing. The total number of fisheries co-operatives will be 137 by the end of the Second Plan. During the Third Plan, it is proposed to organise 25 more Co-operative Societies and to increase the membership of the existing societies.

The scheme consists in share capital participation in fishery co-operatives, grant of subsidy to them against managerial cost in the initial years and grant of subsidy and loans for construction of godowns.'

The scheme is estimated to cost Rs. 14·48 lakhs.

List of Fishes.

Following is a list of common fishes of economic importance found in Nagpur district:—

Order	:	*Eventognathi*
Family	:	*Cyprinidae*
Sub-family	:	*Abraminidae*

Oxygaster clupeoides (*BL*)	*Alkut.*
Oxygaster phulo	*Alkut.*

[1]Maharashtra State Scheme in the Third Five-Year Plan, 1961, p. 122.

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List of Fishes.

They are bright silvery coloured with deciduous scales. They grow to about 0.15 metre (6 inches) and are valued much in the market. They are also important as larvicidal.

Sub-family	:	*Rasborinae*
Barilius bendelesis (*Ham*) ..	..	*Johra.*
Perilampus atpar (*Ham*) ..	..	*Bonkuaso.*
Perilampus laubuca (*Ham*) ..	..	*Bankoc.*
Danio malbaricus (*Jerdon*) ..	..	*Noottoo.*
Danio rario (*Ham*) ..	..	
Aspidoparia morar (*Ham*) ..	..	*Chilwa, pichla.*
Rasbora daniconius (*Ham*) ..	..	*Gana khomli*
Esomus danrica (*Ham*) ..	..	

All the above varieties grow to about 10 to 15 cm. (4 to 6 inches) and together form the minor fishery in the tanks of the district. Some of them are also worth displaying in aquarium due to their varied shapes. They are very much valued in the market and are sold fresh when they can be preserved for about two days.

Sub-family	:	*Cyprininae*
Puntius ticto (*Ham*)	..	*Tapree, Potiah.*
Puntius stigma (*Ham*) ..	..	*Potiah.*
Puntius kolus (*Sykes*) ..	..	*Kolis.*
Puntius amphibius (*C & V*)	..	*Bhondgi.*
Puntius tetrarupagus (*McClell*)	..	*Durhi.*
Puntius neilli (*Day*)	..	*Waris, Kusra, Baras.*
Puntius hexastichus (*McClell*)	..	
Puntius sarana (*Ham*) ..	..	*Giddi kudali.*

Out of the above varieties only *P. kolus, P. neilli, P. hexastichus* grow big in size but others are small of about 15 to 20 cm. (6 to 8 inches) in length. *P. ticto, P. stigma* and *P. kolus* are very common in the catch of minor fish while other varieties are rarely found in the usual catch.

Genus	*Cirrhina.*
Cirrhina	*Rewah, Dongra*
Reba (Ham)	

The above varieties grow to a foot in length and are found in very small quantities.

Genus	*Labeo.*
Labeo fimbriatus (Bloch)	*Tanbra.*
Labeo calbasu (Ham)	*Kanoshi.*
Labeo rohita (Ham)	*Rahu, Ruee.*
Labeo bata (Ham)	*Bata.*
Labeopotail (Sykes)	*Dotondi*
Labeo bogut (Sykes)	*Kolees.*

They are all excellent table fish and grow to very big size. Especially *L. rohita* grows the longest of all of them and attains a length of about 0.91 metre (3 feet) or more. It fetches a very good price.

The important varieties belonging to this family are *Catla catla, Labeo rohita* and *Cirrhina mrigala*, locally called as *Catla, Rohu* and *Mrigal* are imported from Calcutta every year and are introduced in many tanks in the district. Due to their fast growth they are cultured on a very large scale and form a great portion of the major fishery. All of these three varieties are highly esteemed and fetch good returns to the pisciculturists in the district.

Family : *Cobitidae*

Lepidocephalichthys Guntea (Ham) .. *Gurgutchi.*
Nemachilus botia (Ham) .. .. *Teli-mura*
Nemachilus beavani (Gunther) ..
Nemachilichthys ruppelli (Sykes) ..

They are small varieties growing up to 7·6 cm. (3 inches). They are bottom-feeders and dwell on sandy and gravelly bottoms. They are supposed to be of medicinal value and are rarely available.

Order : *Ostariophysi*
Sub-order : *Siluroidae*
Family : *Siluroidae*

Ompak bimaculatus (BP) .. .. *Gugli*
Clarius batrachus (Linn) .. .. *Wagar, Mangri*
Sacchobranchus fossilis (BP).. .. *Singee*
Wallago attu (BP) .. .. .. *Bojari*
Eutropiichthys Varsh (Ham) .. *Butchua*

These are carnivorous fishes and make a good eating. They grow to about 0.30 metre (one foot) in length. *Wallago attu* is found to grow 1·83 metres (6 feet) in length and it being a voracious predator is called fresh water shark. The first three of the above are live fishes and are sold alive in the market. They are put in '*thalis*' with little water just to keep them active. They are also equally valued as major carps in the market though they are less preferred in cultural ponds. However, they are locally available in plenty.

Family : *Bagridae*

Mystus Seenghala (Sykes) .. .. *Seenghala*
Mystus Gavasius (HB) .. .. *Shingata*
Mystus Vitatus (BP) .. .. .. *Tengra*

These grow to about 0.30 metre (a foot) in length. They are also predatory.

Family : *Sisoridae*

Bagarius bagarius (HB) .. .. *Bodh*

It is very big-sized fish and attains a length of 1.83 metres (6 feet) or more. It is a very ugly-looking fish and is known to be one of the largest fresh water fish and is highly predatory.

Order : *Apodes*
Family : *Anguillidae*

Anguilla bangalensis (Gray).. .. *Aheer*

It grows to 1·22 metres (4 feet) in length. The young ones have brownish colour above, yellowish on the sides and below. Larger specimen are olive brown, covered with black spots and blotches. It is very common in Khindsi lake at Ramtek and also in other tanks. It forms a sizeable portion of the catch sometimes.

Order : *Synehtognathi*
Family : *Xenentodontidae*

Xenentodon cancilla (H & B) .. *Suwa*

It has a long beak-like mouth and is greenish white in colour. It is a tasty fish growing to about 22.86 cm. (9″) in length.

Order : *Labyrinthici*
Family : *Ophicephalidae*

Chana leuco-punctatus (Sykes) .. *Botri*
Chana marulius (Ham) .. .. *Phulmaral*
Chana gachua (Ham) .. .. *Dhok*
Chana striatus (BP) .. .. .. *Maral* or *Dhadkya*

Except *C. gachua*, other species grow to about 0·30 metre (a foot) in length and even more than that. They have got a peculiarly shaped head resembling that of a snake and hence are called snake-headed fishes. They are live-fishes and are sold alive in the market. They are highly predatory, very common in most of the tanks and are greatly esteemed as food. They exhibit parental care.

Order : *Percomorphi*
Family : *Nandidae*

Nandus marmoratus .. .. .. *Sawar macchi*
Badis badis (H & B) .. .. *Kala potiah*

They are very common in Khindsi lake and in Ramtek and are caught in large numbers.

Family : *Ambassidae*

Ambassis ranga (H & B) .. .. *Kanghi macchi*
Ambassis baculius (H & B) .. .. *Kanghi macchi*

They grow to about 7.6 cm. (3 inches). They are beautiful in appearance due to their transparent glassy body. Hence they are important as aquarium fish.

Order : *Gobioidea*
Family : *Gobiidea*

Glossogobius giuris (Ham) .. .. *Dhasra*
Kharpa

It grows to about 15 to 20 cm. (6 to 8 inches) in size, rarely available and not important commercially.

Order : *Opisthomi*
Family : *Mastacembelidae*

Mastacembelus armatus (Lacep) .. *Vam*
Pancalus (H & B) ..
Rhynchobdells acvleata (B 1) .. *Gaichee*

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Common in tanks and rivers. It attains a size of 0.61 metre (2 feet) or more in length and is highly priced.

Family : *Notopteridae*

Notopterus notopterus (Pallas) .. *Pulli chambaree*

It is rarely found in tanks. It grows to 0.61 metre (2 feet) or more and is tasty. Since it is rarely available it is not commercially important in Nagpur district.

WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS.

Fauna of Nagpur district is quite varied in nature and can be classified mainly into Big game and Small game. The former includes all wild animals except small rodents such as hares, while the latter includes all birds and rodents.

Habits and habitats.

Names of wild animals and birds found in the district along with the description of their habits and habitats, etc., is as follows:

Felis Tigris.—Tiger is perhaps the most majestic animal of this forest division and occurs in sufficient numbers specially in two ranges, *viz.*, Deolapar and West-Pench. In one single night tiger moves from 8 to 16 km. (5 to 10 miles) in search of a prey, taking more often, paths, cut lines of forests, so that swift-running animals can be easily caught. Tiger makes surprise attacks on other animals at waterholes or salt-licks. Tiger is a silent killer and kills the animal practically instantaneously by breaking its vertebral column at the neck joint with the help of its powerful jaws and body weight.

Tiger is a clean feeder. This is clear from the kills of the tiger wherein the entrails are seen taken out and placed 9 to 18 metres (10 to 20 yards) away from the kill.

Normally, tiger avoids direct encounter with man. However, when injured by poachers and other *shikaris* it is unable to catch swift animals like deer, sambhar, etc., and under such circumstances it takes to man-eating.

The growl of a tiger will turn to a snarl or a short roar when angry or to a loud whoop when surprised. The animal also makes a belling sound, like the call of the animal on which it preys.

Felis Pardus (Panther).—It is a nocturnal animal having black cloudy spots on the body. When compared with tiger, it is smaller in size but more cunning and dangerous. It has the habit of taking the kill to roofs or over branches and cover it with leaves. Its prey is varied and includes all small game, pigs, deer, monkeys, young domesticated live-stock, and porcupines. It is often found on the outskirts of villages carrying away village dogs and prefers scrubby jungles to dense forests.

Unlike the tiger it is a filthy feeder and eats away even the entrails along with the other parts of the body.

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WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS.

Habits and Habitats.

Melursus Ursinus (Sloth Bear).—This is found in some numbers particularly in West-Pench range of this division. It digs out termites with its powerful claws, blows the earth from around them and sucks them up with its moveable lips. During the fruiting season it is seen eating away *Bor* (*Zizyphus Jujuba*) or *Mahua* (*Madhuca Latifolia*) fruits, etc. It attacks the intruder when surprised, lashing out with its powerful claws, more often because of its short-sightedness. It is also hard of hearing.

Bos gaurus.—These are found in small numbers in the West-Pench range and occur in small herds. It is a shy herbivorous animal of the size of a buffalo or even bigger with a prominent ridge on the back and rounded horns. The males are black, with white stockings, while the young ones are chestnut red. These animals are noted for their wariness and savagery when wounded.

Deer.—

Cervus duvancelli (Barasingha).
Cervus unicolor (Sambhar).
Cervus axis (Chital).
Cervus muntjak (Barking Deer).

This deer-family is remarkable in that most of them produce and shed annually very large antlers with numerous points or tines. *Barasingha*, for example, has got forked horns with twelve points on either side. These antlers (horns) rise from bony pedicels on the skull, just behind the eyes. These antlers in the beginning are covered with soft hairy skin called "Velvet". When the full length is reached, velvet dries up on the horn and becomes brittle. It is finally scrapped off against bushes and trees.

Barasingha is often known as swamp deer, for it occurs near the marshy swamps. However, its occurrence on the dry ground is also not uncommon.

Sambhar and Chital occur in the flat country as well as on the hills in this division, often coming out in open grassy areas in the evenings.

Barking Deer is a dark chocolate-coloured deer, so named because of its alarm call, resembling the bark of a dog. This alarm call is given when it feels the presence of carnivora in the near vicinity. Thus this animal is supposed to be a friend of other herbivorous animals as well as those of *shikaris*.

Antelopes.—

(1) *Antelope Cervicapra* (Black Buck).
(2) *Gazella bennetti* (Chinkara) or Indian Gazelle.
(3) *Tetraceros quadricornis* (Four-horned Antelope).
(4) *Boselaphus Tragocamelus* (Nilgai).

These have hollow horns seated on bony cores, and are never shed.

Black Buck is having spiral horns running to 0.76 metre (30 inches), and the glossy back of the upper two-thirds of an old buck's coat contrasts sharply with the white of the under parts.

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Habits and Habitats.

Chinkara.—It prefers mostly scrubby parts of this division. Four-horned antelopes (*Chousinga*), mistaken for *Chinkara*, have no black colour on the face. They have two pairs of upright horns. The front pair is 5 cm. (2 inches) long and the rear pair is 10 cm. (4 inches) long. More often the front pair forms merely small knobs. They move solitary or in pairs.

Nilgai (Blue bull).—It is a big clumsy beast. The males are dark blue grey and the cows brown.

Hyaena.—Morphologically it resembles a dog, but has yellowish grey-coloured body with black stripes like that of a tiger. It lives mostly on the kills killed by either tiger or panther, eating all the putrified flesh left over by them. Often it eats bony portions left over by tigers or panthers. It also prowls at night near the outskirts of villages for fowls or stray dogs.

Sus cristatus (Wild Boar).—It is perhaps the most menacing animal in this division, damaging fields of jowar and other crops overnight. They are brown grey or brown with stiff, rather scanty hair and weigh as much as 181 kg. (400 lb.) These have powerful tushes which are often 12.7 to 20 cm. (5 inches to 8 inches) long.

Canis aureus (Jackals).—It is a dull brownish black-coloured animal. They occur in pairs or in small groups and live mostly on left-over tiger-kills and village fowls, etc.

Cyon dukhunensis (Wild dogs).—These are perhaps the most ferocious animals, occurring in packs of 30 to 40. They do not bark, but give a peculiar whistling cry. They are dull brown in colour with a bushy tail which is not curved up like an ordinary dog but remains more or less parallel.

They feed largely on deer, which are run down by these animals for miles around. Even tigers and leopards are sometimes forced to give up their kill by these redoubtable dogs.

Lepus reficaudatus (Hare).—These are rodents living in the burrows made underground and feed on young buds and fruits lying on the ground in these forests. They even attack the young leaves of the neighbouring fields.

Hystrix lecura (Porcupine).—These animals are active during the night only. Their bodies bear powerful claws and quills. The latter when spread over for the defence are sufficient to discourage even such animals as leopards and tigers.

Apart from the animals including big game and small game described above, this division has got quite a few interesting birds also. Their habit, habitats along with the description, is given below.

Capella gallinago (Snipe).—It is a marsh bird of the size of a quail with straight slender bill. It is dark brown above streaked with black rufous and buff, whitish below. It is found along

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WILD ANIMALS AND BIRDS.

Habits and Habitats.

the paddy fields. It suddenly flushes out on close approach with a characteristic harsh note. It feeds on worms, insects, larvae, etc.

Sarkidiornis melanotos (Duck).—A large duck having black and green colour above and whitish below, head and neck bearing black spots. There is a swollen knob at the base of drake's bill. It walks and dives well and perches freely. It is found in the vicinity of open ponds and feeds mostly on insects and frogs. It gives a low grating croak and a loud honk in the breeding season.

Columba livia Gmelin (Blue Rock Pigeon).—It is quite a common bird of slaty grey colour with a glistening of metallic green and purple on the neck. This bird occupies cliffs and rocky hills. Often it is seen in semi-domesticated condition. It feeds on cereals, pulses etc.

Pavo cristatus (Pea Fowl).—This is a gorgeous tailed bird (in males), with a very beautiful appearance. They usually come out in small packs, either early in the morning or evening out of their hides in open areas on river beds. Their food consists of grains, insects, etc.

Coturnix coromandelica (Rain Quail).—It is a grey coloured quail with upper part of the breast black. It is distinguishable from grey quail by the absence of buff and brown cross bars on the primaries. Usually, it is found hiding in grasslands which provide both food and cover.

Merops Orientalis (common Green Bee-eater).—It is a green coloured bird of the size of a sparrow, reddish brown on head and neck having the central pair of tail feathers prolonged into blunt pins.

It is found in open country, along the ponds, fallow lands, launching aerial sallies after bees and after snapping back to tree-branches where it kills the quarry and swallows it.

Gallus sonneralii (Jungli-murgi).—This bird has a white breast with blackish border and streaked grey back, with metallic black sickle-shaped tail. It is a very shy bird and scuttles into cover at the least suspicion. It feeds on grains, berries, termites, etc.

SNAKES*.

Nagpur district comprises five tahsils each of which has mountain ranges with forest tracts on the northern borders. Besides this the district is drained by a number of rivers, both big and small, and contains many tanks and lakes which serve as excellent breeding places for snake life. Hence Nagpur district contains numerous types of snakes.

The snakes found in the district can be grouped under two broad headings, *viz.*, non-poisonous and poisonous:

Family: Typhlopidae.

Non-poisonus.

Typhlops sp.: These blind primitive snakes could be recorded from the rotting leaves in the forest areas beyond Ramtek. These snakes look like earthworms of bigger size, have brown or

*The section on Snakes is contributed by Dr. P. J. Deoras of the Haffkine Institute, Bombay.

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Non-poisonous.

deep brown colour and could be distinguished from the worm by the presence of imbricate scales on the body. It does not grow beyond 0.15 metre (six inches), lies buried in soil and vegetation and feeds upon insects and worms.

Family: Boidae.

Eryx conicus: This "*sand boa*" snake, locally known as *Mandhol* or *dutondya* grows to about three quarters of a metre (two and half feet) in length and 15 to 25 cm. (6 to 10 inches) in girth. Its tail is very blunt and is more or less of the same pattern as the head side; similarly it moves slightly backwards under certain circumstances. Both these characteristics give an impression that the snake has two heads, which is erroneous. This snake is brown with patches of irregular deep yellow patterns all over the body. In fact these patterns give the impression that the snake is a young one of a python. It feeds on rats, frogs and lizards and when cornered bites viciously.

Eryx johni, another "*sand boa*" is found in the black cotton soil region. It is slightly bigger than *Eryx conicus* and is rather docile. The colour is uniformly deep brown or black with no patches at all. Many a snake charmer keep this snake for show in this region.

Python molurus: This is locally called *Ajgar*. It is met with in water sheds of the lake areas and forest region of Ramtek tahsil. It grows to about 4 metres (14 feet) in length and about 36 cm. (14 inches) in girth. It is of deep brown colour with variegated yellow patches all over the body. The head region is pink and two spurs project from the anal region indicating the rudiments of the vestigial limbs. This is a very lethargic snake which kills its prey by its powerful muscles. Many charmers keep this snake and often it could be more or less domesticated.

Family: Colubridae.

Ptyas mucosus: This rat snake is locally called *Dhaman* and is extremely common in the area. It has a chrome yellow body with black spots, especially in the hind region. It grows to about 2·75 metres (9 feet), can climb a tree and is extremely agile. When squeezed it emits a faint noise like a kite. It also has the habit of using the tail to tie a scout type of knot probably to take anchor or pull. It feeds on rats and should be protected.

Lycodon sp.: This wolf snake is common in the vegetable gardens and orchards in the area. It exists along with *oligodon sp.* Both are faint brown in colour and grow upto 45 cm. (a foot and half) and have either variegated white bars or straight white bars across the body. These snakes feed on lizards, mice and small frogs and are often mistaken for a krait. It differs from the krait in that there are no hexagonal rows of dorsal scales on its body and the ventral scales beyond the anal region are in pairs.

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Non-poisonous.

Natrix stolata: This snake is locally called *Naneti* or *Sitechilut* and is extremely common all over the area, especially in the rainy months. It is olive green with black spots intersected by dorsolateral yellow or buff stripes. It grows to about three-quarters of a metre (2½ feet) in length and could be easily handled.

Natrix piscator: This is called *Pandiwad* in the area. A large number of them have been noted round the tanks at Khindsi, Mansar, Badegaon and Kondhali forest area. They prefer the vicinity of water and feed upon frogs and fishes. The colour is olive yellow with checkered type black spots in the hind region. It breeds in the vicinity of water and grows upto a metre (three feet) in length and 15 cm. (six inches) in girth.

Dryophis nasutus: It is known as *Harantol* or *Sarptol*. It is a parrot green long thin whip-like snake that grows upto one and a half metre (five feet) and often lies hidden amongst green foliage. The head is elliptical, eyes have a vertical pupil and the snake rests on branches with raised head kept swinging in the air. The habit of rigidness gives the impression that the snake is mesmerising. It feeds on small birds and being thin could be easily handled. Pipal trees are often its frequent haunts.

Psamophis sp.: It is met with near the Badegaon and Kondhali forests. It is an active pale olive-brown snake with 4-5 dark brown longitudinal stripes. The lower side of the head is yellowish with a black line along each side at the outer margin of the ventral shields. It grows to about 1.371 metres (four and half feet) and feeds on rodents, frogs and lizards.

Family: Elapidae.

Poisonous.

Bungarus caeruleus: The common krait. This snake is locally called *Manyar* and *Karayat*. It is steel blue with either double or single row of white cross bars across the body. In some areas these cross markings across the body are very faint and in elder snakes, they look like white dots only. In younger snakes the colour is brownish and the cross bars are very close. However, the distinguishing feature about this snake is that the dorsal scales are hexagonal and the ventral transverse scales beyond the vent are not paired.

This snake remains hiding in rocks, brick walls, and even in thatch. It is normally encountered after the rainy season in the evening or at night time. There is a popular belief that it makes a noise early in the morning akin to that of a bird. No authentic data to this effect is available. This is a very shy snake which strikes only on extreme provocation. The poison is neurotoxic and the only antidote is an anti-venin.

Naja naja: This snake, locally known as *Nag* is quite common all over the district. It is either brown in colour when it is called *Gahuwa* or black in colour when they call it *Domi*. This snake can always be identified by the expanded hood. No other snake raises the head so much and expands the neck region to

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Poisonous.

form the hood. A bionoculate mark on the hood is often present on the dorsal side and three cross bands on the lower side of the hood. Sometimes these markings are absent and in such cases one has to rely on the hood, the head scales and the oblong scales of the body. On the head the loral scale is absent and one scale touches the eye and the nasal. This snake grows to 1·6764 metre (five feet six inches) and may have in certain cases faint brown cross bars on the body.

This snake strikes after raising the hood and the distance of the strike runs to about three quarters of a metre (two and half feet). During the day time the aim is very inaccurate. There is a belief that this snake chases when provoked and takes a revenge. There is, however, no truth in this assumption. The poison of this snake is neurotoxic and the only antidote is an anti-venin.

Family: Viperidae.

Vipera russelli: Russell's viper. This is locally called *Chonas* and the snake is normally met with in the forest areas of Ramtek, Kondhali area of Katol and in the forest villages of Saoner also. It has been found near the Telankhedi tank forest in Nagpur town also. This is quite a vigorous muscular snake which is seen to grow even upto one and a half metre (five feet). The girth sometimes ranges to 30 cm. (12 inches). The colour is brown with three rows of elliptical spots all over the body. The central row of spots are complete, tapering at the tail end, while the lateral ones often are not properly formed. Some of these spots have at the periphery white dots like a marginal marking. The head is triangular and the scales are very small. The snake lies coiled up amidst fallen leaves and thick bushes. It is so well camouflaged that unless disturbed and moved, one finds it difficult to spot it. However, it hisses very loudly and continuously. In a cobra the hiss is sporadic and spasmodic, while in this viper it is loud and continuous. This hissing is a warning and the snake remains coiled to take a lever to strike. While thus hissing one could see the reduction and inflation of the snake's body.

The venom of this snake is vasotoxic and the only remedy is an anti-venin.

Echis carinatus: This "side winder", is locally called *Kander* or *Phoorsa*. It grows to a maximum length of 0.46 metre (18 inches) only. The head is triangular and the important distinguishing mark is an arrow on the head and a row of rhomboid brown marks on the entire body surface. It was collected in Nagpur town itself, but is not a very common snake. During the rainy season one could encounter it in the rural areas. It moves criss-cross and rubs the serrated scales to give the impression of a hissing noise. The bite may not be fatal but the victim may succumb to secondary reactions and after-effects. The only antidote is an anti-venin.

CHAPTER 2—HISTORY*

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History.
ANCIENT PERIOD.

THE OLDEST VESTIGES OF HABITATION IN THE NAGPUR DISTRICT are furnished by dolmens and other sepulchral monuments which can be noticed within a radius of about 48,280 km. (thirty miles) round Nāgpūr in the vicinity of the villages of Korāḍī, Kohalī, Junāpāṇī, Nilḍhoā, Borgāṅv, Vāṭhorā, Vaḍgāṅv, Sāvargāṅv, Hiṅgaṇa, etc. Some of these were opened first by Pearson and then by Hislop but their detailed reports are not available. They require to be excavated and studied scientifically. Hislop describes them as follows:

> "They are found chiefly as barrows surrounded by a circle of stones, and as stone boxes, which when complete are styled kistvaens, and when open on one side, cromlechs. The kistvaens, if not previously disturbed, have been found to contain stone coffins and urns."

Such sepulchral monuments are generally found to contain copper and bronze weapons, tools and earthen vessels. Some scholars find in these copper and bronze objects traces of the migration route of the Vedic Āryans. This culture is supposed to be later than that of the Indus Valley, of which no traces have yet been noticed in Vidarbha.

With the advent of the Āryans we get more light on the past history of this region. It was then covered by a thick jungle. Agastya was the first Āryan who crossed the Vindhya and fixed his hermitage on the bank of the Godāvarī. This memorable event is commemorated in the mythological story which represents Vindhya as bending before his *guru* Agastya when the latter approached him. The sage asked the mountain to remain in that condition until he returned from the south, which he never did. Agastya was followed by several other sages who established their hermitages in different regions of the south. They were constantly harassed by the original inhabitants who are called *Rākṣasas* in the *Rāmāyaṇa*. "These shapeless and ill-looking monsters testify their abominable character by various cruel and terrific displays. They implicate the hermits in impure practices and perpetrate the greatest outrages. Changing their shapes and hiding in the thickets adjoining the hermitages, these frightful beings delight in terrifying the devotees. They

* (a) The section on ancient history is contributed by Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. V. V. Mirashi, Nāgpūr University, Nāgpūr.

(b) The sections on mediaeval and modern period are contributed by Professor B. K. Apte, Nāgpūr University, Nāgpūr.

cast away the sacrificial ladles and vessels; they pollute the cooked oblations, and utterly defile the offerings with blood. These faithless creatures inject frightful sounds into the ears of the faithful and austere hermits. At the time of the sacrifice they snatch away the jars, the flowers, the fuel and the sacred grass of these sober-minded men.[1]"

In course of time a large kingdom was founded in this region by king Vidarbha, the son of Ṛṣabhadeva. His capital was Kuṇḍinapura in the Amrāvatī district, which is still known by its ancient name. The country came to be known as Vidarbha after the name of its first ruler. Agastya married his daughter Lopāmudrā. He is 'the Seer' of some hymns of the *Ṛgveda*. His wife Lopāmudrā is also mentioned in *Ṛgveda* I, 179, 4, though Vidarbha is not named therein. The country became well-known in the age of the *Brāhmaṇas* and the *Upaniṣads*. Bhīma, who is called Vaidarbha (i.e., the King of Vidarbha), is mentioned in the *Aitareya Brāhmaṇa* (VII, 34) as having received instruction regarding the substitute for *soma* juice. The *Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad* mentions the sage Kauṇḍinya of Vidarbha. Among those who asked questions about philosophical matters in the *Praśnopaniṣad*, there was one named Bhārgava from Vidarbha. The *Rāmāyaṇa* in the *Uttarakāṇḍa* states the story of king Daṇḍa in whose time Vidarbha was devastated by a violent dust-storm. Daṇḍa was the son of Ikṣvāku and grandson of Manu. He ruled over the country between the Vindhya and Saivala mountains from his capital Madhumanta. He led a voluptuous life and once upon a time violated the daughter of the sage Bhārgava. The sage, then cursed the king that his whole kingdom would be devastated by a terrible dust-storm. The whole country between Vindhya and Saivala extending over a thousand *yojanas* was consequently turned into a great forest which since then came to be known as Daṇḍakāraṇya. It was in this forest that the *Śūdra* sage Śambuka was practising austerities[2]. As this was an irreligious act according to the notions of those days, Rāma beheaded him and revived the life of a Brāhmaṇa boy who had died prematurely. That the Nāgpūr region was included in the Daṇḍaka forest is shown by the tradition which states that Śambuka was practising austerities on the hill near Rāmṭek, about 45.062 km. (28 miles) from Nāgpūr. The site is still shown on that hill and is marked by the temple of Dhumreśvara. This tradition is at least seven hundred years old, for it is mentioned in the stone inscription of the reign of the Yādava king Rāmacandra fixed into the front wall of the *garbhagṛha* of the temple of Lakṣmaṇa on the hill of Rāmṭek[3]. The *Rāmāyaṇa*, the *Mahābhārata* and the *Purāṇas* mention several sacred rivers of Vidarbha such as the Pāyoṣṇī (Purṇā), Varadā (Wardhā) and the Veṇā (Waingaṅgā) and name many holy places situated on their banks. The royal house of

[1] Muir's *Original Sanskrt Texts*, quoted in the previous edition of Nāgpūr District Gazetteer.

[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXV, p. 11.

[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 7 f.

Vidarbha was matrimonially connected with several princely families of North India. The Vidarbha princesses Damayantī, Indumatī and Rukmiṇī, who married Nala, Aja and Kṛṣṇa, respectively, are well-known in Indian literature. Several great Sanskṛt and Marāṭhī poets from Kālidāsa onwards have drawn the themes of their works from their romantic lives.

As stated below, the region round Nāgpūr was flourishing in the early centuries of the Christian era, but the name of Nāgpūr is noticed for the first time in a record of the tenth century A.D. A copper-plate inscription of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Kṛṣṇa III dated in the *Śaka* year 862 (A.D. 940), discovered at Devaḷi in the Wardhā district, records the grant of a village situated in the *viṣaya* (district) of Nāgpura-Nandivardhana[1]. Nandivardhana, which was well-known as an ancient capital of the Vākāṭakas, is now represented by the village Nandardhan, about three miles from Rāmṭek. Nāgpūr, which was situated near it, may have marked the original site of the modern town of that name. Tradition, however, gives the credit for settling the town of Nāgpūr to the Goṇḍ king Bakht Bulanda of Devagaḍ. He is said to have included in the new town twelve hamlets, laid streets and erected a wall for its protection. It is not unlikely that Bakht Bulanda chose to call the new town by the name of Nāgpūr since it was associated with the place from ancient times.

Coming to historical times, we find that the country was included in the empire of the great Aśoka. The thirteenth rock edict of that great Emperor mentions the Bhojas as the people who follow his religious teachings. The royal family of Bhoja was ruling over Vidarbha in ancient times. Since then the people came to be known as the Bhojas. A territorial division named Bhojakaṭa (modern Bhātkulī in the Amrāvatī district) is mentioned in a grant of the Vākāṭakas[2]. An inscription probably issued by the *Dharmamahāmātra* placed by Aśoka in charge of Vidarbha, has been found at Devaṭek in the Cāndā district[3]. It records an order promulgated by the Dharmamahāmātra interdicting the capture and slaughter of animals. It is dated in the fourteenth regnal year, evidently of Aśoka.

After the overthrow of the Maurya dynasty in *circa* B.C. 184, the imperial throne in Pāṭaliputra (Pāṭṇā) was occupied by the *Senāpati* Puṣyamitra, the founder of the Śuṅga dynasty. His son Agnimitra was appointed Viceroy of Mālvā and ruled from Vidiśā, modern Besnagar, a small village near Bhilsā. Vidarbha, which had seceded from the Maurya Empire during the reign of one of the weak successors of Aśoka was then ruled by Yajñasena. He imprisoned his cousin Mādhavasena, who was a rival claimant for the throne. The sister of Mādhavasena escaped to Mālvā and got admission as a hand-maid under the name of Mālavikā to the royal palace. Agnimitra, who had espoused the

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. V, p. 196. For the identification of the donated village and its boundaries, see *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 253 f.

[2] Fleet, *C.I.I.*, Vol. III, p. 341.

[3] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 109 f.

cause of Mādhavasena and had sent an army against the king of Vidarbha, fell in love with Mālavika and married her. The Mālava army defeated the king of Vidarbha and released Mādhavasena. Agnimitra then divided the country of Vidarbha between the two cousins, each ruling on one side of the Varadā (modern Wardhā). Eastern Vidarbha thus comprised Wardha, Nāgpūr, Bhaṇḍāra, Canda, Seoni, Chindvaḍa and Balaghāṭ districts. It was bounded on the east by the country of *Dakṣiṇa* Kosala (Chattisgaḍ). From the *Mahābhārata* also we learn that the province of Veṇākaṭa bordered on that of Kosala. The story of Mālavikā forms the plot of the play *Mālavikāgnimitra* of the great Sanskṛt poet Kālidasa.

Kālidāsa does not state to what royal family Yajñasena and Mādhavasena belonged and these names do not occur anywhere else. Still it is possible to conjecture that they may have been feudatories of the Sātavāhanas. From the Hāthigumphā inscription at Udayagirī near Bhuvaneśvar, we learn that Kharavela, the king of Kaliṅga, who was a contemporary of Puṣyamitra, sent an army to the western region not minding Sātakarṇi[1]. The latter evidently belonged to the Sātavāhana dynasty as the name occurs often in that family. Kharavela's army is said to have penetrated up to the river Kaṇhabeṇṇā and struck terror in the hearts of the people of Ṛṣika. The Kaṇhabeṇṇā is the river Kanhān which flows about 10 miles from Nāgpūr. Khāravela's army, therefore, invaded Vidarbha. He knew that as the ruler of Vidarbha was a feudatory of king Sātakarṇi, the latter would rush to his aid. When Vidarbha was thus invaded, the people of Ṛṣika (Khandeś) which bordered Vidarbha on the west, were naturally terror-striken. No actual engagement seems however to have taken place and the army retreated to Kaliṅga perhaps at the approach of the Sātavāhana forces.

The Sātavāhanas, who are called Āndhrās in the Purāṇas, held Vidarbha for four centuries and a half from *circa* B.C. 200 to A.D. 250. Their earliest inscriptions, however, which record their performance of Vedic sacrifices and munificent gifts to Brāhmaṇas are found in the Pooṇā and Nāśik districts. Towards the close of the first century A.D. they were ousted by the Śaka Satraps from Western Mahārāṣṭra. They then seem to have found shelter in Vidarbha. No inscriptions of the Sātavāhanas have indeed been found in Vidarbha, but in one of the Nāśik inscriptions Gautamīputra Sātakarṇī, who later on exterminated the Śakas and re-occupied Western Mahārāṣṭra, is called Beṇākaṭakasvāmī, the lord of Beṇākaṭaka[2]. No satisfactory explanation of this expression was possible until the discovery of the Tiroḍī plates of the Vākāṭaka king Pravarasena II[3]. As shown below, these plates record the grant of a village in the Beṇākaṭa, which must have comprised the territory on both the banks of

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XX, p. 71 f. Jayaswal's and Banerji's reading *Musika* in line 4 of this inscription is incorrect. Barua reads *Asika* which seems to be correct. For the identification of this country, see *A.B.O.R.I.*, XXV, p. 167 f.

[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. VIII, p. 65 f.

[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXII, p. 167 f.

the Beṇṇā or the Waingaṅgā, now included in the Bālāghāṭ and Bhaṇḍārā districts. Gautamīputra was, therefore, ruling over the country of Beṇākaṭa (or Veṇākaṭa), before he reconquered Western Mahārāṣṭra from the Śaka Satrap Nabhapāṇa.

Gautamīputra was a very powerful king whose kingdom extended from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal and comprised even Mālvā, Kāṭhiāvāḍ and parts of Rajputānā in the north. His son Puḷumāvī was similarly the undisputed master of the whole Deccan. Yajñaśri also, a later descendant of the family, retained his hold over the whole territory as his inscriptions and coins have been found in the Ṭhāṇā district in the west and the Kṛṣṇā district in the east. Two hoards of Sātavāhana coins have been found in Vidarbha, one in the Brahmapurī tahsīl of the Cāndā district[1] and the other at Tarhāḷā in the Māṅgul tahsīl of the Akolā district[2]. The latter hoard, which was discovered in 1939, contains coins of as many as eleven kings, beginning from Gautamīputra Sātakarṇī. Some of them such as (Gautamīputra) Sātakarṇī, Puḷumāvī, Śivaśrī Puḷumāvī, Yajñaśrī Sātakarṇī and Vijaya Sātakarṇī are mentioned in the Purāṇas, while some others such as Kumbha Sātakarṇī, Karṇa Sātakarṇī and Śaka Sātakarṇī are not known from any other source. This hoard shows that the Sātavāhanas retained their hold over Vidarbha to the last.

The Sātavāhanas were liberal patrons of learning and religion. As stated above, the early kings performed Vedic sacrifices and lavished gifts on the Brāhmaṇas. Gautamīputra, Puḷumāvī and Yajñaśrī excavated caves and donated villages to provide for the maintenance, clothing and medicine of Buddhist monks. They also patronised Prākṛt literature. The Sattasai, an anthology of 700 Prākṛt verses, is, by tradition, ascribed to Hāla of the Sātavāhana dynasty.

About A.D. 250 the Sātavāhanas were supplanted by the Vākāṭakas in Vidarbha. This dynasty was founded by a Brāhmaṇa named Vindhyaśakti I, who is mentioned in the Purāṇās[3] as well as in an inscription in Cave XVI at Ajiṇṭhā[4]. The Purāṇas mention Vindhyaśakti, the founder of the dynasty, as a ruler of Vidiśa (modern Bhilsā near Bhopāl)[5]. His son Pravarasena I ruled over an extensive part of the Deccan. He performed several Vedic sacrifices including four *aśvamedhas* and assumed the title of *Samrāṭ* (Universal Emperor). According to the *Purāṇas* he had his capital at Purikā[6] which was situated

[1] *P.A.S.B* for 1893, pp. 116-17.

[2] *J.N.S.I.*, Vol. II, pp. 83 f.

[3] *D.K.A.*, pp. 48 and 50.

[4] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. VI, p. 102 f.

[5] R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar: The Vākāṭaka-Gupta Age, p. 96.

[6] *D.K.A.*, p. 50. I accept Jayaswal's reading *Purikam Canakāñ-ca vai* in place of *Purim Kāñcanakam-ca vai*.

Altekar mentions that Purika is connected with Vidarbha (modern Berār) and Aṣmaka by ancient geographers. The Purika province is mentioned along with Vidarbha and Aṣmaka in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa (R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar: The Vākāṭaka-Gupta Age, p. 96).

at the foot of the Ṛkṣāvat or Sātpuḍā mountain[1]. He had four sons among whom his empire was divided after his death. Two of these are known from inscriptions. The eldest son Gautimīputra had predeceased him. His son Rudrasena I held the northern parts of Vidarbha and ruled from Nandivardhana, modern Nandardhan, near Rāmṭek. He had powerful support of the king Bhava-nāga of the Bhāraśiva dynasty who ruled at Padmavatī near Gwālior who was his maternal grandfather[2]. Rudrasena was a fervent devotee of Mahābhairava. He has left an inscription incised on the aforementioned slab of stone found at Devaṭek, which contains a mutilated edict of the *Dharmamahāmātra* of Aśoka. It records his construction of a *Dharmasthāna* (temple)[3].

Rudrasena I was followed by his son Pṛthivīśeṇa I, who ruled for a long time and brought peace and contentment to his people. During his reign this branch of the Vākāṭakas became matrimonially connected with the illustrious Gupta family of north India. Candragupta II—Vikramāditya—married his daughter Prabhāvatīgupta II to Pṛthiviśeṇa I's son, Rudrasena II, probably to secure the powerful Vākāṭaka king's help in his war with the Western Kṣatrapas. Rudrasena II died soon after accession, leaving behind two sons Divākarasena and Dāmodarasena *alias* Pravarasena II. As neither of them had come of age, Prabhāvatīgupta ruled as regent for the elder son Divākarasena for at least thirteen years[4]. She seems to have been helped in the government of the kingdom by military and civil officers sent by her father Candragupta II. One of these was the great Sanskṛt poet Kālidāsa, who, while residing at the Vākāṭaka capital Nandivardhana, must have visited Rāmagirī (modern Rāmṭek), where the theme of his excellent lyric *Meghadūta* suggested itself to him[5].

Prabhāvatīguptā has left us two copper-plate inscriptions. The earlier of them, though discovered in distant Pooṇā, originally belonged to Vidarbha. It was issued from the then Vākāṭaka capital Nandivardhana[6] and records the dowager queen's grant of the village Daṅguṇa (modern Hiṅgaṇghāṭ) to a Brāhmaṇa after offering it to the feet of the Bhāgavat (*i.e.*, Rāmacandra) on *Kārtika śukla dvādaśī* evidently at the time of *Pāraṇe* after observing a fast on the previous day of the *Prabodhinī Ekādaśī*[7]. Some of the boundary villages can still be traced in the vicinity of Hiṅgaṇghāṭ.

[1] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. VI, p. xviii, f.n. 5.
[2] R. C. Majumdar and A.S. Altekar: The Vākāṭaka-Gupta Age, p. 102.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. 1 f.
[4] *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, pp. 5 f. According to Altekar, she carried on the administration for a period of about twenty years. (R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar; The Vākāṭaka-Gupta Age, p. 112.
[5] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 12 f.
[6] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. VI, p. 6.
[7] Nandivardhana is most probably Nagardhan (also spelt as Nandardhan) near Rāmṭek, about 13 miles north of Nāgpūr. This City is also identified with Nandpur, 34 miles north of Nāgpūr (R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar: The Vākāṭaka-Gupta Age, p. 114).

Divākarasena also seems to have died when quite young. He was succeeded by his brother Dāmodarasena, who on accession assumed the name Pravarasena of his illustrious ancestor. He had a long reign of thirty years and was known for his learning and liberality. More than a dozen land-grants made by him have come to light. One of them which was made at the instance of his mother Prabhāvatīguptā in the nineteenth regnal year is noteworthy. The plates recording it were issued from the feet of Rāmagirīsvāmin (*i.e.*, God Rāmacandra on the hill of Rāmagirī) and record the grant which the queen-mother made as on the previous occasion, *viz.*, after observing a fast on the *Prabodhinī Ekādaśī*[1].

Pravarasena II founded a new city which he named Pravarapura, where he shifted his capital some time after his eleventh regnal year. Some of his later land-grants were made at the new capital. He built there a magnificent temple of Rāmacandra evidently at the instance of his mother who was a devout worshipper of Viṣṇu. Some of the sculptures used to decorate this temple have recently been discovered at Pavnār on the bank of the Dhām, 9.656 km. (6 miles) from Wardhā, and have thus led to the identification of Pravarapura with Pavnār[2].

Pravarasena II is the reputed author of the *Setubandha*, a Prākṛt *kāvya* in glorification of Rāmacandra. This work has been greatly praised by Sanskṛt poets and rhetoricians. According to a tradition recorded by a commentator of this work, it was composed by Kālidāsa who ascribed it to Pravarasena[3]. Pravarasena is also known from some Prākṛt *gāthās* which were later interpolated in the *Sattasai*.

Pravarasena II was succeeded by his son Narendrasena, during whose reign Vidarbha was invaded by the Nala king Bhavadattavarman. The latter penetrated as far as the Nāgpūr district and even occupied Nandivardhana, the erstwhile Vākāṭaka capital. The Ṛddhapūr plates record the grant which Bhavadatta had made while on a pilgrimage to Prayāga. The plates were issued from Nandivardhana which was evidently his capital at the time[4]. In this emergency the Vākāṭakas had to shift their capital again. They moved it to Padmapura, modern Padampūr near Amgāṅv in the Bhaṇḍārā district. A fragmentary inscription which was proposed to be issued from Padmapūr has been discovered at the village of Mohallā in the Durg district[5].

The Nalas could not retain their hold over Vidarbha for a long time. They were ousted by Narendrasena's son Pṛthīvīśeṇa II, who carried the war into the enemy's territory and burnt and devastated their capital Puṣkarī which was situated in the Bastār

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. 34.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. lx f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. liv.
[4] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XIX, pp. 100 f.
[5] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. VI, p. 75 f.

State[1]. Pṛthiviśeṇa II, taking advantage of the weakening of Gupta power, carried his arms to the north of the Narmadā. Inscriptions of his feudatory Vyāghradeva have been found in the former Ajaigaḍ and Jāso States[2].

This elder branch of the Vakāṭaka family came to an end about A.D. 490. The territory round Nāgpūr was thereafter included in the dominion of the other or Vatsagulma branch.

The Vatsagulma branch was founded by Sarvasena, a younger son of Pravarasena I. It is also known to have produced some brave and learned princes. Sarvasena, the founder of this branch, is well-known as the author of another Prakṛt *kāvya* called *Harivijaya*, which has received unstinted praise from several eminent rhetoricians. The last known king of this branch was Hariṣeṇa, who carved out an extensive empire for himself, extending from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal and from Māḷvā to the Tuṅgabhadrā.

The Vākāṭakas were patrons of art and literature. In their age the *Vaidarbhī rīti* came to be regarded as the best style of poetry as several excellent works were then produced in Vidarbha. Three of the caves at Ajiṇṭhā, *viz.*, the two *Vihāra* caves XVI and XVII and the *Caitya* Cave XIX were excavated and decorated with paintings in the time of Hariṣeṇa[3]. Several temples of Hindu gods and goddesses were also built. The ruins of one of them have come to light at Pavnār[4]. Others are known from references in copper-plate grants.

The Vākāṭakas disappear from the stage of history about A.D. 550, when their place is taken by the Kalacuris of Māhiṣmatī, modern Māheśvar in Central India. They also had a large empire extending from Koṅkaṇ in the west to Vidarbha in the east and from Māḷavā in the north to the Kṛṣṇā in the south. The founder of the dynasty was Kṛṣṇarāja, whose coins have been found in the Amrāvatī and Betul districts[5]. He was a devout worshipper of Maheśvara (Śiva). That Vidarbha was included in his Empire is shown by the Nagardhan plates of his feudatory Svāmirāja dated in the Kalacuri year 322 (A.D. 573)[6]. These plates were issued from Nandivardhana which seems to have maintained its importance even after the downfall of the Vākāṭakas. Svāmirāja probably belonged to the Rāṣṭrakūṭa family.

[1] *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. xxvii.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. 88 f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. lxv f.
[4] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 272 f.
[5] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, p. xlvi.
[6] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. VI, p. 611 f.

About A.D. 620 the Kalacuri king Buddharāja the grandson of Kṛṣṇarāja was defeated by Pulakeśin II of the Early Cālukya dynasty, who thereafter became the lord of three Mahārāṣṭras comprising 99,000 villages[1]. One of these Mahārāṣṭras was undoubtedly Vidarbha. The Rāṣṭrakūṭas, who were previously feudatories of the Kalacuris, transferred their allegiance to the Cālukyas and, like the latter, began to date their records in the *Śaka* era. Two grants of this feudatory Rāṣṭrakūṭa family have been discovered in Vidarbha—one dated *Śaka* 615 was found at Akolā and the other dated *Śaka* 631 was discovered at Multāī. They give the following genealogy[2]:—

Durgarāja
||
Govindarāja
||
Svāmikarāja
||
Nannarāja *alias* Ayuddhāsura
(known dates A.D. 693 and 713)

About the middle of the eighth century A.D. the Early Cālukyas were overthrown by the Rāṣṭrakūṭas. No inscriptions of the Early Cālukyas have been found in Vidarbha, but their successors the Rāṣṭrakūṭas have left several records. The earliest of them is the copper-plate inscription of Kṛṣṇa I discovered at Bhāṇḍak and dated in the *Śaka* year 694 (A.D. 772)[3]. It records the grant of the village Nagaṇa to a temple of the Sun in Udumbaramantī, modern Rāṇī Amrāvatī in the Yavatmāḷ district. Thereafter several grants of his grandson Govinda III have been found in the Akolā and Amrāvatī districts of Vidarbha[4]. The Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Mānyakheta and the Kalacuris of Tripurī were matrimonially connected and their relations were generally friendly. But in the reign of Govinda IV, they became strained. The Kalacuri king Yuvarājadeva I espoused the cause of his son-in-law Baḍḍiga—Amoghavarṣa III, the uncle of Govinda IV and sent a large army to invade Vidarbha. A pitched battle was fought on the bank of the Pāyoṣṇī (Pūrṇā) 16.093 km. (10 miles) from Acalapura, between the Kalacuri and Rāṣṭrakūṭa forces, in which the former became victorious. This event is commemorated in the Sanskṛt play *Viddhaśālabhañjikā* of Rājaśekhara, which was staged at Tripurī in jubilation of this victory[5].

The next Rāṣṭrakūṭa record found in Vidarbha is the aforementioned Devaḷi copper-plate grant of the reign of Baḍḍiga's son Kṛṣṇa III, which mentions the *viṣaya* of Nāgapūra-Nandivardhana.

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. VI, p. 1 f.
[2] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 29 f.
[3] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XIV, p. 121 f.
[4] See e.g. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXIII, pp. 8 f.; Vol. XXIII, p. 204 f., etc.
[5] *C.I.I.*, Vol. VI, p. lxxix f.

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The Raṣṭrakūṭas were succeeded by the Later Cālukyas of Kalyaṇī. Only one inscription of this family has been found in Vidarbha. It is the so-called Sitābuldi stone inscription of the time of Vikramāditya VI[1]. From the account of Vinayakrav Aurangabadkar this record seems to have originally belonged to the Vindhyasana hill at Bhaṇḍak. It is dated the *Śaka* year 1008 (A.D. 1087) and registers the grant of some *nivartanas* of land, for the grazing of cattle, made by a dependant of a feudatory named Dhaḍibhaṇḍaka. Another inscription of Vikramāditya's reign was recently discovered at Doṅgargāṅv in the Yavatmal district[2]. It sheds interesting light on the history of the Paramāra dynasty. It shows that Jagaddeva, the youngest son of Udayāditya, the brother of Bhoja, left Malva and sought service with Vikramāditya VI, who welcomed him and placed him in charge of some portion of Western Vidarbha. This inscription is dated in the *Śaka* year 1034 (A.D. 1112).

Though western Vidarbha was thus occupied by the Later Calukyas, the Paramāras of Dhār raided and occupied some portion of eastern Vidarbha. A large stone inscription now deposited in the Nāgpūr Museum, which originally seems to have belonged to Bhāṇḍak in the Cāndā district, traces the genealogy of the Paramāra Prince Naravarman from Vairisiṁha[3]. It is dated in the Vikrama year 1161 corresponding to A. D. 1104-05, and records the grant of two villages to a temple which was probably situated at Bhaṇḍak; for some of the places mentioned in it can be identified in its vicinity. Thus Mokhalipāṭaka is probably Mokhar, 80.47 km. (50 miles) west of Bhāṇḍak. Vyāpura, the name of the *maṇḍala* in which it was situated, may be represented by Vurgaṅv 48.280 km. (30 miles) from Mokhar. After the downfall of the Vākāṭakas, there was no imperial family ruling in Vidarbha. The centre of political power shifted successively to Mahiṣmatī, Badāmī, Manyakheta and Kalyāṇī. Men of learning who could not get royal patronage in Vidarbha, had to seek it elsewhere. Bhavabhūti, who ranks next to Kālidāsa in Sanskṛt literature, was a native of Vidarbha. In the prologue of his play *Mahāvīracarita* he tells us that his ancestors lived in Padmapura in Vidarbha. As stated above, this place was once the capital of the Vākāṭakas and is probably identical with the village Padampūr in the Bhāṇḍārā district[4]. With the downfall of the Vākāṭakas this place lost its importance. In the beginning of the eighth century when Bhavabhūti flourished there was no great king ruling in Vidarbha. Bhavabhūti had therefore, to go to Padmāvatī, the capital of the Nāgas in North India, and had to get his plays staged at the fair of Kālapriyanātha (the Sun-God at Kālpī)[5]. Later, he obtained royal patronage at the court of Yaśovarman of Kanauj. Rājaśekhara, another great son of Vidarbha, was probably born at Vatsagulma,

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. III, p. 304 f.; *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 231 f.
[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXXII, p. 112 f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. II, p. 180 f.
[4] Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 21 f.
[5] *Ibid.*, Vol. I, p. 35 f.

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(modern Vaśim), which he has glorified in his *Kāvyamīmāṁsā* as the pleasure-resort of the god of love. He and his ancestors Akālajalada, Tarala and Surananda had to leave their home country of Vidarbha and to seek patronage at the court of the Kalacuris at Tripurī. Rājaśekhara's earlier plays, *viz.*, the *Bālarāmāyaṇa*, the *Bālabhārata* and the *Karpūramañjirī*, were put on the boards at Kanauj under the patronage of the Gurjara-Pratīhāras. Later, when the glory of the Pratīhāras declined as a result of the raids of the Kalacuri king Yuvarājadeva I, Rājaśekhara seems to have returned to Tripurī in the train of the victorious conqueror. There his last play *Viddhaśālabhañjikā* was staged in jubilation at the victory of Yuvarājadeva over a confederacy of Southern kings led by Govinda IV in the battle of the Pāyoṣṇī[1]. Another great poet of Vidarbha who had to go abroad in search of royal patronage is Trivikramabhaṭṭ, the author of the *Nalacampū*, in which he has given us a graphic description of several towns, holy places and rivers of Vidarbha. He flourished at the court of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Indra III and is known to have drafted the two sets of Bāgumrā plates of that king, dated *Śaka* 816[2].

In the last quarter of the twelfth century A.D. the Yādavas of Devagirī came into prominence. They had been ruling over Seuṇadeśa in an earlier period as feudatories of the Later Cālukyas, but Bhillama, the son of Mallugī, declared his independence and soon made himself master of the whole territory north of the Kṛṣṇā. He then founded the city of Devagirī, which he made his capital. His son Jaitrapāla killed Rudradeva of the Kākatīya dynasty on the field of battle and released his nephew Gaṇapati whom he had put into prison. Under Jaitrapāla's son Siṅghaṇa the power of the family greatly increased. He annexed the Kolhāpūr kingdom after defeating the Śilāhāra king Bhoja in 1212. A.D. The first inscription of the Yādavas found in Vidarbha belongs to the reign of Siṅghaṇa. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1133 and records the erection of a *toraṇa* at Ambaḍapūra in the Buldhāṇā district of Vidarbha[3]. Many of the victories of Siṅghaṇa were won for him by his *Senāpati* Kholeśvara who hailed from Vidarbha. He defeated Lakṣmīdeva, the ruler of Bhāmbhagirī (modern Bhāmer in Khāndeś), Paramāra Bhoja of Cāhāndā (modern Cāndā) and Arjunavarmadeva, king of Mālvā, and devastated the capital of the Hoyasalas. He even pressed as far as Vārāṇaśi in the north where he put Rāmapāla to flight. Kholeśvara constructed several temples in Vidarbha and also established *agrahāras* on the banks of the Pāyoṣṇi and the Varadā[4]. The former *agrahāra* is still extant under the name of the village Kholāpūr in the Amrāvatī district.

[1] Mirashi, *C.I.I.*, Vol. IV, p. lxxix f.
[2] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. IX, p. 24 f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXI, p. 127 f.
[4] G. H. Khare, *Sources of the Mediaeval History of the Deccan* (Marathi), Vol. I.

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Siṅghaṇa was succeeded by his grandson Kṛṣṇa, whose inscription has been found in the temple of Khaṇḍeśvara on a hillock on the outskirts of the village Nāndgaṅv in the Amravati district. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1177 (A.D. 1254-55) and records the donations of some *gadyanakas* for the offerings of flowers at the temple of Khaṇḍeśvara. After Kṛṣṇa's death, the throne was occupied by his brother Mahādeva superseding the claims of the former's son Rāmacandra. Mahadeva annexed Koṅkaṇ to his kingdom after defeating Someśvara of the Śilāhāra dynasty. He left the throne to his son Āmāna, but the latter was soon deposed by Rāmacandra, who captured the impregnable fort of Devagirī by means of a *coup d'état*[1]. He is the last of the independent Hindu Kings of Devagirī. He won several victories and in a grant of his minister Puruṣottama he is said to have driven out the Muhammedans from Vārāṇaśī and built a golden temple there, which he dedicated to Viṣṇu[2]. A fragmentary inscription of his time is built into the front wall of the temple of Lakṣmaṇa on the hill at Rāmṭek[3]. In the first half of it, it describes the exploits of Rāmacandra's ancestors from Siṅghaṇa onwards while in the second half it describes the temples, wells and *tirthas* on and in the vicinity of the hill which it names as Rāmagirī. The object of the inscription seems to have been to record the repairs done to the temple of Lakṣmaṇa by Rāghava, the minister of Rāmacandra. Another inscription of Rāmacandra's reign was found at Lañji in the Bālāghāṭ district. It is fragmentary and has not yet been deciphered.

In A.D. 1204 Alā-ud-din Khiljī invaded the kingdom of Rāmacandra and suddenly appeared before the gates of Devagirī. Rāmacandra was taken unawares and could not hold out long. He had to pay a large ransom to the Muslim conqueror. He continued, however, to rule till A.D. 1310 at least; for a copper-plate grant which his minister Puruṣottama made is dated in the *Śaka* year 1232. He was succeeded by his son Śaṅkaragaṇa some time in A.D. 1311. He discontinued sending the stipulated tribute to Delhi. He was then defeated and slain by Malik Kāfur. Some time thereafter Harapāladeva, the son-in-law of Rāmacandra, raised an insurrection and drove away the Muhammedans, but his success was short-lived. The Hindu kingdom of Devagirī thus came to an end in A.D. 1318.

Like their illustrious predecessors, the Yādavas also extended liberal patronage to art and literature. During their age a peculiar style of architecture called *Hemāḍpanti* after Hemādri or Hemāḍpant, a minister of Mahādeva and Rāmacandra, came into vogue. Temples built in this style have been found in all the districts of Vidarbha. In the Nāgpūr district they exist at Ādāsā, Ambhorā, Bhugāṅv, Darsevanī, Sāvner, Rāmṭek and some other places. Several learned scholars flourished at their court.

[1] *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXV, p. 205 f.
[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 207.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 7 f.

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Among those who hailed from Vidarbha, Hemādri was the foremost. During the reign of Mahādeva he held the post of *Śrikaraṇādhipa* or Head of the Secretariat. He was appointed Minister and Head of the Elephant Force by Rāmacandra. He was as brave as he was learned and liberal. He conquered and annexed to the Yādava kingdom the eastern part of Vidarbha called Jhāḍī-maṇḍalā. Hemādri is well known as the author of the *Caturvargacintāmaṇī* comprising five parts, *viz.*, (1) Vratakhaṇḍa, (2) Dānakhaṇḍa, (3) Tīrthakhaṇḍa, (4) Mokṣakhaṇḍa, and (5) Pariśeṣakhaṇḍa. Of these the third and fourth *khaṇḍas* have not yet come to light. Hemādri's work is held in great esteem and has been drawn upon by later writers on Dharmaśāstra. Hemādri wrote on other subjects as well. He is the author of a commentary on Saunaka's *Prāṇāvakalpa* and also of a *Śrāddhakalpa* in which he follows Kātyāyana. His *Āyurvedarasāyana*, a commentary on Vāgbhāṭa's *Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya*, and *Kaivalyadīpikā*, a gloss of Bopadeva's *Muktāphala* are also well known.

Hemādri extended liberal patronage to learned men. Among his proteges the most famous was Bopadeva. He was a native of the village Vedapāda (modern Bedod) on the bank of the Wardhā in the Ādilābād district of the former Hyderābād State. Bopadeva is said to have composed ten works on Sanskṛt grammar, nine on medicine, one for the determination of the *tithis*, three on poetics and an equal number for the elucidation of the *Bhāgavata* doctrine. Only eight of these are now extant. The *Mugdhabodha*, his work on Sanskṛt grammar is very popular in Bengal.

Marāṭhī literature also flourished in the age of the Yādavas. Cakradhara, who propagated the *Mahānubhāva* cult in that age, used Marāṭhī as the medium of his religious teachings. Following his example, several of his followers composed literary works in Marāṭhī. They are counted among the first works of Marāṭhī literature. Mukundarāja, the author of the Vedāntic works *Vivekasindhu* and Paramāmṛta, and Jñaneśvara, the celebrated author of the Bhāvārthadīpikā, a commentary on the *Bhagavadgītā* are the most illustrious writers of that age.

INTERREGNUM.

The fall of the Yādavas of Devagirī marks a turning point not only in the history of the Deccan but also in that of the Peninsular India. Their fall facilitated Islām's penetration deep into the South.

Yādavas.

The Yādavas dominated the Deccan politics[1] in the thirteenth century. They claimed descent from Yadu of Purāṇic fame. Dṛḍhaprahāra was the first member of the family to attain some distinction[2] in about 860 A.D. His successor founded the city of Seunapūr probably modern Sinnar in the Nāśik district. Later in the struggle between the Rāṣṭrakūṭas and the Cālukyas, the Yādava King Bhillama II took the side of latter. He also

[1] EHD, p. 515.
[2] EHD, p. 516.

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participated in the overthrow of the Paramāra King Muñja[1]. For this help the Rāṣṭrakūṭa King granted Ahmadnagar district to Bhillama. Bhillama assumed the title Vijayābharaṇa—Ornament of Victory—for himself.

It was Bhillama V who for the first time assumed imperial titles for his dynasty in about 1187 A.D.[2]. He gained victories after victories but in the end met with a tremendous set-back in the struggle to maintain a hold over the *Doāb* region between the Kṛṣṇā and the Tuṅgabhadrā. In this struggle he was pitched against the Hoyasala King Ballāla II on the battlefield of Sorātūr near Dhārvār. The famous Yādava general Jaitrapāla lost his life while fighting against the Hoyasala King[3]. This event took place towards the end of 1191 A.D.[4]. It is to the credit of Bhillama V that he consolidated the Yādava rule over Mahārāṣṭra, carried successful inroads into Mālvā and Gujarāt and occupied the whole of the Rāicūr *Doāb*[5].

The sorrowful defeat of Sorātūr was avenged by Siṅghaṇa Yādava (C 1210 to 1247). The Yādava empire reached its meridian under this most able ruler. In the struggle for the hegemony of the Deccan Siṅghaṇa was successful over his rivals the Hoyasalas and Kākatīyas of the south and the Paramāras and the Cālukyas to his north. Roughly his territory extended to the south of the line joining Nāgpūr and Broac and was limited by the line connecting Girisappā and Karnul[6]. According to Hemādri the minister of Mahādeva Yādava and the inventor of the temple architecture known as *Hemāḍpanti* style, Siṅghaṇa's empire included the Chattisgaḍ area. Some of the inscriptions claim that the kings of Mathurā and Kāśī felt the power of Siṅghaṇa and one of his generals defeated a Muslim ruler. They also state that either King Siṅghaṇa himself or his generals Kholeśvara, Rāma or Bicana defeated the kings of Sindh, Rohilkhaṇḍ, Bengal, Bihār, Keraḷa and Pāṇḍya. All these high claims for Siṅghaṇa appear to be more imaginary than real in the absence of independent and trustworthy evidence[7]. However, it is significant to note that the arm of the Yādava power under Siṅghaṇa had reached as far as Nāgpūr in its eastward expansion. Rāmacandra Yādava (1271—1311) extended his sway over Vajrākar (probably Vairāgad, eighty miles north east of Cāndā) and Bhaṇḍāgara i.e., Bhaṇḍārā, thirty-eight miles east of Nāgpūr. He then marched northward and took Tripuri near Jubbulpore. From here he proceeded to Benāras and restored it to Hindu rule. This event must have taken place after the death of Balban in A.D. 1286 and prior to the accession

[1] EHD, p. 517.
[2] EHD, p. 520.
[3] EHD, p. 525.
[4] EHD, p. 523.
[5] EHD, p. 527.
[6] EHD, p. 542.
[7] EHD, pp. 540-41.

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of Jalal-ud-din Khiljī, when the hold of Islām over the outlying provinces was slack. This is evidenced by the famous Puruṣottamapurī plates of Rāmacandra[1].

The eastern border of the Yādava kingdom under Rāmacandra extended beyond the Wardhā river, the traditional boundary line of Berār. Hemādri, probably took a leading part in the conquest of Nāgpūr, Bhaṇḍārā and Cāndā beyond the Wardhā river. Nāgpūr, Bhaṇḍārā and Cāndā comprised the Jhāḍimaṇḍalā i.e., the wooded territory. From the Lilācaritra i.e., the biography of the saint Cakradhara it seems that the Jhāḍimaṇḍalā where he wandered was not far off from Acalapūr i.e., Ellicpūr[2].

Thus we gather from the Rāmṭek inscription and the Lilācaritra that the district of Nāgpūr was at one time under the Yādavas of Devagirī. It formed part of the thickly wooded country—Jhāḍimaṇḍalā. It is quite natural that the region to the east of the Wardhā river should be thickly wooded as it has had better rainfall than the region to its west. Nāgpūr under the Yādavas does not seem to have attained any political importance, like the western wing of the Yādava Kingdom.

By 1292 A.D. the Yādava power was at the height of its glory. It, however, began to decline fast when Devagirī was invaded by Alā-ud-din Khiljī in 1294[3]. Rāmacandra Yādava was taken by surprise and completely defeated. He purchased peace by offering vast quantity of gold, the revenue of Ellicpūr as annual tribute and one of his daughters to the victor Alā-ud-din. The pride of the Yādavas was humbled.

Śaṅkaradeva, the son of Rāmacandra, tried in vain to regain the lost independence. He was easily defeated by Malik Kāfur the distinguished general of Alā-ud-din. The last ruler of the Yādavas Harapāladeva, was defeated and killed in 1318 A.D. by Qutb-ud-din Mubārak Śāh. By this defeat Mahārāṣṭra passed into the hands of the Muslim rulers and Devagirī became a centre of Islāmic culture[4].

MEDIAEVAL PERIOD.
Goṇḍi Interlude.

From the fall of the Yādavas till the entry of the Moghals in Goṇḍavana, the Goṇḍ Rājās were more or less free from any political domination. Even during the hey-day of the Yādavas, it seems that they were never completely subjugated as their habitat was in the fastness of hills and forests.

Goṇḍavana roughly includes the area bound by the line running from Jubbulpore to Telaṅgaṇa, north to south, and from west to east by the line joining the Sātapuḍā hills and the

[1] EHD, p. 551.
[2] Lilācaritra, Ekāṅka, p. 37—by H. N. Nene. Also see Samśodhana Muktāvali, Sarga Dusarā, by V. V. Mirashi. Madhyapradeś Samśodhana Mandala, Nāgpūr, 1957, pp. 196-97. The inscription of Rāmacandra found at Rāmṭek speaks for the Yādava sway over Nāgpūr—*Epigraphica Indica*, Vol. 25, p. 7.
[3] EHD, p. 552.
[4] EHD, pp. 555-56.

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Chattisgaḍ region. The Goṇḍs are mainly divided into the Rāja Goṇḍs and the Khaṭoḷes. The former consider themselves as Rajputs or Kṣatriyas.[1]

The principal Goṇḍī kingdoms in the Goṇḍvana area had their seats at Gaḍha, Maṇḍlā, Devgaḍ, Candrapūr or Cāndā and Kheralā, on the northern slopes of the Sātapuḍā. Besides there were petty Goṇḍ *nāiks* in the Melghāṭ styling themselves as *Rājās*. Of these kingdoms Gaḍha is noted in history because of its brave *Rāṇi* Durgāvatī. The ambitious Moghal Emperor, Akbar, appointed Khvājā Abdul-Majid as the Governor of Kārrā conferring upon him the title of Asaf Khān. One of his valuable services was the conquest of Gaḍha ruled by *Rāṇī* Durgāvatī. The *Rāṇī* fought valorously against heavy odds and when helpless killed herself in order to escape the disgrace she would have been put to if taken a captive. Gaḍha had given no provocation to Akbar. Its conquest was an act of imperial aggression, pure and simple. This historic incident is described in *Tārikh-i-Alfi*[2]. After the *Rāṇī's* death her son Bīr Nārāyaṇ resisted from the fort of Caurāgaḍ till he fell fighting. The kingdom of Gaḍha was offered to Candra Śāh as the Moghal vassal.

During the reign of Śāh Jahān the unfortunate ruler of Gaḍha, Hirde Śāh was attacked by *Rājā* Pahāḍ Siṅg Bundelā. Hirde Śāh shifted his capital to Maṇḍlā. His successors fought among themselves inviting alternately Auraṅgzeb and the Marāṭhās for help to put down the rival party. With the rise of Raghujī Bhosle the rules of Gaḍha and Maṇḍlā were once again subjugated and forced to pay tribute. Thus, with the advent of the Moghals—Akbar—in Goṇḍavana and the rise of Raghujī Bhosle these kingdoms lost their independence and were reduced to the status of vassals.

The Goṇḍ rulers of Devagaḍ are directly related with the history of Nāgpūr. With the loss of independence of Gaḍha and Maṇḍlā, Devagaḍ, too, was destined to go the same way. The Devagaḍ house hailed from Harayāgaḍ, but shifted its seat to Devagaḍ under its founder Jatbā. Originally Devagaḍ was a feudal state under Gaḍha. However, when the latter passed under the Moghal rule, Devagaḍ automatically became part of the Moghal territory. According to the *Ain-i-Akbari* when Akbar was the Emperor, Jatbā, the ruler of Devagaḍ, possessed two thousand horses, fifty thousand foot-soldiers and a hundred elephants. Jatbā extended his kingdom as far as Nāgpūr and constructed there a fort as an outpost. The descendants of this family are yet known as *"killevāle Rāje"* in Nāgpūr[3].

[1] NPI, pp. 9, 10.

[2] S. R. Sharma, Mughal Empire in India, Part I, p. 210.

[3] NPI, p. 28.

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According to a local Goṇḍī tradition recorded by Craddock in the old edition of Nāgpūr Gazetteer, Devagaḍ was originally a Gavaḷī Kingdom conquered later by Sarabāśā, a Goṇḍ king of Gaḍha. Jatbā was the eighth descendant from Sarabāśā. Historically it is Jatbā who merits our attention and not his predecessors whose account is shrouded in legends.

By about 1600 A.D. Koka Śāh, the son of Jatbā, succeeded to the *gādī*. For the non-payment of tribute to the imperial treasury Śāh Jahān ordered Khān Daurān to raid Devagaḍ territory. In 1637 A.D. Khān Daurān laid siege to the fort of Nāgpūr and blew off its bastions. Koka Śāh hastened to Nāgpūr from Devagaḍ and purchased peace by paying one and a half lakh of rupees and hundred and seventy elephants. Nāgpūr fort was restored to Koka Śāh.

Later, during the reign of Śāh Jahān Devagaḍ was raided twice, once by Śāh Navāz and next by Auraṅgzeb as the Governor of the Deccan, with a view to extract its wealth. But poor Devagaḍ was like a cow which had gone dry due to constant milking without proper feeding.

Koka Śāh was succeeded by Bakht Śāh or Bakht Buland the most distinguished ruler of the Devagaḍ house. Bakht Buland was driven out of Devagaḍ in the war of succession by his brothers. He appealed to Auraṅgzeb for help. Auraṅgzeb, a staunch Sunni, agreed to help on the condition that Bakht should embrace Islām. Helpless Bakht became a Musalmān with the understanding that he would dine with Muslims but would continue to take brides from among the Goṇḍs. Auraṅgzeb accepted this compromise and with the military assistance offered by him Bakht Buland regained his lost *gādī*. The descendants of Bakht continued to have marital relations with the Rāja Goṇḍs. They, however, performed their marriage ceremony according to the Hindu rites followed by those of the Islāmic. Elastic Hindu religion has never taken serious note of such lapses but has given them a place within its fold.

Bakht Buland was a capable ruler. He extended his kingdom reaching up to the borders of Berār from north and east. He founded the city of Nāgpūr by joining the twelve small hamlets formerly known as Rājāpūr Bārsā or Bārāstā. He constructed roads, divided the city into wards and erected a strong wall around as a protective measure. Part of old Nāgpūr is even today known as Burhān Śāh's Killā named after the last deposed king of this house. Bakht Buland died in about 1706 A.D.

His kingdom included the present district of Chindvāḍā and Baitūl and some portions of Nāgpūr, Śivaṇī, Bhaṇḍārā and Bālāghāṭ. During the declining days of the Moghal empire Bakht Buland raided the territory on both the banks of Wardhā and drew upon himself the disfavour of Auraṅgzeb. Auraṅgzeb thereupon ordered that the title *Bakht Buland* meaning 'of high fortune' should be changed to *Nigun Bakht*—of mean fortune. Nothing is known of the army sent to punish Bakht.

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Goṇḍī Interlude.

Nāgpūr attained importance under Cand Sultān, the son and successor of Bakht. Taking advantage of the fast collapsing Moghal empire after Aurangzeb's death, Cand Sultan captured Paunār in Berār, an important military station. It remained under him for more than twenty years. After Cand Sultān's death in 1738, his illegitimate son Wali Śāh put to death Bahādūr Śāh, the legitimate heir and occupied the *gādi*. The younger brothers of Bahādūr Śāh, Akbar and Burhān being teen-agers, their mother Rāṇī Ratankuvar, the dowager, appealed to Raghujī Bhosle for help. This was a welcome opportunity for young Raghujī who was aspiring for power. At the request of the queen he promptly moved from Bhām, his headquarters, defeated Wali and took him a captive. He then moved to Devagaḍ and installed Burhān Śāh on his ancestral throne. In recognition of his timely help Rāṇī Ratankuvar gave Raghujī one-third of her kingdom. Later, when the two brothers Akbar and Burhān quarrelled with each other, the latter asked for Raghujī's help. Raghujī exploited the family dispute to his full advantage and became the *de facto* ruler of the Goṇḍ kingdom of Devagaḍ. At present Jatbā's tomb and some foundations of buildings are the only remains among the ruins of Devagaḍ fort.

The Goṇḍī house of Candrapūr or Cānda like that of Devagaḍ was destined to fall a prey to its powerful neighbour Raghujī Bhosle. This house originally hailed from Śirpūr on the west bank of Wardhā. About 895 A.D. Bhima Ballāḷ is said to have founded the kingdom. Relevant details of Candrapūr are given under Raghuji's exploits in the following pages.

According to Sir Richard Jenkins much of the credit for the development of agriculture, industry and commerce in Goṇḍavana and Nāgpūr goes to Bakht Buland. He brought industrious settlers into his domain by offering them liberal land grants. The superstructure of the Marāṭhā administration erected by the Bhosles stood on the ground work prepared by Bakht Buland. With due regard for the work done by the Goṇḍs, for their bravery and simple virtue, it must be admitted that they remained in the backwaters of civilization.

Administration under the Goṇḍs.

The administrative system obtaining in Nāgpūr and the territory to its east during the Goṇḍī period was semi-feudal. Nāgpūr proper then formed part of Devagaḍ below the ghāṭs.

The Rāja Goṇḍs ruled the tract known as Goṇḍavana, and Nāgpūr formed part of it till it was conquered by Raghujī Bhosle I. The whole country under the Rāja Goṇḍs was distributed among a number of subordinate local chiefs known as *Rājās, Rāis* and *Ṭhākūrs*. These subordinate chiefs exercised considerable power within their jurisdiction but recognised the authority of the Mahārājā of Devagaḍ in a general manner.[1]

[1] RMSH, p. 182.

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Administration under the Goṇḍs.

From Abul Fazal's account of the Gaḍha-Kataṅgā Goṇḍī Kingdom one gathers that a number of paraganās in the area were held by the *Rājās*. Obviously, such paraganās in the days of Abul Fazal yet retained the traces of the Goṇḍī administration.

The system of administration by subordinate chiefs existed in the Goṇḍavana till the Marāṭhās overran it. Those areas of Goṇḍavana which remained unaffected by either the Moghal or Marāṭhā influence naturally retained their semi-feudal characteristics peculiar to the Goṇḍs. The Government of Damoh, for instance, was entirely feudal, unaffected as it was by foreign influence for a long time. This country was divided into a number of chiefships each having the headman of the clan who enjoyed the entire revenue and rendered military service to the Government whenever called upon to do so. The chiefs in addition had to pay an annual tribute of a jar of butter or one or two bamboo walking-sticks or the like.[1]

Similarly, the Goṇḍī administrative system in the Narsiṅgpūr district was almost exclusively feudal. The district was divided among the feudatory chiefs who were bound to attend upon the overlord at the capital with a stipulated number of troops but were not required to pay revenue in money.

In the Chattisgaḍ area there existed greater chiefs and smaller chiefs prior to its conquest by the Bhosles.[2]

In Harrāi in the Chindavāḍā district where Goṇḍī administration continued for a long time, the tribute (*takoli*) was settled in chironji-nuts-and honey.[3]

Some useful details of Goṇḍī administration in the Devagaḍ above the ghāṭs are presented here for, what was existing there was most probably obtaining in the Devagaḍ below the ghāṭs i.e., the Nāgpūr area in the pre-Bhosle period.

The local chiefs called *Ṭhākūrs* took cognisance of petty crimes and offences in their area. They could levy fines and confiscate the property of the offenders. For good Government the *Ṭhākūrs* were to protect the travellers passing through their country and were responsible for any harm done to them within their jurisdiction. Further they were not to punish any person with death or mutilation or imprisonment beyond a certain number of days without reference to the Government.

Petty offences such as abusing, beating, stealing were decided according to the customary rules. Adultery, rape, fornication, disputes about marriage, breach of observance of caste rules, etc. were settled according to the laws of the caste.

Dispute between two *Ṭhākūrs* was to be judged by the overlord. Thus, within his own area the position of the *Ṭhākūr* was very strong. He was the head of the local minor clan,

[1] RMSH. p. 185.
[2] *Ibid* p. 187.
[3] *Ibid* p. 189.

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captain of the local levies and the representative of the authority of the *Rājā* of Harrāi immediately above him, and finally of the *Mahārājā* of Devagaḍ.

A comparatively small domain was held, by the *Mahārājā*, the surrounding area being under the local chiefs known as the *Rāis* or *Rājās*. They were in complete subjugation to the *Mahārajā* according to his military strength. They attended him with levies of local troops and definitely paid much more than a jar of butter or bamboo sticks. They had a free hand in internal matters. The major part of the estate was under the *Ṭhākūrs* who made contributions in cash and kind according to their means and provided a quota of troops for their service of the Rājā.

This structure of the Kingdom of the Rāja Goṇḍs of Gaḍha and Devagaḍ, though common, was subject to modifications elsewhere.

One of the striking features of Goṇḍvana administration was the absence of hereditary officers like *Deśmukhs* and the *Deśpāṇḍes* so common in Berār. The only hereditary officer in Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā was the registrar or accountant called *beohār* or sometimes *gumāstā* who was always a *Kāyastha*. *Beohār* is quite likely the corrupt form of the Sanskṛt word *vyavahāra*. In the semi-feudal semi-tribal Governments these hereditary officers were absent.[1]

In Devagaḍ and Cāndā, the original basis of Government is the same as in Goṇḍvana. The *Rājās* were little more than feudal superiors of a number of petty chiefs. Their dependants contributed to them military service. The *Rajās* like other feudatories possessed a territorial domain in which they exercised direct authority.

With regard to the land revenue system of Devagaḍ i.e., Nāgpūr and Cāndā there were officers known as *Deśmukhs*, *Deśpāṇḍes*, *Hudārs*, *Muhārirs* and *Warāḍpāṇḍes*. The Marāṭhās soon after the occupation of Devagaḍ and Cāndā removed the *Deśmukhs* and the *Deśpāṇḍes*, and changed the name *Hudār* to *Kamāvisdār*-general manager, and *Muhārir* or accountant to *Phaḍṇavīs*. They, however, retained the office of the *Warāḍpāṇḍe* who had his deputies all over the country to keep the account of actual cultivation, occupancy and rents of lands. The office of the *Priti* under the Goṇḍs corresponded to that of the *Phaḍṇavīs* of the Marāṭhās.

This highly centralised administration through the *Deśmukhs*, *Deśpāṇḍes*, *Hudārs* etc., in the Goṇḍavana appears an anomaly. It was certainly common in Berār. But its presence in some parts of Devagaḍ Kingdom would mean that it was found there by the Goṇḍ *Rājās* already existing when they conquered it. In other words, the system of administration by *Deśmukhs* and *Deśpāṇḍes* in some parts of Goṇḍavana i.e., Devagaḍ was remnant of the previous *Khālsā* or centralised system, and was

[1] RMSH, pp. 194-95.

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continued by the Goṇḍs when they conquered it. The Marāṭhas, when they conquered the Goṇḍī kingdoms of Devagaḍ and Cāndā, therefore, found in some parts the administration by *Deśmukhs* and *Deśpāṇḍes* not in fact indigenous to Goṇḍavana. It may be noted here that in Devagaḍ above the ghaṭs the real home of the Devagaḍ *Mahārājās* which forms part of the present Chindavādā district, administration by *Deśmukhs* and *Deśpāṇḍes* was unknown. Again, as late as 1801 A.D., the Paṭhāṇ *jāgirdār* of Śivanī (Seoni) maintained a feudal state owing allegiance to the Bhosles of Nāgpūr as his overlord.[1]

MARATHA PERIOD.
Bhosles of Nāgpūr.
Origin and rise.

The Bhosle family is counted among the royal or *Kṣatriya* clans of the Marāṭhās. The Bhosle house to which *Chatrapati* Śivājī, the founder of Marāṭhā Kingdom belonged, hailed from Veruḷ near Daulatābād. The Bhosles of Nāgpūr are known as Hiṅgaṇikar as one of their ancestors who was probably a contemporary of Mālojī, the grandfather of *Chatrapati* Śivājī, rehabilitated the village Berāḍī near Hiṅgaṇī in the present district of Pooṇā. The two brothers Mudhojī and Rupājī of Hiṅgaṇī-Berāḍī were contemporaries of Śahājī Bhosle the father of Śivājī. Like *Chatrapati* Bhosle house, the Nāgpūr Bhosle family, too, considers that it descended from the Śisodiā Rajputs of Udaipūr. It is quite possible that some *Kṣatriya* clans of the Rajputs came down to the Marāṭhā country from the north during the long ascendancy of the Muslims. Nevertheless, it is a historical fact that there were *Kṣatriya* families in the Marāṭhā country like the Rāṣṭrakūṭas, the Cālukyas and the Yādavas, who had no relationship with the Rajputs of the north.

The family tree in the *bakhar* of the Bhosles of Nāgpūr denotes ancestors who were common to this house and also to the Bhosle house of the *Chatrapatis*. The Bhosles of Nāgpūr and the *Chatrapati's* house belonged to the same *Kṣatriya* clan. However, there is no independent historical evidence to establish common ancestry between the two families in the few generations preceding *Chatrapati* Śivājī. The account in the *bakhar* of the Bhosles of Nāgpūr, therefore, has to be taken with a grain of salt.

In the biography of *Chatrapati* Sambhājī by Malhār Rāmrāv Citaṇis it is stated that after the death of Śivājī his obsequies were performed by Sābājī Bhosle, as Sambhājī, the eldest son, was in confinement on the fort of Panhāḷā. But James Grant Duff in his 'A History of the Marāṭhās', Vol. I, p. 243, says that Śivājī's funeral rites were performed by one 'Shahjee Bhonslay' (Śahājī Bhosle). There is no unanimity among contemporary writers about the person performing Śivājī's funeral rites.

If, however, Sābājī Bhosle performed the obsequies there is every possibility that this Bhosle the ancestor of the famous Raghujī Bhosle of Nāgpūr was a known blood relation of the *Chatrapatis*. At the time of Śāhū *Chatrapati's* home-coming when Tārābāī and her partisans purposely cast doubt about

[1] RMSH, pp. 197-98.

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Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

Origin and rise.

Śāhū being the grandson of Śivaji, it was Parasojī of the Nagpūr Bhosle house who dined with Śāhū and dispelled the doubt. Then again during the last years of Śāhū's reign it was strongly rumoured that he would select an heir to the *gādī* of Sātārā from the Bhosles of Nagpūr as he had no son. Later, the English offered to seat one of the Bhosle's of Nagpūr on the *gādī* of Satara. All these events indicate the possibility of a common ancestor of the Bhosles of Satara and Nāgpūr though direct historical evidence is not yet forthcoming to establish the fact.

The two Bhosle brothers Mudhojī and Rupājī were contemporaries of Śāhāji Bhosle and were noted roving soldiers[1]. Rupājī, he had a *jagīr*[2]. He was childless. Of the sons of Mudhojī, Parasojī and Sābājī stayed with their uncle at Bhām and served in the army of *Chatrapati* Śivājī.

Parasoji Bhosle.

Parasojī seems to have gained some distinction by his inroads into the territories of Berār and Goṇḍavana during the reign of Śivājī. He exacted tribute from these regions. After Sambhājī's death when Rājārām succeeded to the throne of the *Chatrapati*, Parasojī rendered him valuable help. In appreciation of his service Rājārām honoured Parasojī by presenting him robes, *jaripaṭakā* and the title of '*Senāsāheb Subhā*'. Goṇḍavana, Devagaḍ, Cāndā and Berār from where he had exacted tribute were given to his charge[3]. Parasojī was the first of the Bhosles of Nāgpūr to have received this honorific title. This grant was made in 1699 A.D.[4].

When Śāhū was released by the Moghals, Parasojī was the first of the Marāṭhā nobles to join him. Parasojī dined with Śāhū in the same dish to dispel the doubt of the latter's royal descent. In 1707 Śāhū conferred on Parasojī the title of '*Senā sāheb Subhā*' and issued a *sanad* granting him and his successors in perpetuity '*mokāsā*' of the following places:—

1. *Prant* Ritapūr and *Sarkār* Gāvel, *Prant* Berār, *Prant* Devagaḍ, Cāndā and Goṇḍavana.
2. *Mahālwise* details of Anāgoṇḍī[5], Berar, etc.—

Sarkār	*Mahāls*
Gāvel	46
Narnāḷā	37
Māhūr	19
Kheḍale (near Baitūl)	21
Pavnār	5
Kalamb	19
Total ... 6	147

[1] NPI., p. 44.
[2] *Ibid*, p. 46.
[3] Mālhār Rāmrāv Citaṇis Viracita Śrimant Chatrapatī Sambhāji Mahārāja Āṇi Thorale Rājārām Mahārāja yānci Caritre by K. N. Sane, Third Edition, 1915, p. 51.
[4] NPI, p. 45.
[5] The word Anāgoṇḍi is wrongly read. Anāgoṇḍi is in Karnāṭak. The correct reading of the word cannot be ascertained.

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Kānhoji Bhosle.

So far, for the grant of 147 *mahāls* from the six *Śarkārs*, there is no documentary evidence[1]. Parasojī the first *Senāsāheb Subhā* died at Kheḍ at the confluence of the rivers Kṛṣṇā and Veṇṇā in 1709, on his homeward journey from Sātārā[2].

Parasojī was succeeded by his son Kānhojī. *Chatrapati* Śāhū granted Kānhojī his hereditary title and also some land at Kheḍ for the maintenance of his father's memorial. Dārvā was taken by Kānhojī and he made Bhām his headquarters.

In the struggle between the Sayyad brothers and *Nizām-ul-mulk* for the control of the Delhi affairs, the former received the support of Śāhū. Śāhū sent Bājirāv *Peśvā* and Kānhojī Bhosle against the *Nizām*. In the battle of Bāḷāpūr fought on 10th August 1720, the *Nizām* came out victorious. Many Marāṭhās lost their lives. In the battle of Sākhar-Kheḍā, 1724, Kānhojī Bhosle offered to help Mubārij Khān against the *Nizām*, but Mubārij impudently refused it.

Kānhoji breaks his relations with Śāhū.

Kānhojī was a religious minded orthodox Marāṭhā nobleman. It is said that he accepted food prepared by Brāhmaṇs alone. The religious bent of his mind was probably due to his having no son. He performed sacrifices, religious rites and observed fasts so that he should be blessed by God with a son. Kānhojī soon got a son whom he named Rupājī[3].

Kānhojī it seems was hot tempered. He could not carry on well either with the *Chatrapati* or the *Peśvā*[4]. When called by the *Chatrapati* to explain the causes of his failure to pay the dues into the treasury, Kānhojī could neither pay the dues nor explain the accounts. The fact seems to be that he was not prepared to brook control with Śāhū. As the relations worsened, Kānhojī on 23rd August, 1725, decamped from Sātārā and hastened to the *Nizām* for asylum. The *Nizām*, however, did not back Kānhojī as Śāhū reminded him that such an act was against the treaty entered into between them. When all attempts at rapprochement failed, Śāhū set Raghujī Bhosle against Kānhojī. Raghujī had been asking Kānhojī, his uncle, for his share in the ancestral *jāgīr*. This had naturally strained the relations between the nephew and the uncle. *Chatrapati* Śāhū in setting the nephew against the uncle exploited the family feud to his own advantage.

After making the necessary preparations Raghujī marched in 1728 from Sātārā against his uncle. Śāhū granted him the *mokāsā* of Devūr near Wāī. For this grant the Bhosles of

[1] NBB, p. 31 states that these *Māhāls* were granted to Parasojī Bhosle. Independent evidence in support of this statement is not available.

P. D., Vol. 20, p. 1." The Early struggle of the Bhosles cannot yet be set down with accuracy, not a single paper relating to Parasojī, the founder of the Nāgpūr Rājās and first prominent adherent of King Sāhū, having been hitherto discovered "

[2] NPI, p. 50.
[3] *Ibid*, p. 56.
[4] P. D., vol. 20, p. 1.

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Kānhoji Bhosle.

Kānhoji breaks his relations with Śāhū.

Nāgpūr were also styled as the *Rājas* of Devūr. Raghujī received the robes of *Senasaheb Subha, sanads* for Berar and Goṇḍavana, and the right to extend the levy of *cauthāī* to Chattisgaḍ, Paṭṇa, Allahabād and Makasudābād (Bengal).

Raghujī entered Berar *via* Auraṅgabad. Near Jālanā Samśer Bahaddar Aṭoḷe objected to Raghujī's taking the army through his territory as the old route passed through Nāndeḍ and Āṣṭī. Raghujī avoided an encounter with Aṭoḷe and encamped at Baḷāpūr after crossing the Lakhanvāḍā ghāts. From Bāḷāpūr Raghujī sent his armed men all over the Berār and collected tributes. Sujāyat Khān Paṭhāṇ of Akolā serving under the *Navābs* of Ellicpūr was easily defeated by Raghujī and his territory subjugated. Thus, after establishing his rule over a greater part of Berār, Raghujī proceeded towards Bhām, the headquarters of his uncle, in 1730 A.D. The small fortress at Bhām was besieged by Raghujī's army. He was joined by his other uncle Rāṇojī. Finding himself in a difficult situation Kānhojī escaped from Bhām and ran for safety towards Māhūr. He was hotly chased by Raghujī and Rāṇojī and overtaken near Mandār (Vaṇī). In the skirmish that took place, Kānhojī was defeated and taken a prisoner. Kānhojī, the second *Senāsāheb Subhā,* spent the remaining part of his life as a prisoner at Sātārā[1]. At one time Kānhojī was an enterprising officer of Śāhū. He made some conquests in Goṇḍavana and led an incursion into Kaṭak, laying the foundation of Marāṭhā expansion eastward. His proposals that he should be allowed to maintain 200 horse, and Akolā and Baḷāpūr in Pāyā Ghāṭ should be restored to him, were not accepted. All was lost, once he lost the favour of Śāhū[2]. The end of Kānhojī's political career in about 1730 A.D. opened up for Raghujī new opportunities in Berār, Nāgpūr and the region beyond to the east.

Raghuji Bhosle.

By suppressing the recalcitrant Kānhojī, Raghujī gained the favour of *Chatrapati* Śāhū. As already observed Śāhū conferred on him the title of *Senāsāheb Subhā* and the right to collect *cauthāī* from Berār, Goṇḍavana, Chattisgaḍ, Allāhābād, Makasudābād (Bengal) and Pāṭṇā. According to Grant Duff on the occasion of granting these rights Raghujī gave a bond which stated[3]:—

1. That he would maintain a body of 5,000 horse for the service of the State;
2. Pay an annual sum of Rs. 9 lacs;
3. Pay half of the tribute, prizes, property and other contributions excluding the *ghāsdāṇā;*
4. Raise 10,000 horse when required, and accompany the *Peśvā* or proceed to any place he might be ordered.

[1] NPI, pp. 58—64.

[2] James Grant Duff., Esq.—A History of The Marāṭhās, Vol. I, p. 424, Calcutta, Published by R. Cambray and Co., Law Booksellers and Publishers, 9, Hastings Street, 1912.

[3] *Ibid*, p. 424.

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Raghujī Bhosle.

These terms of the bond are important in determining *Chatrapati*—Raghujī and *Peśvā*—Raghujī relations.

Details of Raghujī's early life are not available. It seems that shortly after his birth his father Bimbājī died and he was brought up by his mother Kāśibāī and grandmother Bayābāī at Pāṇḍavavāḍī near Wāi (District Sātārā). The child, it is said, was born by the grace of one Rāmājipant Kolhaṭkar, a pious devotee of Rāma and was, therefore, named Raghujī. There seems to be much truth in this story. Raghujī was a devotee of God Rāma though the family deity was Mahādev. He installed the new idol of Rāma at Rāmṭek and was responsible for reviving the religious importance of this ancient place. In his letter-head he incorporated the word '*Sītākānta*' meaning, the Lord of Sīta in honour of his favourite God Rāma.

When Raghujī attained manhood he served in the army of his uncle Rāṇojī. Later he was with his other uncle Kānhojī at Bhām. Raghujī did not fare well with Kānhojī and entered the services of Cānd Sultān of Devagaḍ. For some time he was also with the *Navāb* of Ellicpūr[1]. Finally Raghujī decided to serve *Chatrapati* Śāhū at Sātārā. During his stay there he was asked to accompany Fatehsingh Bhosle to the Karnāṭak where he distinguished himself as a capable soldier. When Raghujī's qualities as a soldier and leader of men came to the notice of Śāhū, he appointed him against the disobedient Kānhojī.

In the early part of his career Raghujī appears to have been a freelance soldier, shifting his loyalty from his uncle to the weak Goṇḍ *Rājās.* This was rather the time-honoured expedient resorted to by many an ambitious soldier. Raghujī was not slow to grasp the political situation prevailing in the area from the distant Karnāṭak to Goṇḍavana and finally threw his lot with Śāhū, who was by then a well-settled *Chatrapati.* This was indeed a wise decision which benefited Raghujī as also the Marāṭhā expansion.

After consolidating his position at Bhām in Berār, Raghujī turned his attention to the Goṇḍ Kingdoms of Devagaḍ, Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā, Cāndā and Chattisgaḍ. Internal dissensions in these kingdoms and their wars with other States were the occasions availed of by Raghujī for establishing his sway over them. In 1739-1740 Raghujī was sent to Karnāṭak by Śāhū. Raghujī distinguished himself in this expedition. Returning from Karnāṭak he made the necessary arrangement for the invasion of Bengal and dispatched a large army under the command of his General Bhāskarpant. Bengal invasion engaged Raghujī's attention for ten years, from 1741 to 1751 A.D. The net gain was the province of Orissā. It was during these years that the historic dispute between Raghujī Bhosle and Bāḷājī *Peśvā* arose when their

[1] NPI, p. 69.

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interest in the east clashed. Thus, broadly the chronological sequence of Raghujī's major exploits is—

securing Berār by defeating his uncle Kānhojī;
extending his sway over the Goṇḍ Kingdoms;
Karnāṭak expedition: and
incursions into Bengal.

Raghujī and the Goṇḍ kingdoms.

Devagaḍ: Raghujī for sometime had sought service[1] with Cānd Sultān of Devagaḍ after quitting his uncle Kanhoji at Bhām with whom he had quarrelled. The details of Raghuji's service with Cānd Sultan are not available from the known source-material. Cānd Sultān died in about 1738[2]. His illegitimate son Wali Śāh killed Mir Bahaddar the legitimate son of Cānd Sultān. *Rani* Ratankuvar, the widow of Cand asked for Raghujī's help as her two other sons Akbar and Burhān were minors. Raghujī at once proceeded from Bhām and defeated Wali Śāh's generals at Paṭaṇsavaṅgi. He next conquered Pavani to the south of Bhāṇḍārā on the river Waingaṅgā. This was a strategic post. Raghujī appointed his own officer Tuḷojirāmpant. The fort of Bhānore or modern Bhāṇḍārā was Raghujī's next target of attack. Wali Śāh, from Devagaḍ hurriedly dispatched an army under his *divāṇ* Raghunāthsiṅg to relieve the pressure on Bhāṇḍārā fort. Raghujī was camping at Śirasghāṭ on the Waingaṅgā. He split his army into two divisions stationing them at Sonbarḍi and Giroḷi. A select army under Raghujī Karāṇḍe was sent to face the enemy with the instruction that it should take to its heels at a suitable time and lure Raghunāthsiṅg between the two Marāṭhā divisions. Raghunāthsiṅg's army was entrapped, routed and drowned into the Waingaṅgā. He himself was taken a prisoner in a wounded state and honourably sent back to Devagaḍ with a view to capturing Wali Śāh by treachery. The fort of Bhāṇḍārā was besieged. Its *killedār* resisted bravely for about 22 days but was finally forced to deliver it to the enemy.

Raghujī next marched to Devagaḍ. Wali Śāh was advised by his *divāṇ* Raghunāthsiṅg to go out of the fort. This was preplanned. In a skirmish outside the fort Wali was defeated and arrested. *Rāṇī* Ratan Kuvar considered Raghujī as her third son and gave him the third part of her kingdom. She paid him rupees ten lacs for war expenses. In 1737, the *Rāṇī* granted Raghujī a *sanad* of her one-third kingdom bestowed upon him.

The *sanad* states that the fort of Pavani along with Bāḷāpūr, *paraganā* Mulatāī with Cikhalī and 156 villages under the said *paraganā*, the whole of *paraganā* Marud, were granted to Raghujī and his successors in perpetuity[2]. The *Rāṇī* also agreed that she would not enter into a treaty with any other power without the

[1] RMSH, p. 171.

[2] NPI, pp. 71—74; also see RMSH, p. 173—As desired by the *Rāṇi* Ratan Kuvar her "possessions were divided into three equal parts and one of them, namely that containing Goṇḍavana Pavani, Marud, Multāī and Bārghāṭ was given to Raghujī Senā Sāheb" ... "He then lived in Nāgpūr and Devagaḍ provinces."

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knowledge of Raghujī. With the possession of these parts of Devagaḍ Raghujī shifted his headquarters from Bhām to Nāgpūr. By 1748, the *divāṇ* Raghunāthsiṅg attempted to break off his relations with Raghujī. The latter, therefore, brought Akbar and Burhān to Nāgpūr under his direct protection and care[1]. Eventually their kingdoms came to be managed by Raghujī and the Goṇḍ house of Devagaḍ shaded into insignificance.

According to the account given in the *bakhar* (NBB) Raghujī secured a fresh *sanad* from Śāhū in 1738 A.D. bestowing upon him the right to collect *cauthāī* and *mokāsā* of Lucknow, Makasudābād, Bedar, Bengal, Bitia, Bundelkhaṇḍ, Allāhābād, Hājipūr, Pāṭṇā and Devagaḍ, Gaḍha, Bhavargaḍ and Cāndā[2]. This very information given by Wills runs as follows, "while returning from Sātārā Śāhū *Chatrapati* bestowed Goṇḍavana *jhāḍi* up to Kaṭak free of revenue upon the *Senāsāheb Subhā*[3]." Goṇḍavana *jhāri* is the ancient Zāḍī Maṇḍalā to the east of the Wardhā river which included Nāgpūr, Bhaṇḍārā, Cāndā, etc.

Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā.—It seems that when Bājirāv was busy fighting with the *Nizām* at Bhopāḷ in 1736, Raghujī proceeded as far as Allāhābād and exacted tribute from the Rājā of Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā. Bājirāv strongly resented this act. His son Bāḷājī invaded Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā[4] in 1742 on his way to Bengal. Raghujī who was engaged in his Bengal expedition at this time bitterly complained to Śāhū of Bāḷājī's encroachment upon Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā which was his sphere of activity. Along with Bengal, Allāhābad, etc., Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā too was the bone of contention between Raghujī and Baḷājī. Both were finally reconciled to one another by *Chatrapati* Śāhū in 1743[5].

Cāndā.—The fate of the Goṇḍ rulers of Cāndā was sealed when Devagaḍ and Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā had come under Raghujī's sway. During the reign of Rāma Śāh, Raghujī invaded Cāndā, but finding him a saintly king Raghujī was so impressed that he left the country unmolested. His successor Nilakaṇṭh Śāh had gained disrepute as a tyrant. To deliver the people of Cāndā from his tyranny Raghujī invaded his country and made him a captive. The successors of Nilakaṇṭh Śāh were granted pension by Raghujī. Among the Goṇḍavana territories of Raghujī Cāndā was next in importance to Nāgpūr[6].

Raghujī's Karnāṭāk expedition.

After the death of Auraṅgzeb the whole of Karnāṭak was in a state of chaos. The various principalities were trying to extend their territory at the cost of their neighbours. Karnāṭak, then,

[1] NPI., p. 74.

[2] *Ibid*, p. 76.

[3] RMSH, p. 173.

[4] NHM., Vol. II, p. 213. Raghujī complained to Śāhū that Bāḷājī captured his posts Gaḍha and Maṇḍlā, and ruined his paraganās Śivani and Chapar. The ruler of Maṇḍlā burnt himself to death to escape disgrace.

[5] *Ibid*, p. 219.

[6] NPI., p. 37.

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roughly included the territory to the south of Kṛṣṇā bound by the Sahyādri and the Eastern Ghāṭs. Auraṅgzeb had put Karnāṭak under the *subhās* of Bijāpūr and Hyderābad. The *sanad* of *Cauthāī* granted to Śāhū by Emperor Muhammad Śāh included Hyderābād and Bijāpūr Karnāṭak in addition to the four other *subhās* of the Deccan. According to this *sanad* the tributary states of Tañjore, Tricinopoly and Mysore were also subject to the levy of *Cauthāī*.[1] The *Nizām-ul-mulk* as the *subhedār* of the Deccan claimed that all these territories belonged to him. The various *navābs* of Karnāṭak fought among themselves, the strongest of them trying to assert his authority over others by the simple law of might. The stronger *navābs* were those of Arcoṭ, Śirā, Kaḍappā, Karnool and Sāvanur. The principality of Tañjore from the days of Śahājī comprised the *paraganās* of Bangalore, Hoskoṭ, Kolar, Bāḷāpūr and Śirā. Its ruler Pratāpsinha, *Chatrapati* Śāhū's cousin, was constantly harassed by Candā Sāheb, the son-in-law of Dost Ali, the *navāb* of Arcoṭ. Candā Sāheb had usurped the kingdom of Tricinopoly by tempting its *Rani* Minākṣi to form perpetual friendship with him. With the fall of Tricinopoly he cast his covetous eyes on Tañjore which belonged to *Rājā* Pratāpsinha. Pratāpsinha appealed to Śāhū for help who dispatched a large force under Fatehsingh and Raghujī Bhosle. In April 1740 the Marāṭhā forces attacked Arcoṭ, killed the *navāb* Dost Ali and took his *divān* Mir Asad, a prisoner in May 1740. With Arcoṭ in their possession Raghujī and Fatehsingh laid siege to Tricinopoly, the stronghold of Candā Sāheb. Raghujī was joined by Pratāpsinha. Candā Sāheb unable to receive aid from his brother Baḍā Sāheb of Madurā delivered the fort to Raghujī on 14th March 1741, the auspicious day of *Rāmanavamī*. Candā Sāheb and his son Abid Ali were imprisoned by Raghujī and at once sent to Nāgpūr under the strict supervision of his general Bhāskar Rām. Later, in 1744 Raghujī freed these royal prisoners on payment of a ransom of Rs. 7.25 lacs from the bankers of Sātārā. Nothing is known about the place where Candā Sāheb and his son were confined. Raghujī's leadership and tact in the Karnāṭak campaign at once enhanced his prestige at the court of Śāhū. Pleased with his exploits Śāhū conferred upon him the *mokāsā* of Berār and Goṇḍavana up to the frontiers of Kaṭak[2].

During the war Candā Sāheb had sent his treasure and *zanānā* for safe custody to Dumas, the French Governor of Pondicerry. Raghujī, who had an eye on the wealth of the *navāb*, at once reprimanded Dumas for sheltering his enemy. Dumas politely yet firmly refused to surrender the entrusted wealth and women. Raghujī's wrath was wafted away when he was presented a few fine champagne bottles by Dumas. Raghujī's wife is said to have been highly delighted with this French gift and asked for more. When Śāhū came to know of

[1] A History of the Marāṭhās, Vol. I. (1912), by James Grant Duff, p. 368.
[2] NHM., Vol. II, pp. 253—57.

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this he is reported to have remarked that a kingdom was sold for a bottle of wine. Whatever the account of this story, its realistic side must not be lost sight of by historians. Dumas at Pondicerry was well-equipped with men and material. In the extreme hour of difficulty he would have easily escaped into the sea with his wealth and women, and Raghujī's attack would have been rendered ineffective if he had chosen to launch one. Raghujī was not slow to understand the power of the French. Weighing things in mind Raghujī might have preferred an honourable retreat to a futile attack.

Karnāṭak campaign gave Raghujī eminence at the court of Sātārā and eventually in the Marāṭhā confederacy. It helped him in giving a status on par with the *Peśvās*.

Raghujī hurriedly returned to Nāgpūr as the Bengal affair was awaiting his presence.

Raghujī's raids on Bengal.

It was Kānhojī Bhosle who first led an incursion into the territory of Orissā or Kaṭak taking advantage of the chaotic conditions prevailing there. Before he was defeated and sent to Sātārā as a prisoner by Raghujī Bhosle, *Chatrapati* Śāhū granted Raghujī a *sanad* of Berār and Goṇḍavana and of the right to collect *cauthāī* of Chattisgaḍ, Pāṭṇā, Allāhābād and Maksudābād (Murśidābād).[1] The date of his *sanad* 1723 A.D. is obviously incorrect. On this occasion the grant of *mokāsā* of Devur near Wāi to Raghujī is dated 1731, A.D.[2] The *sanad*, of Chattisgaḍ etc., up to Murśidābād, therefore, should also be roughly of the same date, i.e. 1730 or 1731 or an year earlier. It is not likely to have been given as early as 1723 A.D. For this *sanad* of collecting *cauthāī* from Chattisgaḍ to Murśidābād Śāhū never obtained regular permission from the Moghals. In order to secure the cession of Māḷvā under imperial seal Bājīrāv I endeavoured hard all his life. He forced the *Nizām* after defeating him at Bhopāḷ in 1738 to obtain a *sanad* for Māḷvā.[3] Actually Māḷvā was given to the charge of his son Bāḷājī as its deputy-*subhedār* by an imperial *farmān* as late as 1741 A.D.[4] But Śāhū when he allowed Raghujī Bhosle to extend his sway as far as Bengal and collect *cauthāī*, had not actually obtained a royal *farmān* from Delhi to that effect.

The political condition of Bengal was precarious by about 1740. Bengal, Bihār and Orissā were, then, all under the *navāb* who resided at Murśidābād. Its able governor Murśid Qulikhān died in 1727. In 1740 his son-in-law Sarfarāz Khān who was the *navāb*, was killed by an ambitious Turk in his service named

[1] NPI., p. 61.
[2] *Ibid*, p. 59.
[3] NHM., Vol. II, p. 159.
[4] *Ibid*, p. 202.

Alivardi Khan.[1] Alivardi's usurpation was hated by the partisans of the dead *nawab*. The strong faction at Alivardi's court was headed by an able Persian of Śiraz, by name Mir Habib who had risen to the position of deputy *nawabship* of Orissa from very humble beginnings. He had made offers to Raghuji in the Bengal territory if he undertook an invasion. This was a very tempting offer to Raghuji who had been waiting to extend his sphere of influence to the east of Nāgpūr. Rather he considered the region from Nāgpūr to Bengal as his special field of activity. His brilliant successes in Karnāṭak had strengthened his claim which had the full support of *Chatrapati* Śāhū who had granted him a *sanad* to that effect.

When Raghuji was in Karnāṭak Mir Habīb had been to Nāgpūr urging Bhāskar Rām to invade Bengal. But Bhāskar Rām waited till his master returned home from the distant Karnāṭak. On his return from Karnāṭak Raghuji made thorough preparations and sent a force of ten thousand under the able command of Bhāskar Rām. On the auspicious day of *Dasarā* of 1741, Bhāskar Rām set out for the expedition. He marched through Rāmgaḍ plundering Pācet (60 miles or 96.540 km. east of Rāñcī) on the way to Burdvān. Alivardi Khān camping at Burdvān (15th April 1742) with his slender army was surprised by the Marāṭhā forces. Bhāskar Rām employed half of his army in looting the area adjacent to Burdvān. The Khān finding himself helpless sent his agents to Bhāskarpant begging for peace. The negotiations, however, fell through as Pant demanded rupees ten lacs as peace price. The Khān secretly left Burdvān for Katvā hotly chased by the Marāṭhās. As it was then the month of May Bhāskar decided to return to Nāgpūr to avoid the fury of monsoon. He, however, changed his plan at the prospect of obtaining immense booty from Murśidābād as designed by Mir Habīb. Mir Habīb with a light Marāṭhā force fell on Murśidābād and returned to Kaṭvā loaded with booty worth two to three crores. Alivardi reached his capital just a day late—7th May—when it had been denuded of its wealth by the Marāṭhās. During the rainy season the Marāṭhās and Mir Habīb established their sway as far as Calcutta. They took back Orissā. The East India Company dug a ditch round their factory known as the Marāṭhā Ditch.

The Marāṭhā camp at Kaṭvā was busy celebrating the *Durgā pujā* festival on 18th September 1742. It was attacked on 27th September by Alivardi's forces compelling them to run for safety helter-skelter. Bhāskar Rām escaped towards Pācet. He had to give up the outposts of Burdvān, Hugli and Hijli. Kaṭak was retaken by Alivardi and he returned to Murśidābād on 9th February 1743. Bhāskar Rām informed Raghuji of this discomfiture requesting him to despatch aid immediately. Raghuji however could not send succour to Bhāskar Rām owing to his clash with Bāḷājī Bājirāv *Peśvā*.

[1] *Ibid*, p. 209.

The *Peśvā* had left Pooṇā as early as 1741 with a view to putting a stop to Raghuji's activities in Bengal. He consolidated his position in Māḷva with the help of Malhārrāv Hoḷkar, and captured Gaḍha, Maṇḍlā, plundering Śivani and Chapar. Alivardi was terribly afraid on learning these activities of the *Peśvā*, as he was expecting a joint attack by the *Peśvā* and Raghuji. The *Peśva*, however, offered to help the emperor and Alivardi Khān against Raghuji if he were granted the *cauthāī* right of Māḷvā, Bundelkhaṇḍ and Allāhābād. The Emperor readily agreed to this proposal and sent the *Peśvā* to relieve Alivardi.

On 1st February 1743, the *Peśvā* and his vast army took a bath in the holy waters of the Gaṅgā and the Yamunā at Prayāg. Thence he proceeded to Murśidābād where he had a meeting with Alivardi near Plassey on 30th March, 1743. Alivardi agreed to pay the *cauthāī* of Bengal to Śāhū and rupees twenty-two lacs to Bāḷājī towards the expenditure of the army[1]. A meeting between Raghuji and Bāḷājī earlier could not bring any tangible result[2].

The *Peśvā's* army actually clashed with that of Raghuji's in the Bendu pass near Pācet. The rear part of Raghuji's army was attacked and plundered by the *Peśvā*. From Pacet Raghuji made good for Nāgpūr and the *Peśvā* too started back for Pooṇā via Gayā[3].

Chatrapati Śāhū who had known the deep-rooted rivalry between Bāḷājī and Raghuji called them to Sātārā and brought about a reconciliation which was respected by both the parties. Had the breach been neglected it would have certainly been detrimental to the interest of the Marāṭhā power in India. Raghuji and Bāḷājī signed an agreement at Sātārā in the presence of the *Chatrapati* on 31st August 1743. By this, all the territory from Berār to the east reaching Kaṭak, Bengal and Lucknow was assigned to Raghuji, and that to the west of this line including Ajmer, Āgrā, Prayāg and Māḷvā to Bāḷājī *Peśvā*. None was to interfere with other's sphere[4].

Freed from the troubles with the *Peśvā*, the *Senāsāheb Subhā* returned to Nāgpūr from Sātārā and sent an expedition into Bengal under Bhāskar Rām with a view to making up the lost ground. Bhāskarpant left Nāgpūr early in 1744. Together with Mir Habīb he harassed Alivardi pressing him to pay *cauthāī*. Driven to desperateness Alivardi hatched a plot to kill Bhāskar by deceit. Through his agents he invited Bhāskar for a meeting. It was arranged at Mānkurā between Amnigañj and Kaṭvā when both the parties had pledged not to do any mischief by touching the Kurān and *Gaṅgā* water. Mir Habīb had warned Bhāskar of the Khān's evil intention. But the brave and over-confident

[1] OUM., p. 11.
[2] NHM., vol. II, p. 216.
[3] *Ibid*, p. 217.
[4] *Ibid*, p. 219.

Bhāskar went to a parley with the Khān accompanied by a few select men. When Bhāskarpant took a seat in front of the *Navab* the latter gave a signal as pre-planned and the hiding Muslim soldiers cut Bhāskar and his comrades to pieces. Twenty-two Marāṭhā chiefs were killed. This tragic event took place on 31st March 1744[1].

Bhāskar Rām's murder was an irreparable loss to Raghujī and he never forgot the treacherous act of the Khān. With a view to punishing the Khān, Raghujī started with fourteen thousand horses, crossed the mountainous tract and putting Sambalpūr to his left reached Orissā in March 1745. Durlabhrām, the new deputy governor of Orissā, who was taken by surprise entered the fort of Bārābati for safety. The fort was besieged by Raghujī, Durlabhrām soon surrendered to Raghujī and found himself a prisoner in his camp, but the siege continued as another officer, Abdul Aziz, offered stiff resistance. Alivardi was unable to send supplies to Abdul Aziz at the approach of the rainy season. Abdul therefore surrendered the fort to Raghujī on 12th May 1745, after bravely defending it for two months. When the siege was on, the Marāṭhās occupied Orissā as far as Midnāpūr and Hugli, and plundered Burdvān[2].

After capturing the fort of Bārābatī the Marāṭhās moved to Burdvān. At the invitation of a number of disgruntled Afghāns Raghujī marched towards Bihār. An indecisive battle was fought at Mehib Alipur and Alivardi ran towards Murśidābād on 21st December 1745. At Ramdighi near Kaṭvā Raghuji received a terrible set-back and left for Nāgpūr in January of 1746. He stationed three thousand Marāṭhās under Mir Habīb on the understanding that he would pay rupees eleven lacs for the use of his army[3].

In order to checkmate the Marāṭhās Alivardi sent his men from Murśidābād in November 1746. They inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Marāṭhās at Midnāpūr. The Marāṭhās fled towards Bālāsore through Jaleśvar[4].

By this time Jānojī Bhosle appeared on the scene. He reached Kaṭak for the rescue of Mir Habīb. A stiff battle ensued between Jānojī and Alivardi, but as the rains were on, the latter returned to Murśidābād leaving the Marāṭhās masters of Orissā up to Midnāpūr throughout the year 1747. The plundering operations of the Marāṭhās continued unabated. Jānojī returned to Nāgpūr on hearing the news of his mother's death. Mir Habīb was at Midnāpūr with a Marāṭhā force to help him. Raghujī sent his son Sābājī for the assistance of Habīb.

[1] OUM, p. 12.
[2] *Ibid*, p. 14.
[3] OUM., pp. 15, 16.
[4] NHM, vol. II, p. 224.

In 1748 Alivardi reached Bālāsore and despatched his army to drive away the Marāṭhās who were making preparations to plunder the English factory under the command of Niḷo Paṇḍit. He in vain tried to search for the force under Habīb, who was hiding in the jungles of Kaṭak. He then made a surprise attack on the fort of Bārābatī and was finally able to take it in his possession. In June, 1749, Alivardi returned to Bengal.

Mir Habīb with the Marāṭhā force reappeared at Kaṭak. Alivardi had to postpone his attack on the Marāṭhās as the rains had set in. On his reaching Murśidābād he was taken ill in October, 1749[1].

From October, 1749 to March, 1751, the Marāṭhās did not allow Alivardi to rest. They harassed him by avoiding an open war when he came out with a large army from Murśidābād. In 1750 when Alivardi was at Midnāpūr the Marāṭhās quickly marched towards Murśidābād plundering all the way. Durlabhrām and Mir Jāfar the officers who were stationed at Midnāpūr were nervous and unable to check the Marāṭhā inroads. This lingering war was a great drain on Alivardi's resources and men. The territory under him was a house divided against itself. In 1750 Alivardi was a man of 75, physically ailing. As the situation was intolerable his shrewd wife advised him to negotiate with the Marāṭhās[2]. Old Alivardi accepted his wife's counsel and deputed Mir Jāfar to meet Jānojī and Mir Habīb to settle the terms of peace. For more than a couple of years Jānojī was in Orissā[3] or Raghujī was busy with the political affairs at Sātārā and Nāgpūr. The treaty was signed in May, 1751:—

(1) Mir Habīb was to be confirmed in the Government of Orissā as the deputy *Subhedār* of Murśidābād.

(2) The *Navāb* was to pay annually 12 lacs of rupees to the Bhosles of Nāgpūr for the *cauthāī* of Bengal and Bihār.

(3) When these amounts were regularly paid, the Bhosles were not to harass the two provinces.

(4) The district of Kaṭak, i.e., the territory up to the river Suvarṇarekhā was to be considered as the possession of the Bhosles[4].

After a long struggle lasting for nearly ten years, Raghujī was able to establish his right of collecting *cauthāī* from Bengal and Bihār. The province of Kaṭak as far as Suvarṇarekhā came under his possession. This was the greatest achievement of Raghujī Bhosle crowning his earlier successes.

[1] OUM., pp. 16, 17.
[2] NHM., vol. II, p. 224.
[3] NPI., p. 98.
[4] NHM., vol. II, 224, Dr. B. C. Ray in his Orissā under Mārāthās, p. 20, expresses doubt regarding the exactness of the terms of the treaty. But from the treaty of Devgānv, 1803, it is certain that Kaṭak and Bālāsore were surrendered to the British by the Bhosles. This means that Kaṭak and Bālāsore were with the Bhosles upto 1803, since their conquest.

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The smaller states of Raipūr, Ratanpūr, Bilāspūr and Sambalpūr of Chattisgaḍ area were conquered by Bhāskar Rām during the first two raids of Bengal. Raghujī's illegitimate son Mohansingh was in charge of these States[1].

Raghujī's territory included the area from Berār to Kaṭak. The Goṇḍ Kingdoms of Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā, Canda or Candrapūr and Devagaḍ were in his possession. Berār proper was under the dual authority of the Bhosles and the *Nizām*. Originally the Bhosles were to get from the revenue of Berār 25 per cent as *cauthai*, 10 per cent as *sardeśmukhi* and 5 per cent as *ghāsdāṇā*, the total working at 40 per cent. The remaining 60 per cent of the total revenue of Berar was to go to the *Nizam*. but later this original treaty seems to have been reversed by which the Bhosles secured 60 per cent of the revenue and the *Nizām* the remaining 40 per cent[2].

The strategic forts of Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā with the territory attached to them were exclusively under Raghujī's possession. Similarly, the fort of Māṇikdurg in the Māhūr area belonged to him. As already observed the states of Chattisgaḍ were also under his sway as important outposts between Nāgpūr and the province of Kaṭak. The acquisition of this vast territory speaks for Raghujī's generalship. He might have lost a few battles but he always won the war. In diplomacy, as understood in his day, he was second to none. By his mounting successes he won the confidence of *Chatrapati* Śāhū and on critical occasions he was consulted by him. Śāhū, prior to his death had called Raghujī to Sātārā to discuss the matter of succession to the *Chatrapati's gādī*. Raghujī was related to Śāhū through his wife.

Like Bājīrāv I, Raghujī too was loved by his followers. He had capable and trustworthy persons like Bhāskarpant, Raghujī Karāṇḍe, Tuḷojipant, Nāroji Jācaka, Rakhamaji Gaṇeś, Kṛṣṇaji Āṭoḷe and others[3].

Raghujī and the *Peśvās* were not always on good terms. The rivalry between the two goes back to the days of *Peśvā* Bājīrāv I. The spheres of influence of Raghujī and Bājīrāv came into conflict when Bājīrāv secured one-third part of Bundelkhaṇḍ for the timely help rendered to Chatrasāl against Baṅgaṣ. When Bājīrāv was fighting with the *Nizām* at Bhopāḷ in 1738, Raghujī did not offer him any help in spite of repeated requests. In the agreement between Raghujī and Śāhū, it was clearly stated that the former would accompany the *Peśvā* in his campaigns. But actually neither Bājīrāv nor his son Bāḷājī was able to command the services of Raghujī in their capacity as the *Peśvā* or Prime Minister. *Chatrapati* Śāhū too often found it difficult to exercise control when two or more of his high servants were at sixes and sevens. Lack of strong central authority was rather the serious defect from which the Marāṭhā power suffered in the post-Śivājī period.

[1] NPI., p. 100.

[2] NPI., pp. 48 and 102.

[3] NPI., pp. 105, 106.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA PERIOD.

Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

Raghujī's raids on Bengal.

Raghujī avoided an open clash with Bājīrāv knowing well his ability as also the influence he wielded over the *Chatrapati*. Bajīrav too acting on the advice of his brother Cimājīappā settled his differences with Raghujī amicably[1].

The differences between Raghujī and Bāḷājī *Peśvā* over the eastern sphere are historic. They were settled by the mild-tempered Śāhū, who divided the spheres of activity of the two by granting Raghujī the territory from Nāgpūr to Kaṭak and to the *Peśvā* to the west of this line. Raghujī supported Bābujī Nāik who was aspiring for *Peśvāship* as against Bāḷājī Bājīrāv. But so long as Śāhū was alive such differences were not allowed to take a serious turn. After Śāhū's death Raghujī respected the *Peśvā's* authority. He did not join the *Peśvā's* opponents in the Marāṭhā confederacy being convinced that he was the ablest man among the Marāṭtās to occupy the *Peśvāship*. Raghujī knew well when to oppose and when to yield. He was not prepared to allow matters to be carried to the breaking point unnecessarily. In one of his letters to Nānā *Peśvā* he writes—'the Late *Śrimant* Bājīrāv was kind to me. But differences arose when we had a clash with Āvajī Kavaḍe who had entered Berār. All these matters should now be forgotten and I should be treated as your man[2].' Bāḷājī *Peśvā* on learning the death of Raghujī wrote—'Raghujī was a respectable nobleman. His death is indeed a matter of great regret. God's will has to be accepted. Of late Raghujī was of much help to us'[3].

Raghujī, An Assessment.

Raghujī was a self-made man. He had risen to the status of a first-rate nobleman at the court of Śāhū by the dint of his merit. He therefore regarded that his status was on par with that of the *Peśvā* for all practical purposes. He disliked that the *Peśvā* should interfere with his sphere of influence. It may be observed that for this mutual jealousy neither the *Peśvā* nor Raghujī was so much at fault. The defect lay in the weakness of the central authority. In the absence of a strong centre the Marāṭhās were not able to create an effective confederacy which could enforce its authority over all.

Raghujī was mainly responsible for the prosperity of Nāgpūr. He brought along with him a number of Marāṭhā and Brāhmaṇ families from western Mahārāṣṭra who infused new order and life in the administration of Nāgpūr and Berār. Cultivation of Nāgpūr improved under Raghujī. A number of *Kuṇbi* or cultivators' families settled in the territory under Raghujī. The credit of settling the weavers or *Koṣṭis* also goes to Raghujī Bhosle.

Raghujī was a devotee of Rāma. He installed the idol of Rāma at Rāmṭek and revived the importance of this place of epic fame. He made land grants to many other temples and holy places.

[1] NPI., p. 80.

[2] PD. 20, p. 30.

[3] PD. 20, p. 68.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA PERIOD.

Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

The *Jari-Paṭaka* and the saffron-coloured flag were the emblems of Raghujī. This great general who extended the Marāṭhā power as far as Kaṭak breathed his last at Nāgpūr on the 14th of February 1755[1].

Jānojī Bhosle, 1755—1772.

Raghujī had four sons, Mudhojī and Bimbājī from the elder wife, and Jānojī and Sābājī from the younger. Jānojī was the eldest among these brothers. It was Raghujī's desire that Janojī should succeed him and others should get their due shares of his vast territory. However, Mudhojī put his claim for his father's *gādī* on the plea that he was the son of the eldest wife of Raghujī. By the practice of primogeniture then prevailing, this claim was inadmissible. Jānojī had the support of a number of courtiers like Kṛṣṇājī Govindrāv, the *subhedār* of Berār, Narabar Ballāḷ, the *subhedār* of Nāgpūr, Śivabhaṭ Sāṭhe, the *Subhedār* of *Kaṭak;* Raghujī Karāṇḍe, Bimbājī Vañjāl, Nārojī Jācaka, Śivājī Keśav Ṭāḷkuṭe, Ānandrāv Vāgh and Kṛṣṇājī Āṭoḷe. Mudhojī had the support of Sadāśiv Hari, his *divāṇ,* Dinkar Vināyak, Śivājī Vināyak and Narasiṅgrav Bhavānī. The dispute of the two brothers was referred to the *Peśvā* Bāḷājī Bājirav. Both of them were called to Pooṇā. The title of *Senāsāheb Subhā* was conferred on Jānojī while the new title of *Senādhurandhar* was created for Mudhojī. Mudhojī received Candrapūr or Cāndā and Chattisgaḍ with the former as his seat of administration. Bimbājī was to reside at Chattisgaḍ and Sābājī at Dārvā in Berār[2]. The Bhosle brothers agreed to pay to the *Peśvā* a sum of twenty lacs[3] as present on this occasion according to the time-honoured custom. Actually the *sanad* of *Senāsāheb Subhā* was issued as late as 1761 by Tārābāī when Mādhavrāv I assumed *Peśvāship.* At the time, Devajīpant Corghaḍe was a promising young man who settled the amount of present between Jānojī and the *Peśvā* Bāḷājī Bājīrāv.

Jānojī and Mudhojī fought among themselves when their negotiations were in progress at Pooṇā, and even after their dispute was settled by the *Peśvā.*

By about 1759, the two brothers tried to settle their differences by resorting to arms. A battle was fought near Rahāṭgāṅv in which Mudhojī was forced to retreat. In the treaty that followed, it was decided that Mudhojī should actively participate in the administration and Raghujī Karāṇḍe, Trimbakjī Rāje (Wāvīkar), Bhosle and Pirājī Nimbāḷkar should act as mediators with a view to avoid any rupture in future. Pirājī Nimbāḷkar along with his force of six thousand was brought into the service of Jānojī by Divākarpant. Pirājī hailed from western Mahārāṣṭra[4].

[1] NPI., p. 103.

[2] NPI., pp. 115—118.

[3] NHM., Vol. II, p. 342.

[4] NPI., pp. 126, 127.

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History.

MARATHA PERIOD.

Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

Jānojī Bhosle, 1755—1772.

In 1760 Jānojī and Mudhojī appealed to Sadāśivrāv to settle their dispute. Sadāśivrāv offered to settle it but asked them to run to his help at Udgīr in his war against the *Nizām.* Both the brothers hastened to help Sadāśivrāv but the latter had concluded a treaty with the *Nizām* before the armies of the Bhosles could be brought into the field[1].

Later, Mudhojī was forced to leave the fort of Cāndā when two of his trusted officers Ābājī Bhosle and Gaṅgādharpant turned against him. Jānojī taking advantage of this difficulty marched on Cāndā, but hurriedly left the place being involved in the *Peśvā-Nizām* war, leaving behind Tuḷojipant and Majidkhān for the reduction of Cāndā fort[2].

The differences between the two brothers often resulting in an armed clash naturally weakened the power of the Bhosles. Nāgpūr after the death of Raghujī became a hot bed of political intrigues. Many courtiers exploited the family faction to their selfish ends. The two brothers were finally reconciled to each other because Jānojī who was without a son decided to adopt Mudhojī's son as his successor. The credit for this amity, however, goes to the situation rather than to the wisdom of either of the brothers.

Jānojī Bhosle was a man of vacillating nature. In the conflict between the *Peśvā* and the *Nizām* he sided with the latter. But both the *Peśvās* Bāḷājī and Mādhavrāv I proved too strong for him. Raghujī Bhosle when once reconciled with the *Peśvā* by the efforts of Śāhū remained loyal to him. Jānojī failed to grasp the situation and had to pay heavily for the same in his relations with the *Peśvās.* At least as a matter of policy for safeguarding his own territory, he should have maintained friendly relations with the *Peśvās.*

Jānojī and Peśvā Bāḷājī Bājirāv.

It was Bājīrāv who brought about a compromise between Jānojī and Mudhojī. Jānojī never cared to pay the *Peśvā* the sum of the present he had agreed to, when he was invested with the title of *Senāsāheb Subhā.* Similarly, he was very negligent in the payment of the dues to the central treasury. The *Peśvā's* efforts to recover the State dues through his agents Vyaṅkaṭ Moreśvar and Triṁbakajī Bhosle proved futile[3]. In 1757-58 Mudhojī accompanied Raghunāthrāv in his north Indian expedition. But soon returned back to Berār owing to some differences with him[4].

In the Battle of Udgīr Jānojī and Mudhojī went to help Bhāu when the war was practically over. For a short time, when the Bhosle brothers worked in co-operation they helped the *Peśvā* in

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 128, 129.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 155.

[3] NPI., p. 125.

[4] NPI., p. 123.

his attack on the *Nizām* at Sindkheḍ[1]. The Bhosle brothers, mainly Jānojī and Mudhojī did not accompany Bhāusāheb to the battle-field of Pānipat. Nor does the Bhāu seem to have commanded their service when the Marāṭhās were to engage themselves in a life and death struggle with Ahmad Śāh Abdālī. The cordial relations which existed between the *Peśvās* and the Śindes were conspicuous by their absence between the *Peśvās* and the Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

Jānojī and Mudhojī were with Nānāsāheb *Peśvā* when he was hastening to help Bhāu before the final rout of the Marāṭhās on the battle-field of Pānipat. Janoji saved the retreating Marāṭhās from the attacks of the anti-Marāṭhā elements on their homeward journey. He brought the recalcitrant Bundelā Chiefs under control[2].

Following their defeat in the Third Battle of Pānipat, the Marāṭhās were busy putting their own affairs in order. The robes of *Peśvāship* were granted to Mādhavrāv I. His uncle who was aspiring for the same office was not happy with this arrangement. The *Nizām* who was smarting under the defeat he had suffered in the Battle of Udgīr was eager to fish in the troubled waters at Pooṇā. With a vast army of sixty thousand strong he desecrated the holy places of Ṭokā and Pravarā-Saṅgam and dug up Śinde's palaces at Śrigondā for hidden treasure. In December 1761, he camped at Uruḷikāñcan for an attack on Pooṇā. Raghunāthrāv sent urgent calls to the Marāṭhā generals for help. Jānojī Bhosle had joined the *Peśvā* with his army[3]. He was present in the Battle of Cāmbhārgondā with a force of seven to eight thousand[4]. The *Nizām* was surrounded by the Marāṭhā forces and compelled to surrender. Majority of the Marāṭhā nobles felt that this was the long awaited opportunity to exterminate the *Nizām*. But this could not be brought about because of the easy terms he was given by Raghunāthrāv.

Raghunāthrāv had given easy terms to the *Nizām* at Uruḷi with a view to securing his support in his dispute with Mādhavrāv which was expected any moment. Rāv was unwilling to work in co-operation with his young nephew who was the *Peśvā*. The situation deteriorated fast heading towards a civil war. Rāv's partisans had secretly secured the help of the *Nizām* and Jānojī Bhosle. In this great plot headed by Raghunāthrāv it was decided to deprive Mādhavrāv of his *Peśvāship* and power. Raghunāthrāv was to appoint men of his own choice in high offices. Jānojī Bhosle was lured into the plot by the offer of *Chatrapatiship* at Sātārā after deposing Rāmrājā. Jānojī and the *Nizām* met near Kalaburgī (Gulburgā) and agreed to join the plot. From the territory that would be acquired, the

[1] NHM., Vol. II, p. 342.
[2] NPI., p. 132.
[3] NHM., Vol. 2, p. 467.
[4] NPI., p. 136.

Nizām was to secure sixty per cent of the total tribute and Jānojī forty per cent. The *Peśvā's* agents Vyaṅkaṭ Moreśvar and Rāmajī Ballāḷ tried in vain to dissuade Jānojī and his adviser Divākarpant from joining the plot.

Young Mādhavrāv realising the gravity of the situation boldly surrendered himself to his uncle and put an end to the civil war that was threatening to sap the Marāṭhā power. By this dramatic decision Jānojī's dream of securing *Chatrapatiship* evaporated.[1]

Shortly after the surrender of Mādhavrāv to his uncle, the latter—Raghunāthrāv—started making his own arrangement by distributing offices and titles to his favourites and partisans. For some days in November, 1762, the Marāṭhā leaders and diplomats assembled at Alegāṅv and discussed all domestic issues.[2] Unfortunately such meetings could not be had frequently to solve the problems of the Marāṭhā confederacy. Moreover, there was not a strong central authority which could force the decisions on all the members taken at such meetings.

The treaty between the Marāṭhās and the *Nizām* proved to be short-lived. Raghunāthrāv who was proceeding against Haidar Ali received news that the *Nizām* and Jānojī Bhosle along with a number of discontented courtiers were busy forming a coalition against him. Jānojī and the *Nizām* met at Gulburgā on 9th February 1763 and discussed the plan of seizing the *Peśvā's* lands and sharing the spoils. Among the other Marāṭhās who joined the *Nizām* were the Paṭvardhans and the Pratinidhis. The *Nizām* as the head of this unholy alliance sent his demands to the *Peśvā* stating that all the forts east of the river Bhimā should be delivered unto him, those who had been deprived of their *Jāgīrs* should receive them back and the *Peśvā* should settle all State affairs in consultation with the *Nizām's divāṇ*[3].

This challenge nullified the easy terms which Raghunāthrāv had given to the *Nizām* at Uruḷikañcan. Giving up the march on the territory of Haidar Ali, Raghunāthrāv moved towards Auraṅgābād. Malhārrāv Hoḷkar joined Raghunāthrāv when he was promised an additional *jāgīr* of ten lacs. The plan of Raghunāthrāv and Hoḷkar was to lay waste the territory of the *Nizām* and his partisans. Knowing well that Raghunāthrāv was a past master in the guerilla warfare, the *Nizām* decided to attack Pooṇā on the advice of Jānojī Bhosle. The combined armies of the *Nizām* and the Bhosles fell upon Pooṇā in 1763. Gopikābāī sought shelter with her men and jewellery in the fort of Purandar. Heavy tribute was exacted from the people of Pooṇā, and the city burnt down. The shrine of *Parvatī* and

[1] NHM., Vol. 2, p. 472.
[2] NHM., Vol. II, pp. 472-73.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 475.

other temples were desecrated and idols destroyed. Raghujī Karāṇḍe the general of the Bhosle laid waste the region around Sinhgaḍ and Purandar. He looted the *Peśvā's* jewellery at Sāsvaḍ and set on fire important State records taken there for safety[1]. To retaliate the sack of Pooṇā Raghunathrāv and his men carried fire and sword in the *Nizam's* territory. His army sacked parts of Berār. Mahādajī Śinde was ordered to raid Jānojī's territory and he proceeded towards Berār from Ujjain. Raghunāthrāv had written to Jānojī reprimanding him of his disloyalty and bringing to his notice how unbecoming it was for him to join the *Nizām*. At the same time Malhārrāv Holkar was trying to dissuade Jānojī to give up the cause of the *Nizām* through his advisers Divākarpant and Bhavānī Munśi. Jānojī was offered territory worth 31 lacs and was to be confirmed in the *Senāsāheb-Subhāship*. These direct threats and diplomatic approaches finally won Jānojī to the *Peśvā's* side. He agreed to leave the *Nizām* at the nick of the moment when the Marāṭhās would lead an attack. The other Marāṭhā nobles like Bhavānrāv *Pratinidhi*, Gopālrāv Paṭvardhan, Pirājī Nimbālkar and Gamājī were also persuaded to desert the *Nizam* on the promise of receiving *jāgīrs* and restoring lost positions[2]. In the Battle of Rākṣasabhuvan (10th August, 1763) the *Nizām* was routed and forced to surrender. He gave to the *Peśvā* territory worth 82 lacs. Jānojī gave a banquet to the *Peśvā* and presented him the guns he had captured in the sack of Pooṇā along with the *Nizām*. Jānojī and the *Peśvā* were reconciled temporarily.

Viṭṭhal Sunder the *divāṇ* of the *Nizām* who was the brain behind all the ambitious schemes of his master was killed in the Battle of Rākṣasabhuvan.

The young *Peśvā* Mādhavrāv distinguished himself in this battle. The success of this battle was mainly due to his strategic and tactical movements.

Jānojī and Mādhavrāv Peśvā.

In the Marāṭhā-*Nizām* struggle which ended in the battle of Rākṣasabhuvan, Jānojī because of his changing policy had displeased both the *Nizām* and the *Peśvā*. He had given up the wise policy of his father of supporting the *Peśvā* as the strong man. His policy was devoid of any sound principle. It was guided by the idea of extending one's own territory at the cost of others, including that of the other Marāṭhā potentates. This was rather the common malady from which the entire Marāṭhā power was suffering. Mādhavrāv was determined to correct this defect. With great difficulty he had brought Jānojī into his camp in the life and death struggle with the *Nizām*. The sack of Pooṇā in which Jānojī carried fire and sword was an act which the *Peśvā* was not prepared to forget. In the family dispute

[1] NPI., p. 150.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 152.

between Mādhavrāv and Raghunathrāv Jānojī always espoused the cause of the latter. Raghunāthrāv in his own way gave easy terms to Jānojī looking upon him as his supporter in his dispute with Mādhavrāv.

Mādhavrāv was waiting for an opportunity to punish Jānojī. Berār was subject to the dual administration of the Bhosles and the *Nizām*. This naturally created friction between the two on several occasions. In 1765 Moro Dhoṇḍajī an officer of the *Nizām* in Berār was attacked by Jānojī's men. The *Nizām's* fiasco in the Battle of Rākṣasabhuvan was the result of Jānojī's treachery. He was keen on taking revenge upon Jānojī for his breach of trust. He therefore appealed to the *Peśvā* for help when his officer was attacked. The *Peśvā* at once decided to help the *Nizām*.[1] On 17th October, 1765, Mādhavrāv proceeded from Pooṇā and was joined by the *Nizām's divāṇ* Rukna-ud-Daulā with a force of seven to eight thousand. The combined forces camped at Edalābād in December, 1765. Raghunāthrāv also came with his force to join his nephew. The *Nizām* started from Hyderābād and camped at Karañjā. His army was well-equipped with artillery. From Edalābād the *Peśvā's* forces went to Bāḷāpūr and started looting the territory of the Bhosle after dividing themselves into suitable batches. Sums of Rs. 1,75,000 and Rs. 1,70,000 were exacted from Bāḷāpūr and Akolā respectively as tributes. Jānojī and Mudhojī took shelter in the fort of Āmner along with their families. Later, they shifted to the stronger fort of Cāndā. Jānojī finding the combined forces too strong for him to overcome sued for peace through the *Peśvā's* envoy Vyaṅkaṭ Moreśvar. The *Peśvā* too had no stomach for the fight. He was satisfied with the punishment he had meted out to the disobedient Jānojī. The terms of the treaty were finalised at Kholāpūr, near Daryāpūr in 1766. It was decided that the Bhosle should retain territory worth Rs. 8 lacs only, out of the total territory of Rs. 32 lacs he had received from the *Peśvā*, in the Battle of Rākṣasabhuvan. Out of the remaining 24 lacs, the *Peśvā* was to give the *Nizām* territory worth 15 lacs and was to retain for himself the rest[2]. Many differences between the *Nizām* and Jānojī were settled on this occasion. Following rapprochement Jānojī sent his men to help Raghunāthrāv in his north Indian campaign.

When the negotiations between Mādhavrāv and Jānojī were in progress, the former's agent conveyed him Jānojī's contention. Its gist is indicative of the general state of affairs in the Marāṭhā Confederacy. Jānojī was not slow to understand that the dispute between him and the *Peśvā* would only benefit the *Nizām*. But desire for power rendered any satisfactory solution difficult. The letter written to the *Peśvā* by his agent conveying Jānojī's mind runs as follows: "The *Śrimant* being angry with us (Jānojī) has invaded Berār. I am not guilty of burning Pooṇā.

[1] NPI., p. 159.
[2] NPI., p. 165.

When the *Nizām* indulged in this act I did not support him. I, however, admit that I did not help in the campaign against Haidar Nāyak. It is after all human to err. But the punishment meted out to me by depriving me of territory worth Rs. 30 lacs is too heavy. That has now been offered to the Nizām. Should the serpent be fed with milk ? If I am ordered to attack the *Nizam*, I would destroy him in no time. ..... I shall proceed by rapid marches to meet your honour. I should not be let down".[1] Janojī gave expression to his feelings in these words. But it seems that he did not really repent for what had happened. For, within a couple of years after the treaty of Daryapūr he once again sided with Raghunathrav in his dispute with Mādhavrāv and drew the latter's wrath upon himself.

Mādhavrāv attacks Jānojī and humbles him.—In the quarrel between Mādhavrāv and Raghunāthrāv in 1768, Jānojī decided to support the latter. However, Raghunāthrāv was defeated and arrested before Jānojī's army could join him. Mādhavrāv was determined to teach Jānojī a lesson for violating the treaty of Daryāpūr in which he had agreed to support his cause. Jānojī was apprehensive of a fresh attack by the *Peśvā*. He, therefore, sent his envoy Cimaṇājī Rakhamangād Citaṇis to the *Peśvā* for a talk. The *Peśvā* refused to listen to the envoy and asked Jānojī to send Devājīpant to Pooṇā, as he considered Devājīpant to be the mischief-maker in the *Peśvā*-Bhosle altercation. Mādhavrāv arrested Devājīpant and marched on Berār. The *Peśvā* was accompanied by his generals Gopālrāv Paṭvardhan and Rāmacandra Gaṇeś Kānaḍe. The *Nizām* sent a force of eight thousand strong under Rukna-ud-daulā and Rāmcandra Jādhav. The *Peśvā* with the forces of his ally occupied Bhosle's territory to the west of the Wardhā river. The relatives of Jānojī had taken shelter into the fort of Gāvilgaḍ. Jewellery too was removed to this place. Jānojī with his forces encamped at Tivasā to the west of Wardhā river, 7-12-1768.

The *Peśvā* did not chase Jānojī. He took the fort of Āmner (20-1-1769) and straightway proceeded to Nāgpūr. Nāgpūr was looted and burnt. The burning of Pooṇā by Jānojī was fully avenged. The fort of Bhaṇḍārā was besieged and reduced by Rāmacandra Gaṇeś.[2]

The fort of Candrapūr or Cāndā the strong-hold of the Bhosles was the next target of attack. The fort was besieged by the *Peśvā's* army. Jānojī who was outside moved from place to place carrying on a running warfare with the *Peśvā's* army. In order to relieve the pressure on the fort of Cāndā Jānojī spread rumours that he was marching towards Pooṇā to release Raghunāthrāv from the custody. At the same time Devājīpant who was in the custody of Mādhavrāv managed to receive secret letters from Jānojī stating that when the *Peśvā* was engaged with the siege of Cāndā, Jānojī should attack Pooṇā and set Raghunāthrāv free. The letters were intended to be seized by *Peśvā's* intelligence

[1] NPI., p. 163.
[2] NPI., p. 175.

department. This ruse had its effect. The *Peśvā's* apprehension of Jānojī's attack on Pooṇā was strengthened. When these rumours gained currency, Pooṇā was in the grip of consternation as the memory of Jānojī's first invasion was yet fresh[1]. The *Peśvā* at once decided to raise the siege of Cāndā and sent his men against Jānojī. He sent a letter through Rukna-ud-daula to Jānojī on 3rd March, 1769, expressing his desire for peace. Jānojī who was eager to end the war sent his terms and the treaty was finalised on 23-3-1769 near Kanakpūr. Devājīpant was the principle figure on behalf of the Bhosle in bringing about this treaty.

In the treaty of Kanakpūr it was decided that—

(1) Jānojī was granted a *jāgīr* of 32 lacs in 1763, out of which he was allowed to have only 8 lacs in 1766, Jānojī should now relinquish all claim over the *jāgīr*.

(2) The lands of the Bhosles of Akkalkoṭ confiscated by Jānojī should be released.

(3) The Bhosles used to collect *ghāsdāṇā* from the Auraṅgābād *Subhā* belonging to the *Peśvā*. They should discontinue this practice. The Bhosles likewise should stop collecting *ghāsdāṇā* from the *Nizām's* territory. The Bhosles would get their *ghāsdāṇā* collections from the *Peśvā* and the *Nizām* from their officers. The Bhosles should themselves collect *ghāsdāṇā* only if the *Nizām's* Officers fail to do the same for them.

(4) The Bhosles should serve the *Peśvā* with their army when called.

(5) The Bhosles should make no changes in the strength of their army without the permission of the *Peśvā*.

(6) The Bhosles should not shelter rebels and disloyal persons coming from the *Peśvā's* territory.

(7) The Bhosles should not enter into political negotiations with the Emperor of Delhi, the *Navāb* of Oudh, the Rohillās, the English and the *Nizām* without the consent of the *Peśvā*.

(8) The Bhosles should pay an annual tribute of Rs. 5 lacs to the *Peśvā* in five instalments.

(9) The army of the *Peśvā* while passing through the Bhosle's territory would use the old routes.

(10) The *Peśvā* should not interfere with the domestic affairs of Jānojī so long as he was looking after his relations properly.

(11) Revā Mukundpurā, Mahobā, Cārṭhāṇe, Jintur, Sakarkheḍā, Mehekar should be given to the *Peśvā* by Jānojī.

(12) The Bhosle should send his army to Orissā only if it is not required by the *Peśvā*.

(13) The *Peśvā* should help the Bhosle with his army in the event of an invasion of the latter's territory[2].

[1] NPI., p. 179.
[2] NPI., pp. 181—183.

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Jānoji Bhosle, 1755—1772.

Madhavrāv and Jānojī met at Mehekar ceremonially. Parties and presents were exchanged. The *Nizām's dīvāṇ* Rukna-ud-daulā was also present at Mehekar[1].

A careful analysis of these terms shows that Madhavrāv's aim was to bring central control in the Maratha confederacy, which was so necessary for its growth and survival. From the days of Bajirav I, the *Peśvas* were struggling hard to assert their authority over the Bhosles of Nagpūr in their capacity as prime ministers. There was no clear constitutional ruling on this point except the prevailing practice. The Bhosles in their own way considered themselves as the equals of the *Peśvās*. All accepted the overlordship of the *Chatrapati*. But after the death of Sāhu his successors proved to be nonentities. Under the circumstance the *Peśvās* tried to assert their authority over others with a good degree of success up to Mādhavrāv.

During Jānojī's *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship* Puruṣottam Divākar *alias* Devājīpant Corghaḍe of Nārkheḍ rose into prominence. He secured for Jānojī huge sums of money required for war. In his dealings with Mādhavrāv *Peśvā* Divākarpant was his chief adviser. Mādhavrāv considered Devājīpant as the Machiavelli at the Nāgpūr Court. He was a full wise man out of the three and a half wise men of the day[2]. For some time towards the end of Jānojī's career Divākarpant lost his master's confidence and fell on evil days. But he was always looked upon as the inevitable man on critical occasions because of his keen grasp of events. Very few original papers are available about this diplomat of Nāgpūr. He died in 1781. Among other persons of note of Jānojī's times may be mentioned Bhavānipant Munśī, Bhavāni Kāḷo and Gaṇeś Sambhājī. Bhavānipant Munśī became Jānojī's counsellor when Devājīpant fell from his favour. Bhavāni Kāḷo rose to the position of the general. For sometime he was the *subhedār* of Kaṭak. He constructed the temple of Bāḷājī at Vāśim and installed the image. The last, Gaṇeś Sambhājī too acted as the *Subhedār* of Kaṭak[3].

Jānojī Bhosle had no son. He had decided to adopt Raghujī, the eldest son of his brother, Mudhojī. After the treaty of Kanakpūr he was on good terms with Mādhavrāv *Peśvā*. Jānojī travelled to Thevur near Pooṇā where Mādhavrāv was on his death-bed and secured his consent to Raghujī's adoption. From Thevur he went to the holy places, Paṇḍharpūr and Tulajapūr. He died at Yeral (Naḷdurg) on his homeward journey on 16th May 1772, owing to severe stomach-ache. Mudhojī created a monument in honour of Jānojī and secured some land from the *Peśva* for its maintenance[4].

[1] NPI., p. 184.

[2] The three and a half wise men were popularly known as Devā, Sakhyā, Viṭṭhal and Nānā. Devā stood for Devājipant, Sakhyā for Sakhārām Bāpu Bokil, Viṭṭhal for Viṭṭhal Sundar at the Court of the *Nizām* and Nānā was the famous Nānā Phaḍnis.

[3] NPI., pp. 187—93.

[4] *Ibid.*, 187.

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After the death of Jānojī the house of Bhosles was plunged into family feud worse than the one that was witnessed at the death of Raghujī I. Prior to his death Jānojī had secured the consent of the *Peśvā* for regularising the adoption of Raghujī II, as he was himself without a son. But the actual adoption ceremony had not been gone through. Neither was the title of *Senā Sāheb Subhā* conferred on Raghujī II, officially. Exploiting these lapses Sābājī the younger brother of Mudhojī, approached Mādhavrāv *Peśvā* for the grant of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship*. As Mudhojī was a partisan of Raghunāthrāv, Mādhavrāv sent the robes of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship* for Sābājī with his agent Rāmaji Ballāḷ Guṇe. At the same time Daryābāī, the widow of Jānojī, joined Sābājī and declared that she was pregnant and would give birth to a posthumous child. This created an embarrassing situation for Mudhojī[1]. The success of the parties at Nāgpūr thus depended upon the powerful personality in the family dissensions of the *Peśvās* at Pooṇā. Family disputes for power and position broke out in every Marāṭhā confederate state. Neither the Bhosles nor the *Peśvās* were an exception to this state of affairs.

As a safety measure Mudhojī sent his family members into the fort of Cāndā and collected a force of 25,000 strong to face Sābājī. The armies of the two brothers met at Kumbhāri near Akolā in 1773. After a few engagements the two brothers decided to close the fight. It was agreed that *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship* should go to Raghujī II and actual administration should be looked after jointly by Mudhojī and Sābājī[2]. The Prabhu brothers, Vyaṅkaṭ Kāśī and Kakṣmaṇ Kāśī were deputed to Pooṇā for securing the robes of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhāship* for Raghujī. At this time Nārāyaṇrāv was the ruling *Peśvā*. This arrangement proved unsuccessful as Sābājī was dissatisfied with it. In the rivalry between Nārāyaṇrāv and Raghunāthrāv, Sābājī took the side of the former while Mudhojī supported the latter. Sābājī sought the aid of the *Peśvā* and the *Nizām*, and the combined forces laid siege to Ellicpūr as its *Navāb* was a partisan of Mudhojī. But in 1773, when Nārāyaṇrāv *Peśvā* was murdered Sābājī's party was considerably weakened and he openly supported the *Bārabhāis*. Mudhojī's cause was greatly strengthened when Raghunāthrāv assumed power after murdering his nephew. A compromise was brought about between Mudhojī and Sābājī, which in its own way was destined to be short-lived. The *Nizām*, who had taken the side of Sābājī, drew upon himself the wrath of Raghunāthrāv. The *Nizām* was attacked and forced to enter into a treaty with Raghunāthrāv. With the Bhosles, the *Nizām* formed the treaty of Sixty-Forty[3].

The family dispute between Mudhojī and Sābājī was finally set at rest when the latter was killed in the battle of Pāñcgāṅv near Nāgpūr on 26th January 1775. In this battle Mudhojī was joined by the *Gārdī* Muhammad Yusuf, one of the murderers of

[1] NPI., p. 195.

[2] NPI., p. 197.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 202.

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Nārāyaṇrāv[1]. The Pāñcgaṅv battle gave Mudhojī a free hand in the political affairs of Nagpūr. Daryabai and the other partisans of Sabaji quietly surrendered to Mudhoji.[1]

For sometime in 1775, the *Barabhais* instigated Śivājī Bhosle of Amrāvatī to rise against Mudhoji. They promised *Sena-Saheb-Subhaship* to Śivaji. This move was deemed necessary by them as their rival Raghunathrāv had the support of Mudhoji Bhosle. On 6th March 1775, Raghunathrav entered into an alliance with the British at Surat in order to oppose the *Barabhais*. The rising of Śivaji Bhosle of Amravati could not assume any serious proportion due to the timely mediation of Divakarpant.[2]

The fratricidal wars among the Marāṭhas were fully exploited by the English for the expansion of their power. In 1773, when the Pooṇā court was faced with extraordinary situation following the assassination of Narayaṇrāv, the British forces moved from Bombay and took the fort of Ṭhāṇa. In fact the British had been casting their covetous eyes on the island of Sāṣṭī (Salsette), since long, for the safety of Bombay. The fort of Ṭhāṇā surrendered on 28th December 1773[3]. This was the actual beginning of the First Anglo-Marāṭhā war which terminated in the Treaty of Salbye in 1782. Raghunāthrāv, in his quarrel with the *Bārabhāis* finally embraced the British giving them the long sought opportunity of interfering with the internal affairs of the Marāṭhās. Raghunāthrāv became a British protege by the Treaty of Surat, 6th March 1775. With a view to curbing the growing ambition of the British and their aggression Nānā Phaḍṇis proposed an anti-British Confederacy consisting of the *Peśvā's* Government, the *Nizām*, Haidar Ali and the Bhosles of Nāgpūr. At this time the prestige of the British had suffered a set-back in the eyes of the Indian powers due to the unscrupulous methods of Warren Hastings. This was rather the opportune time for the Marāṭhās to move against the British as they were engaged in a long war with the French. But the well-conceived quadruple alliance could not be worked out because of the machinations of Warren Hastings. Realising the danger of the alliance proposed by Nānā Phaḍṇis Hastings restored Guntur to the *Nizām* and detached him from the Confederacy. His next move was the seduction of the Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

According to the plan of Nānā Phaḍṇis, the Bhosles were to attack the English in Bengal, Haidar Ali to proceed against Madrās and the Pooṇā forces to harass the British in Gujarāt and Bombay. To execute a part of this joint plan, a large force under Khaṇḍojī Bhosle popularly known as Cimaṇājī marched towards Orissā. Cimaṇājī was a man of courage and action. He was instructed to invade Bengal for the collection of *cauthāī* which was in arrears. But at the eleventh hour he was prevented from

[1] NPI., p. 205.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 209.
[3] NHM., Vol. III., p. 43.

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stepping into Bengal by Raghujī II on the advice of his crafty minister Divākarpant Corghaḍe. Hastings was able to purchase the loyalty of both Khaṇḍojī and Divākarpant by bribing them heavily. By the end of 1778 Goddard had secured Mudhojī's permission for the passage of his army through the latter's territory into Gujarāt. Nānā was enraged at this and immediately sent for Raghujī and Divākarpant and secured their support to his four-party alliance[1]. But the two never kept their word.

Mudhojī Bhosle who was a sworn member of the Confederacy was the first to inform Hastings of Nānā's plan. It was he who prevented Khaṇḍojī Bhosle from invading Bengal. Mudhojī, in all these activities had violated the Treaty of Kanakpūr between Jānojī and Mādhavrāv. It was presumed that he would observe the treaty to which his elder brother Jānoji was a party. But at the critical juncture he cast the previous bindings to the winds and went ahead recklessly allying himself with the British and their protege Raghunāthrāv for selfish gains. The role played by Mudhojī, Raghunāthrāv and their supporters is indicative of the state of affairs prevailing among the ruling Marāṭhā noblemen.

In 1785 Mudhojī had been to Pooṇā with his army to help Nānā Phaḍṇis in the war against Ṭipū Sultān. The battle was fought at Badāmī—1786 in which the *Nizām*, the Bhosles and the *Peśvās* jointly defeated Ṭipū. Cimaṇabāpū distinguished himself in this war. On his homeward journey Mudhojī paid a visit to the holy places in Mahārāṣṭra and returned to Nāgpūr. Mudhojī died at Nāgpūr on 19th May 1788[2], after a very active political career of over two decades.

Towards the end of Jānojī's career Divākarpant had fallen from his grace and was imprisoned. His property too was confiscated. Mudhojī who needed his help most released him. Divākarpant was soon restored to his former position and served Mudhojī as his principal counsellor. Mudhojī was never loyal either to the *Bārabhāis* or to Nānā Phaḍṇis. Throughout his career he supported Raghunāthrāv. At one time he was prepared to serve as the vassal of Warren Hastings severing his relations with the *Peśvā*. Divākarpant had to tow the line of his master. But in doing so he could have impressed upon his master as to what was ultimately good for the Marāṭhā nation as a whole. This naturally required a man of high moral character. It could not be expected of Divākarpant who was enjoying the confidence of Warren Hastings, to rise above self-interest. Divākarpant was bribed by Hastings in order to dissuade the Bhosles from the quadruple alliance of Nānā Phaḍṇis. Thus, 'the full-wise man' out of the noted three and a half wise men of the Marāṭhā country, proved to be otherwise in the large national interests.

Raghujī Bhosle II, 1775—1816.

The title of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* was finally conferred on Raghujī in 1775, during the *Peśvāship* of Savāī Mādhavrāv[3]. Actually he was designated for this title much earlier but sanction for the

[1] NHM., Vol. III., pp. 97, 98.
[2] NPI., pp. 213, 214.
[3] NPI., pp. 300—302.

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same could not be had from Pooṇā, because of the strained relations between the *Peśvās* and the Bhosles. Raghujī assumed power after the death of his father Mudhojī.

Raghujī's relations with Nānā Phaḍṇīs were amicable. In the Battle of Kharḍā, 1795, Raghujī sent his army under Viṭṭhal Ballāḷ *Subhedār* to help the *Peśvā*. Viṭṭhal Ballāḷ distinguished himself in this war and was highly honoured by Nānā. Raghujī's gains in this war were substantial. He received territory worth three and a half lacs from the *Nizām* for the *ghāsdāṇā* of the Gaṅgthaḍī region. The *Nizām* agreed to pay his arrears to Raghujī amounting to Rs. 29 lacs. It was decided that both should share the revenues of Berar as in the past. New *sanads* of the territory to the south of the Narmadā were granted by the *Peśvā* to Raghujī. *Sanads* of this territory were granted to the Bhosles by Nānāsāheb *Peśvā* but the officers of the latter had not given the actual possession so far. Raghujī got the possession of Huśaṅgābād, Caurāgaḍ and Bacāi. Raghujī stuck to the party of Nānā Phaḍṇīs even after the tragic end of Savāī Mādhavrāv. In appreciation Nānā gave Raghujī Rs. 5 lacs in cash and the possession of Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā.

The *Rājā* of Sāgar gave Raghujī a part of his territory for the help he had rendered in the event of an attack by one Amīrkhān. Similarly, the fort of Dhāmoṇī was secured from a petty Rajput chieftain and Huśaṅgābād from the *Navāb* of Bhopāḷ by Raghujī. Thus, by 1800 Raghujī's kingdom was at its zenith. It was the largest of the Marāṭhā states towards the close of the eighteenth century.

The following account might give some idea of the territory and its revenue under Raghujī II[1]:—

Territory		*Revenue* Rs. (in lacs)
1. Devgaḍ, including Nāgpūr	...	30
2. Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā	...	14
3. Huśaṅgābād, Śivani-Māḷvā, Caurāgaḍ, etc.	...	7
4. Multāi or Multāpī	...	2
5. Half the revenue of Berār and of Gāvilgaḍ, Narnāḷā, etc.	...	30
6. Orissā and the other feudatory states in the area.	...	17
7. Candrapūr or Cāndā	...	5
8. Chattisgaḍ and the other feudatory states like Bastār, Sambaḷpūr, Sirgujā, Kaṅkar, Kalahaṇḍi, Jasāpūr and Gaṅgpūr.	...	6
		111

[1] NPI., p. 310.

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These figures of revenue from the different parts of the territory under Raghujī appear to be true. Raghujī, however, was destined to see the decline of the Bhosle house when called upon to face the powerful East India Company.

In 1798, Lord Wellesley came to India as the Governor-General. His objective was to bring the Indian States under 'Subordinate Isolation' by his most potent weapon of 'subsidiary system'. Mysore was the first of the Indian States to be forced to accept the subsidiary alliance. The *Nizām* was the next to enter it for self-protection. Bājīrāv II in his wars with the Marāṭhā potentates and in particular with Yaśvantrāv Hoḷkar, embraced the subsidiary treaty in 1802. Thereafter the Marāṭhā states one after another sold their freedom for a mess of pottage. Under the circumstances, it was not easy for Raghujī to keep himself out of the iron trap laid by Wellesley. As early as 1799 Mr. Colebrooke was sent to Nāgpūr to persuade Raghujī to enter the subsidiary alliance. He stayed in Nāgpūr for two years but was not successful in bringing Raghujī under the alliance.[1]

The Treaty of Bassein of 1802, by which Bājīrāv II bartered away his freedom was highly resented by Yaśvantrāv Hoḷkar. Daulatrāv Śinde and Raghujī Bhosle, too, were upset by Bājīrāv's decision. After the Treaty of Bassein Lord Wellesley had been pressing upon Daulatrāv and Raghujī to enter into a similar alliance with the British without delay. It was clear that Wellesley was trying to hold aloof Daulatrāv and Raghujī. Col. Collins was deputed for negotiations with the two chiefs. They evaded a definite reply in order to gain time, whereupon, Col. Collins left the Śinde's camp. On 7th August 1803, General Wellesley proclaimed a war against the Bhosles and the Śindes, and called upon the general populace to keep itself aloof from the struggle.

The fort of Ahmadnagar which was equipped with munitions and supplies was attacked by Wellesley. Śinde's European Officers who were bribed and seduced went over to the English. Śinde's Brāhmin keeper of the fort finding the position untenable surrendered the fort on 12th August 1803. The Bhosle's army joined the Śindes near Jālanāpūr and a stiff action took place culminating in the battle of Assai on 24th September. The Marāṭhās fought well but were finally defeated. The loss on the English side was heavy, 663 Europeans and 1,778 Indians were killed in action. Stevenson next captured Burhānpūr and Aśirgaḍ, the two strongholds of the Śindes. These successes of the English depressed both the Śindes and the Bhosles. On the 6th November Śinde's agent Yaśvantrāv Ghorpaḍe came to Wellesley's camp to arrange the terms of peace.[2]

The Bhosles were now singled out by Wellesley and Stevenson advanced against the fort of Gāvilgaḍ. The Śindes sent their force to help the Bhosle, violating the truce they had made with the

[1] NHM, Vol. III, p. 402.
[2] *Ibid*, Vol. III, pp. 410, 411.

English. The two armies met on the vast plane between Āḍgaṅv and Śirasoḷī. The Marāṭhā guns played havoc among the English army forcing them to flee. But the English Generals collected their forces again and attacked the Marāṭhās. In the last action the Marāṭhās were defeated. The battle of Āḍgaṅv thus decided the fate of the Marāṭhās on the 29th November 1803. The fort of Gāvilgaḍ fell on 25th December when its keeper Benisingh Rajput died fighting.[1]

On 17th December Raghujī Bhosle signed a treaty at Devagāṅv near Ellicpur with the English.

The terms of the treaty of Āḍgaṅv were as follows:—

(1) The Bhosle should surrender the territory to the west of the river Wardhā as also the provinces of Kaṭak and Bālāsore. The Bhosles were to retain for themselves the forts of Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā and the territory under these forts worth Rs. 4 lacs; i.e., the *paraganās* of Akoṭ, Āḍgāṅv, Baḍnerā, Bhātkuli and Khāṭkali.

(2) Any dispute between the *Nizām*, the *Peśvā* and the Bhosle should be settled through the mediation of the English.

(3) The Bhosles should have no relations with any European except the English. The English too should have no relations with either the enemies or relatives of the Bhosles.

(4) The Bhosles should have no relation with any member of the Marāṭhā Confederacy.

(5) Both the parties should have the envoy of the other at their Courts.

(6) The Bhosles should respect the treaties which the English have formed with the former's feudatories lying between Orissā and Chattisgaḍ.[2]

Berār was given to the *Nizām* for the help he rendered to the English. By this treaty the Bhosles practically lost their independent status. The territory under them was now confined to Nāgpūr and the neighbouring area.

The English were successful in keeping Yaśvantrāv Hoḷkar out of the picture in their struggle with the Śindes and the Bhosles. They fully utilised the hostility between Daulatrāv and Yaśvantrāv. The long cherished dream of the English to secure the coastal strip stretching from Calcuttā to Madrās was fulfilled.

Daulatrāv Śinde too, signed a treaty with the English at Surajī-Añjangāṅv on 30th December 1803.

According to the 5th term of the treaty of Devagāṅv Mount Stuart Elphinstone was sent to Nāgpūr as the British resident. He forced Raghujī to give up his sovereignty over the States to the east of Nāgpūr. Smarting under the recent defeat he had suffered at Devagāṅv, Raghujī was trying to reorganise his army

[1] NHM, Vol. III, p. 412.
[2] NPI., p. 344.

and secure news about Yaśvantrāv Hoḷkar's movement so that he might take revenge upon the English if a suitable opportunity permitted such action. But the Resident kept a close watch over Raghujī's movements and desisted him from keeping any contact with Hoḷkar and his men.[1]

With the fall of the Śindes and the Hoḷkars the marauding bands of the *Peṇḍhāris* became the scourge of the restless times. They fell upon the peasants and the citizens and looted their property. Where resistance was offered they indulged in killing and raping. With the fall of their supporters the Śindes and the Hoḷkars, the cruelties of the *Peṇḍhāris* became all the more wanton. They have been rightly described as the scavengers of the Marāṭhā army.

One of the leaders of the *Peṇḍhāris* Amīrkhān attacked Jubbulpore in about 1809. The local *Subhedār* of the Bhosles Jijābā Ghāṭge tried his best to defend the city but was defeated and forced to take shelter in the fort of Maṇḍlā. In order to defend the Narmadā region from the *Peṇḍhāri* inroads Raghujī appointed Viṭṭhal Ballaḷ *Subhedār*, Benisingh, Raghunāthrāvbājī Ghāṭge and Muhammad Amīrkhān of Śivanī.

At one time the *Peṇḍhāris* looted Rāmṭek and Bhaṇḍārā and appeared in the suburbs of Nāgpūr. The Bhosle's officers Siddik Ali Khān and Māljī Ahirrāv were finally able to force them to retreat[2]. It was Lord Hastings who exterminated the *Peṇḍhāris* by conducting an all-out campaign against them.

During the Bhosle-English wars the *Navāb* of Bhopāḷ had taken Huśaṅgābād and Śivaṇī from the Bhosles. In 1807 Raghujī sent his army and captured Cainpurvāḍī and Cāṅkigaḍ of the Bhopāḷ territory. Later he entered into an agreement with the Śindes for a concerted attack on Bhopāḷ. The two armies besieged Bhopāḷ fort in 1814. But Raghujī withdrew his forces when the *Navāb* of Bhopāḷ asked for British help.[3]

Sambalpūr and Pāṭṇā were granted back to Raghujī in 1806.

After the battle of Āḍgāṅv Raghujī was being persuaded to accept the subsidiary alliance. Jenkins, who succeeded Mount Stuart Elphinstone as the resident of Nāgpūr, once again appealed to Raghujī that he should allow the stationing of the British army at Nāgpūr. But Raghujī skillfully avoided all such appeals. In 1811 when the *Peṇḍhāris* burnt some wards of Nāgpūr city Raghujī asked for British help, but it was refused as Raghujī was not willing to enter subsidiary alliance.

In 1801-02, on the occasion of the *Sinhastha Parvaṇi* Raghujī with the members of his family had been to Dharmapuri on the bank of the Godāvari for a bath.[4]

[1] NPI., pp. 361-62.
[2] *Ibid*, pp. 373—75.
[3] NPI., pp. 377-78.
[4] *Ibid*, p. 308.

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MARATHA PERIOD.

Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

Raghuji Bhosle II, 1775—1816.

Raghuji's relations with his brother Vyaṅkojī *alias* Manyābāpū were not happy. Manyabapū enjoyed the title of *Senadhurandhar*. He was brave and adventurous. He died at Kāśī in 1811.[1]

Mr. Colebrooke the great Sanskṛt scholar, who was deputed to Nagpūr as an envoy in 1799, has left a lively description of Raghuji. Raghuji lived in a spacious palace surrounded by gardens. The palace had six quadrangles or *cauks* each of which had a three-storeyed structure. The drawing hall in the palace was well decorated with chandeliers and pictures. The hall which was meant for the *Raja* had beautiful carving. The garden around the palace had good roads enclosed by fencing.

Raghujī was not fond of pomposity either in dress or manners. He was sweet-tongued and behaved in a friendly manner even with his subordinates. He was, however, careful in maintaining the decorum and discipline of the *darbār*. During leisure hours all were entertained by singing and dancing. Raghujī was fond of hunting, so much so that when a tiger was reported in the neighbourhood he often hastened to the place with his party leaving the office work. He, however, never neglected administrative duty. Śridhar Lakṣman Munśī and Kṛṣṇarāv Citaṇis were the most trusted courtiers of Raghujī.

The *Dasarā* festival during Raghujī's reign was a brilliant spectacle displaying his grandeur and glory.[2]

Raghujī loved his kith and kin and was extremely fond of children. Bakabai was his favourite queen. He was pious and devoted to his mother. But Raghujī lacked quick decision and courage. In the war with the English he often left his fighting forces. He was willing to wound yet afraid to strike. In diplomacy he was no match for the contemporary Englishmen with whom he was required to deal.

After the treaty of Devagāṅv, Raghujī, it seems, was in financial difficulties. His anxiety for wealth grew with age bringing him into disrepute. He was nicknamed the big *baniya* for the methods he used in collecting money. Raghujī who had the good fortune of witnessing the glory of the Bhosle house at its zenith was also destined to see its decline. He died on 22nd March 1816.

Parasoji Bhosle, 1816—1817.

Raghujī II was succeeded by his son Parasojī in 1816. Parasojī was paralytic, blind and mentally deranged. His father's efforts to improve him proved fruitless. Bakābāi, Parasojī's step-mother brought him to her palace and took charge of the administration with the help of Dharmājī Bhosle, Nārobā Citaṇis and Gajābādādā-Gujar. Dharmājī was an illegitimate son of Raghujī and was the custodian of the royal jewellery and treasury.

Next to Parasojī the only other claimant to the Nāgpūr *gādī* was Āppāsāheb Bhosle. He was a smart young man having support of many courtiers, as Parasojī was practically insane.

[1] NPI., p. 386.

[2] NPI., pp. 312—14.

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MARATHA PERIOD.

Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

Parasoji Bhosle, 1816—1817.

Rāmcandra Vāgh and Māṇbhaṭ were prominent among his chief supporters. They were trying to seduce the partisans of Parasojī. Thus after the death of Raghujī, Nāgpūr Court had two factions, one headed by Āppāsāheb and the other led by Bakābāi, Dharmājī and others with Parasojī on the ancestral *gādī*.

Āppāsāheb had no claim over the *gādī* as Parasojī was the son of Raghujī. The army was under the command of Dharmājī, Siddik Ali Khān and Gajābādādā. Āppāsāheb impressed upon the courtiers that it was not desirable that Dharmājī, a bastard, should manage the affairs of the Bhosle house. The resident Mr. Jenkins was secretly backing Āppāsāheb as he was counting upon him to accept the subsidiary alliance which Raghujī had been carefully avoiding all through his life. When Siddik Ali Khān smelt this, his loyalty to Parasojī and Bakābāi wavered. He sat on the fence ready to jump to the side of the winning party. Āppāsāheb called Dharmājī for a meeting on 11th April, 1816 and got him arrested. He took possession of the *Rājā* and his treasury. Without any further loss of time Āppāsāheb ceremoniously performed the coronation for Parasojī. He personally held the *cauri* over Parasojī's head and walked barefooted in the procession taken out in honour of the *Rājā*. A grand *darbār* was held in which the *Rājā* was made to proclaim the appointment of Āppāsāheb as his regent. Mr. Jenkins graced the occasion by his presence, lending stability to Āppāsāheb.

Dharmājī was murdered on 5-5-1816[1]. Āppāsāheb's evil intention of occupying power for himself was thus finally fulfilled. He entered the subsidiary alliance with the English on 28-5-1816, bartering away the independent status of Nāgpūr which Raghujī II had maintained with great difficulty. The important terms of this alliance were—

(1) For the protection of Nāgpūr the English were to maintain six platoons of foot-soldiers and one of cavalry. The king was to pay seven and a half lacs of rupees for the maintenance of this force.

(2) The king was to grant territory worth this amount in case of his failure to pay it.

(3) The king too was to keep a contingent force of 3,000 soldiers and 2,000 horses at his own expense, to be supervised by the Resident in respect of its pay, discipline, provision, etc.

(4) All foreign affairs should be conducted only through the English Resident.

(5) The king should not engage in wars with the friends of the English.[2]

This alliance was brought about through Āppāsāheb's envoys Nāgojīpant and Nārāyaṇ Paṇḍitjī. The former received an annual pension of Rs. fifteen thousand from the English for his successful mediation.

[1] NPI., p. 397.

[2] NPI., p. 399.

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Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

Parasojī Bhosle, 1816—1817.

Part of the English subsidiary force moved from Ellicpur to Nāgpūr under General Dovetone and the rest was stationed at Kaḷameśvar near Nāgpūr to strengthen Āppāsāheb's position. Afraid of the machinations of the rival party Āppasaheb left the palace and took residence in the Telankhedī Garden.

On the morning of 1-2-1817 Parasojī was found dead in his bed. Āppāsāheb was out of station. It was rumoured that Āppāsāheb managed to throttle Parasojī to death by seducing his body-guards Sādikmanu *Bhaldar* and Jānu Bansod. The Resident absolved Āppāsāheb of the murder charge which was thickly rumoured at this time, but later, when he tried to break the bonds of subsidiary alliance he was conveniently made the culprit[1].

Āppāsāheb Bhosle, 1817—1818.

After Parasojī's death, Āppāsāheb being the only heir to the Nāgpūr *gādī* his succession ceremonies were gone through quietly on 21st April 1817. The moment Āppāsāheb assumed charge of Nāgpūr he began to feel the weight of British supremacy which he had accepted by the subsidiary alliance. His efforts hereafter were directed to overthrow the British yoke. The Resident suspected that Āppāsāheb was in contact with Bājīrāv *Peśvā* and the Śindes. The agents of one of the *Peṇḍhāri* leaders Ciṭṭū were openly honoured in the *darbār* by presenting dress. As a precautionary measure Col. Adams was asked to move his force to the south of the Narmadā to meet any emergency. Similarly, Scott left Rāmṭek for Nāgpūr. It was in this atmosphere that Āppāsāheb decided to receive the robes of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā*, formally, from Bājīrāv *Peśvā*; 24th November 1817 was decided as the day for receiving the robes in the *darbār*. Āppāsāheb invited the Resident for this ceremony. But the latter declined it as war had broken out with the *Peśvā* in Pooṇā, and informed Āppāsāheb that he should not receive the honours from the enemy of the British. In spite of this opposition Āppāsāheb received the robes and the title in the *darbār*. This was considered as a breach of the subsidiary treaty by the Resident and a war with Āppāsāheb seemed imminent[2].

Like Bājīrāv, Āppāsāheb too wanted to free himself from the shackles of the subsidiary treaty. He was helped in this task by Mānbhaṭ, Rāmcandra Vāgh, *Subhedār* Nimbāḷkar and Nārāyaṇ Nagāre. Āppāsāheb's Arab soldiers occupied a position between the city and Sitābuḷḍi. He had a total force of 18 thousand men and 26 guns while the English force numbered only 1,800.

Having come to know the movements of the Marāṭhā army, the Resident ordered Lt. Col. Scott to occupy the Sitābuḷḍī hills. Scott had two battalions of Madrās Native infantry, two companies of Native infantry and three troops of Bengal Cavalry. He was equipped with four six-pounder guns. Strategically the Marāṭhās committed the first blunder in allowing Scott to occupy the hills.

[1] NPI., pp. 403-404.

[2] NPI., p. 408.

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Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

Āppāsāheb Bhosle, 1817—1818.

The *Rājā's* palace was in the present Mahāl area which was protected by the Śukravār *daravājā*. This was the fort.

The English had taken shelter in the Tuḷśibāg, about the 24th December 1817.

The English residency was situated to the west of the Sitābuḷḍī Fort, i.e., on the site of the present Nāgpūr Mahāvidyālaya. The English had their treasury to the west of the smaller hill of the two Sitābuḷḍī hills. The southern hill spreads from east to west and is the bigger one. The smaller one is to the north. The two hills roughly rise above the ground to a height of hundred feet and are separated by the same distance[1].

Peace talks were in progress when both the sides were preparing for war simply to gain time. On the evening of 26th November 1817, the Arabs of Āppāsāheb opened fire on the smaller hill. He sent a message to the Resident saying that this had been done against his orders. Āppāsāheb throughout this war was wavering making the position of his loyal supporters like Mānbhaṭ most awkward. It is possible that the mercenary Arabs might have acted on their own without waiting for the orders of their master but this speaks for Āppāsāheb's lack of leadership. Āppāsāheb, after his defeat, pleaded that his Arabs opened fire at the order of Mānbhaṭ[2].

The fire of the Arabs was well replied by the English guns on the hills. Captain Lloyd was in charge of the bigger hill. Captain Sadler was killed by a shot while he was defending the small hill. On the morning of 27th the Bhosle's forces approached the hill. The smaller hill was attacked and occupied. The English were in a confused state. The Arabs were preparing to launch an attack on the bigger hill. The English would have lost the battle but for the brave and spirited attack of Captain Fitzgerald. Fitzgerald's determined onslaught pushed the Marāṭhās back and they broke in all directions. This infused new spirit in the English soldiers who were drooping from fatigue. A combined attack of the cavalry and infantry finally won the day for the English[3].

It was Mānbhaṭ and his Arabs who really fought well bringing victory within easy reach for the Marāṭhās[4]. But lack of concerted action and Āppāsāheb's vacillation were mainly responsible for the defeat of the Marāṭhās. Āppāsāheb in order to save himself pleaded to the Resident that all was done by Mānbhaṭ without his orders. Bakābāi too towed his line. Thus, in war, Āppāsāheb proved to be a coward and in defeat acted most disgracefully. Mānbhaṭ, Rāmcandra Vāgh, Gaṇpatrāv *Subhedār* and their supporters were against any talk of peace. When Doveton was preparing to attack the city, Āppāsāheb walked into the protection

[1] NPI., pp. 411—13.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 417.

[3] NPI., p. 422.

[4] *Ibid*, p. 423.

of the Resident on 16-12-1817, at about 9 o'clock in the morning[1]. The masterless Marāṭhās fought one more battle known as the battle of Sakkardarā, only to lose[2]. Manbhaṭ with his Arabs and North Indian soldiers totalling 5,000, defended the city from behind the fort.

But he was helpless when the Arabs in a divided state of mind were seduced by the English. They left Nagpūr on the 30th when the arrears of their pay were cleared. The Union Jack was hoisted on the old palace of the Bhosles on the same day. Poor Mānbhaṭ was arrested and later died in prison[3].

Āppāsāheb signed a treaty on 6-1-1818 with the English in which he was bound by terms stricter than those of the subsidiary alliance. The terms of the treaty were:—

1. Āppāsāheb was to surrender the forts of Gāvilgaḍ, Narnāḷā and the territory attached to them, along with the states of Sirgujā and Jaspūr.
2. The civil and military administration of Nagpūr was to be conducted through the Resident.
3. Āppāsāheb was to stay in Nāgpūr under the supervision of the Resident.
4. Āppāsāheb was to pay the arrears of pay of the subsidiary army.
5. He was to surrender any fort which might be asked for by the English.
6. He should hand over all those who acted against his order in the war.
7. The Sitābuldī hills were to be surrendered to the English along with the neighbouring area they might ask for[4].

This sealed the fate of Āppāsāheb as also of Nāgpūr once for all.

These terms of the treaty were ratified by the Governor General.

With the surrender of Āppāsāheb Bhosle the outlying posts of Jubbulpore, the forts of Śivanī, Dhiruḍ (south-east of Nāgpūr), Gāvilgaḍ, Cauragaḍ, Narnāḷā and Maṇḍlā fell to the English without much resistance. The fort of Maṇḍlā which was protected by the river Narmadā offered resistance for some-time. But when its keeper Rāyā Hajārī ran away the beleaguered force numbering 1,100 surrendered.[5]

After his surrender, Āppāsāheb was reinstated on his ancestral *gādī* and allowed to stay in the palace. For three months things appeared to move smoothly. On 19th February 1818 Bāpū Gokhale the last great general of Bājīrāv fell fighting in

[1] *Ibid*, pp. 428-29.
[2] *Ibid*, p. 430.
[3] NPI., p. 434.
[4] *Ibid*, pp. 435-36.
[5] NPI., pp. 438-44.

the battle of Aṣṭā. Bājīrāv lost all hope of regaining his position and took to heels begging for help till his surrender to Malcolm. During his flight he was at Vāśim for a while and then camped at Pāṇḍhārkavaḍā. He was accompanied by Gaṇpatrāv *Subhedār* one of the generals of Āppāsāheb. It was rumoured that Bājīrāv would be joined by Āppāsāheb and both would march to Cāndā which was yet in the hands of its keeper Gaṅgāsiṅgh. Jenkin's suspicion that Āppāsāheb was in correspondence with Bājīrāv was strengthened when a letter from Āppāsāheb to Bājīrāv was intercepted by Elphinstone and sent to him[1]. He at once arrested Āppāsāheb on 15-3-1818. Āppāsāheb along with Rāmcandra Vāgh and Nāgopant was sent to Prayāg, as his presence in Nāgpūr was considered dangerous.

The fort of Cāndā fell on 30th May 1818. Its keeper Gaṅgāsiṅgh fought desperately till he fell dead along with his trusted followers[2].

On his way to Prayāg Āppāsāheb escaped from the English camp at Rāicur on 13-5-1818. Hereafter began the long flight of Āppāsāheb.

Āppāsāheb took shelter in the Mahādev hills of Madhya Pradeś and was helped by Mohansiṅg Ṭhākūr of Pañcmaḍhi and Cain Śāh of Harāi. A few petty Goṇḍ Kings too supported Āppāsāheb in his last days. The English forces under Adams, MacMorin and Scott combed out the Hills and arrested the Goṇḍ leaders. Mohansiṅg and Cain Śāh were taken into custody. Āppāsāheb made good for the fort of Aśirgaḍ, the gateway of the Deccan, on 1st February 1819. He was escorted by the *Peṇḍhārī* leader Citṭu and his followers. Āppāsāheb was received into the fort by Yaśvantrāv Lāḍ, its keeper. The fort was yet in the possession of the Śindes. It was admirably suited for defence. The English moved their men and material from Māḷvā, Pooṇā, Nāgpūr and Hyderābād. Prior to the surrender of the fort on 9th April of 1819, Āppāsāheb had escaped towards Khairi Ghāṭ to the north-west of Aśirgad and taken shelter with a Brāhmin at Burhānpūr. From there Āppāsāheb travelled through the territory of the Śindes, Hoḷkars, Jaipūr and Jodhpūr begging for asylum and took shelter for sometime with Raṇjit Sing. The *Rājā* of Maṇḍī gave Āppāsāheb protection for a short time. Finally Āppāsāheb was found with the *Rājā of* Jodhpūr. The *Rājā* refused to hand over Āppāsāheb to the English in keeping with the chivalrous traditions of the Rajputs. In 1829 Āppāsāheb's wandering career came to an end and he spent the remaining part of his life as a guest-*cum*-royal prisoner at the court of Jodhpūr. He died in 1840[3].

During his luckless days Āppāsāheb desperately moved from court to court begging for help. But he was too late. Had he shown sufficient courage and determination in the battle of

[1] *Ibid*, p. 445.
[2] NPI., p. 473.
[3] NPI., p. 465.

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Bhosles of Nāgpūr.

Āppāsāheb Bhosle, 1817–1818.

Sitabuldi the chances of success were brighter. He let down his honest supporters like Manbhaṭ and Ramcandra Vāgh. In expecting aid from Bajirav, Āppāsāheb was leaning on a reed. After his confinement at Jodhpūr nobody seems to have been really sorry for the unfortunate Āppasāheb. In his flight his wife Umabai supplied him money secretly. His other wife Savitribai who was enjoying a pension at Nāgpūr did not go to him even after she came to know of his stay at Jodhpūr.[1]

Raghujī III. 1818–1853.

When Āppāsāheb was arrested the Resident Mr. Jenkins decided to adopt Bajibā, the son of Banubai, as the successor to the Bhosle *gādī*. Banubāi was the daughter of Raghujī II. The adoption ceremony was performed on 26-6-1818 and Bajibā was renamed Raghujī III. He was then only ten years old. It was the Resident who took the entire administration into his own hands during the minority of Raghujī III. Bakābai was to look after the palace affairs. Her ambition to rule may be said to have been fulfilled at least partly. Prior to his retirement the Resident held a grand *darbār* and read out the terms of the treaty with Raghujī III on 1-12-1826. It was ratified by the Governor General on 13-12-1826.

The terms of the treaty were—

(1) The terms of this treaty which were not contradictory to the subsidiary alliance of 1816 were accepted by the *Rājā*.

(2) The *Rājā* was not to have any relationship with the other Maratha States. He was to retain the title of *Senā-saheb-Subha* but was to relinquish the honours connected with it.

(3) The *Rājā* should give to the English territory worth Rs. 7.5 lacs for the maintenance of the subsidiary force. He was hereafter not required to keep the contingent force as decided previously by the subsidiary alliance of 1816. The English promised to continue the *rāj* in the house of the Bhosles perpetually.

(4) The *rāj* was given over to the King as he had come of age.

(5) Cāndā, Devagaḍ, the territory up the Ghāṭs, Lāñjī and Chattisgaḍ were to be under the English along with the feudatories of these regions. The *Rājā* was to receive Rs. 17 lacs from these territories after deducting the expenses. The *Rājā* was to rule over Nāgpūr and the rest of the territory.

(6) the *Rājā* should act on the advice of the English in respect of the appointment of officials, the *Rājā's* privy purse and the laws of the territory. The English had the right to inspect the King's treasury and the accounts of his kingdom.

(7) In the event of maladministration the English were free to appoint their own officers and manage things.

(8) The English were free to take over Sitābuldī or any other fort they required.

[1] *Ibid*, p. 466.

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Bhosle of Nāgpūr.

Raghujī III, 1818–1853.

Mr. Jenkins gave charge of his office to Captain Hamilton on 29-12-1826 and proceeded to Bombay for further journey.[1]

Jenkins deserves praise for the peace and good administration he gave to the Bhosle *rāj* during his ten years career. He was able to turn the deficit of the kingdom into a surplus treasury. His treatment of the Bhosles was far more considerate than the one meted out to the *Peśvās* by Malcolm. He could have easily annexed Nāgpūr to the British territory had he meant so.

Jenkins took care to educate Raghujī III. Raghujī was introduced to the 'Three R.'s' and had working knowledge of Persian and Marāṭhī though he had no inclination for learning.[2] In the early part of his royal career Raghujī took keen interest in administrative matters but later neglected them. He loved music and dancing and later indulged in gambling to the neglect of his duties. He was addicted to drinking and during his last illness he drank desperately. Apart from these personal vices Raghujī was on the whole a just and good administrator. He was a popular King.

Raghujī was not blessed by progeny though he had in all eight wives. He had one son who died in infancy after whom he probably did not get any issue. He does not seem to have cared for his successor. He probably considered his being without a son as a blemish and left the question of succession to its own fate. This, however, proved to be detrimental to the Bhosle House as is borne by facts. Raghujī was not on good terms with Resident Mansel. This might have adversely affected the succession question.

Raghujī had been to Kāśī, Gayā and other holy places on a pilgrimage in 1838. He was accompanied by Captain Fitzgerald with his Madrās contingent. Raghujī died at the age of 47 after a long illness of 25 days on 11th December 1853. His obsequies were performed by his nephew Nānā Ahirarāv and it was decided to adopt his son Yaśavantrāv as the next successor.[3]

Annexation of Nāgpūr.

The question of adoption to the Nāgpūr *gādī* was discussed thrice prior to the death of Raghujī III. In 1837 the Resident Mr. Cavendish stated that Raghujī III had no right to adopt as his territory had been conquered by the British and given back to him and his sons. In the absence of an heirapparent or a posthumous child, therefore, the *Rājā's* kingdom should escheat or lapse to the British. The views of Resident Wilkinson were in favour of Raghujī. In 1840 he opined that Raghujī or after his death his queen had the right to adopt a son as successor to the *gādī*. The case of Nāgpūr was in no way different from that of Gwālior or Hyderābād. Actually, according to the treaty of 1826, when Mr. Jenkins was the Resident, the British had promised to continue the *rāj* of the Bhosles in perpetuity. But this term was very conveniently set aside and the Court of Directors in England concurring with the views of Lord

[1] NPI., pp. 486—88.
[2] *Ibid*, p. 482.
[3] NPI., pp. 507—08.

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Annexation of Nāgpūr.

Dalhousie, the Governor-General, ordered that "it had been determined on grounds, both of right and policy, to incorporate the State of Nāgpūr with the British territories"[1]. Mr. Mansel, the then Resident, had suggested that Nagpūr should be annexed. The fateful decision of the Court of Directors was proclaimed by Lord Dalhousie, and Mr. Mansel was ordered to take charge of Nagpūr as the first Commissioner. He started working in this capacity from 13th March 1854.

Bakābāi, the favourite queen of Raghuji II, and the queens of Raghuji III were informed of this proclamation. There was no popular agitation against this unjust decision of the British, though the late king Raghuji III was liked by his subjects. There was, however, sorrow and resentment among the Brāhmins and the Marāṭhās of Nagpūr as is witnessed by the two posters which were stuck on the wall of Jagruteśvar temple. One of the posters expressed anxiety regarding the very existence of the Hindu State after the death of Raghuji and called upon all the Brāhmins to attend the *abhiseka* and *japa* (recitation of God's name) which were being performed in the temple of Jāgruteśvar in the city. Those not attending were considered as bastards.

The other poster condemned Dādobā Śirke, a relation of the Bhosles, who helped the British in the annexation of Nāgpūr.[2]

These posters have their own value but they cannot be taken as expressive of popular view. Colonel Low, a member of the Governor-General's council, who was against the annexation of Nāgpūr wrote that the people in the *raj* of the Bhosles were very much tired of their rule and would be happy under the British. Mr. Mansel, the Resident, in his report says that the annexation of Nāgpūr *raj* would cause great sorrow to all those who are connected with it, but the general public to whom the Marāṭhās were foreigners would desire to be relieved from their troublesome rule. This state of affairs has got to be taken into account in studying the history of Nāgpūr after its annexation.

The unjust annexation of Nāgpūr was followed by the highhanded confiscation of the private treasure of the Bhosle family. Popular estimate placed the value of the treasure between Rs. 50 lacs and Rs. 75 lacs.[3] On July 15th, 1854, the Resident's Assistant informed the *rāṇīs* that they would be pensioned and with the exception of a small portion of their jewellery their property would be seized on behalf of the Government. The strong protests of Bakābāi and others were of no avail. By the end of October 1854, 136 bags of treasure were removed from the palace to the British treasury. The palace animals were sold by public auction and part of the jewellery was sent to Calcuttā where Messrs. Hamilton and Company were appointed as auctioneers.[4]

[1] HFM., p. 45.
[2] HFM., pp. 46, 47.
[3] *Ibid*, p. 49.
[4] *Ibid*, p. 52.

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Annexation of Nāgpūr.

This loot of the private property of the Bhosles under the garb of law deeply wounded the feelings of Bakābāi and the widows of Raghuji III, and caused great excitement among the citizens of Nagpūr.

Parvatrav and Jamāluddin who helped the Resident in this arbitrary act became targets of mob fury. The latter was beaten. Mr. Hislop the well-known missionary of Nāgpūr was mistaken for an officer and manhandled.

From the sales of the confiscated property of the royal family, the Bhosle Fund was formed. This was to be utilised for the pensions of the relatives of the royal family.

Pensions sanctioned for the members of the royal family were as follows:—

	Rs.
Bakābāi	1,20,000
Annapurṇābāi (the eldest queen) ...	50,000
Other queens ...	25,000 each
Sāvitribāi (wife of Āpāsāheb) ...	10,000
Others	20,000
The Goṇḍ Rājā of Nāgpūr ...	1,25,000
(The pension he enjoyed in the past was continued).[1]	

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Bakābāi tried to represent her case directly to Calcuttā pointing out that she herself and the *rāṇīs* of the late king had expressed their desire to adopt a son, but the Resident completely changed their case and sent it up while he always promised them that he would look to their interest. Bāpū Haṇmantrāv, the envoy of Bakābāi, was asked to send the case through the Commissioner of Nāgpūr. Later, Bakābāi sent her envoys to England to meet the members of the Board of Directors. But she withdrew her case and called back her envoys fearing that this might result in the displeasure of the Commissioner. Bakābāi died on 7-9-1858 at Nāgpūr at the age of seventy seven.

Prior to her death Bakābāi arranged the adoption of Yaśvantrāv, the son of Nānā Ahirrāv, as the next successor in 1855. Yaśvantrāv was renamed as Jānojī. Final sanction to this adoption was received in 1861 during the Viceroyalty of Lord Canning. An annual pension of Rs. 1,20,000 was sanctioned for Jānojī and the title 'Rājā-Bahādur of Devur' was conferred on him. The pension was subject to revision after Jānojī's death but the title was to continue in the family perpetually. Jānojī II died in 1881.

[1] NPI., p. 521.

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History.

MARATHA PERIOD.

Nāgpūr during the Revolt of 1857.

What happened in 1857 in India has been variously described by historians as the Revolt of 1857, the Sepoy Mutiny, 1857, and the War of Independence. The last view that it was a War of Independence is borne by the fact that it was an attempt to overthrow the Government of the East India Company which was well-established in India. The attempt was sufficiently widespread. Any attempt to overthrow an established Government is recognised as War of Independence. By virtue of this definition, what happened in 1857 can be considered as the War of Independence.

There was certainly favourable background for an uprising in Nāgpūr as the memories of annexation of the *raj* of the Bhosles, confiscation of their jewellery and public auctioning of their palace property were yet fresh in the public mind. The question of adoption to the Nāgpūr *gādi* was kept pending as late as 1861.

The Nāgpūr army and the people learnt with excitement the happenings at Meerut, Delhi, Lucknow, Kānpūr and Jhānśī. The irregular cavalry at Ṭakḷi, about three miles from Nāgpūr was much agitated by the news of the risings. It consisted mostly of Muslims who were disturbed by the recent Government proposal to shift their burial place from the vicinity of the city to an outside spot. In co-operation with some civilians they seem to have hatched a plot. On 13th June at the signal of a fire-balloon it was decided to attack the Residency. But the plot leaked out and failed. Mr. Plowden, the Commissioner, who had known about the plot ordered a company of the Sitābuḷḍi regiment to move into the city. The irregular cavalry at Ṭakḷi was dismayed by this action and gave up the attempt of attack. Major Arrow tried to elicit information from the soldiers about the ring-leaders. But none came forward to give out the names. From Kāmpṭee and Nāgpūr arms numbering over 5,000 were collected from unauthorised persons as a precautionary measure. After an enquiry of the plot Dildār Khān, *Dafādār* of the army, and Ināyatullā Khān, Vilāyat Khān and *Navāb* Kādar Khān of the irregular cavalry were tried and executed.

Bakābāi during the troubled period summoned all her relations, Brāhmins, *Sardārs*, Marāṭhās and Muslims numbering between 400 and 500 and dissuaded them with threats from any action against the company's Government. This completely chilled the spirit of the public. In 1858, Tātyā Ṭope's presence was reported in the Melghāṭ. He looted Multāi. There was no response or agitation in Nāgpūr. Thus, all was quiet in Nāgpūr when Nānā *Peśvā*, *Rāṇī* of Zhānśī and Tātyā Ṭope were desperately fighting against the British.

Nāgpūr Administration under Bhosles.

By about 1737 A.D., Raghujī I received one-third of the Devagad kingdom from *Rāṇi* Ratan Kuvar for the help he rendered her in the fratricidal war. Shortly after this he shifted his capital from Bhām in Berār to Nāgpūr and in 1748 the whole of Devagaḍ kingdom came under his sway. He removed the sons of *Rāṇī* Ratan Kuvar, Akbar Śāh and Burhān Śāh to Nāgpūr under his care.

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MARATHA PERIOD.

Nāgpūr Administration under Bhosles.

Thus, in 1748 A.D. Raghujī assumed direct charge of the whole of Devagaḍ kingdom, though by a formal *sanad* the *cauthāi* and *mokāsā* of Devagaḍ and Cāndā of *Prant* Goṇḍvana were granted to him by *Chatrapati* Śāhū much earlier.

Raghujī's new administrative set-up in Nāgpūr forming part of Devagaḍ below the *ghāts* was more or less a prototype of the system common in other parts of the Marāṭhā country.

When Raghujī I was offered the robes of *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* he first proceeded to Berār and then to Nāgpūr, and was accompanied by a number of experienced officials of the *Rājamaṇḍal* recommended by Śāhū. The officials going with Raghujī to Nāgpūr were assigned important posts.

1. Kānher Rām *Mujumdār* was to be the *Divāṇ* of Raghujī.
2. Rakhamājī Gaṇeś Raṇadive, was appointed as the Secretary—*Citṇavis*.
3. Narasiṅgrāv Cimājī Prabhu was to work as assistant to Rakhamājī Gaṇeś, the *Citṇavis*.
4. Bhāskar Rām was placed in charge of the army.
5. Śaṅkarājī Rakhamājī became the *Potnis* and was also in charge of the *Jāmdārkhānā* and the Stores.
6. Mahādajī Prabhu was to act as the *Phaḍṇavis*, i.e., the Secretary for finances.

7 and 8. Vyaṅkājīpant and Rāghopant were appointed as *Bakṣi*—Paymaster of the army.

9. Anantbhaṭ Citaḷe became the *Śikkenavis* or Keeper of the Seal.
10. *Vedamurti* Viśvambhar Vaidya was to help Rakhamājī Gaṇeś, the *Citṇavis*[1].

These posts assigned to different persons shed light on the principal structure of Nāgpūr administration. Śāhū's intention in sending his own men with Raghujī was to help him to carry on the administration of Nāgpūr successfully and at the same time to keep an effective check over Raghujī. However, the aim of keeping central control over the distant noblemen was not so successful. It depended upon the personality of the *Chatrapati*. After Śāhū's death the central authority of the *Chatrapati* remained only in name and the Marāṭhā *Sardārs* tried to be independent within their own territories. This is borne out by the serious differences which existed between the *Peśvās* and the Bhosles from the beginning to the end.

The *Divāṇ* was the chief minister of the Bhosles and represented them in all the matters of the State. He was sometimes addressed as the *Kārabhārī*. The word *Kārabhārī* in addition to being synonymous with *Divāṇ* means a manager. Its use in this sense shows how the *Divāṇ* or the *Kārabhārī* was all-in-all.

[1] NBB., pp. 43-44.

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Nāgpūr Administration under Bhosles.

The *Citṇavis* was the General Secretary. This office continued to be in the family of Rakhamajī Gaṇeś throughout the reign of the Bhosles. The duties of the *Citṇavis* were:—

(i) to carry on the private correspondence of the *Rājā*;

(ii) to issue all kinds of orders *adnyapatra* and *takidpatra*;

(iii) to issue permits and tax-free passes and to prepare the same;

(iv) to date all important letters.

In addition, the *Citṇavis* tendered advice to the *Rajā* on all diplomatic matters. By his very office, Secretaryship, he was closely associated with the ruling Bhosle.

For the loyal services of Rakhamajī Gaṇeś, Raghujī I gave him Varambh in the Umreḍ tahsil of Nāgpūr district as *inam* in perpetuity[1].

Bhāskar Rām was Raghujī's General. He distinguished himself in the Bengal expeditions of Raghujī I. He, however, does not seem to have the entire army of Raghujī under his command. There were for instance other noblemen like Raghujī Karāṇḍe, Ānandrāv Vāgh, Bābājī Ghāṭge, Zuñjārarāv and Sambhajī Śirke having armies under their own command and themselves being directly responsible to Raghujī.

The *Potnis* was in charge of the treasury, royal jewellery and valuables, and stores. He was to credit to the treasury presents—*Najarāṇā*, tribute-*peśkaṣ*, etc., and maintain the accounts.

The *Phaḍṇavis* was the Secretary of the Finances, and the *Bakṣi* the Paymaster of the army. The *Śikkenavis* was the Keeper of the Seal of the Bhosles. He was to put the seal on all important State documents.

The office of the *Munśī*, the Secretary for Foreign Affairs, seems to have been created by the later Bhosles. He was usually well-versed in Persian and transacted all the correspondence in that language.

Sometimes two offices were combined in one person as in the case of Bhavāni Kāḷo who was in charge of the army but also acted as the *Divāṇ*[2].

The *Subhedār* of the *Subhā* or the province held military as well as civil command within the *subhā*. These officers held *jāgīrs* for their services.

The *Varhāḍpāṇḍe* was responsible for land revenue.

The Marāṭhā noblemen were known as *Mānkaris* and were directly responsible to the *Rājā*. There were no hard and fast rules regarding the duties attached to a particular office. For instance, Divākarpant Corghaḍe, who was the *Divān*, also acted as the ambassador of the Bhosles to the East India Company. The *Subhedār* in a distant province like Kaṭak, similarly, acted in various capacities as the man on the spot.

[1] From the unpublished papers of Śrimant Rājā Bāḷāsāheb Citṇavis of Nāgpūr.
[2] NPI, p. 285.

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MARATHA PERIOD.

Nagpur Administration under Bhosles.

The Bhosles held their *darbār*—court in an open varandah. They sat on the throne with the sword and the shield placed in front. Ministers and Military officers attended the *darbār*. All business which required the *Rājā's* attention was openly transacted here. The *Rājā* was accessible to the people, he heard their grievances and redressed the wrongs.

The revenue office took cognizance of civil and criminal cases, while the *pāṭīl* or the village headman decided cases requiring minor magisterial powers. In important cases the appeal rested with the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* who decided them in the open *darbār* after consulting the proper authorities.

The Bhosle administration was direct and efficient though inelegant. It was free from burdensome mannerism and less paper-ridden than that of the *Peśvās*.

The *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* was not an absolute ruler. Constitutionally he was accountable to the *Chatrapatī* and the *Peśvā*. The younger brothers of the *Senā-Sāheb-Subhā* were assigned territories wherein they were more or less independent. Mudhojī, the younger brother of Jānojī Bhosle was given Cāndā and the title of *Senā-Dhurandar*. The two other younger brothers Bimbājī and Sābājī were posted at Chattisgaḍ and Dārvā respectively. Other relations of the Bhosles too were given important assignments.

The army of the Bhosles consisted of the foot-soldiers, the cavalry, artillery and elephants.

The details of the cavalry given by Forster, the first Resident of Nāgpūr (1788—1791) are as follows:—

2,000	*Bārgir* (directly paid by the Bhosles for the maintenance of the horse).
4,700	Cavalry under the *Śiledārs*.
300	Cavalry of the *Jāgirdār* of Śivaṇī.
2,000	Cavalry in Kaṭak *subhā*.
1,500	Cavalry in Gaṅgthaḍī.
10,500	Total Cavalry of the Bhosles.
200	Elephants.
15	Cannon pieces manufactured in Nāgpūr, under the command of a Portuguese and a French[1].

The cavalry of the Bhosles was known for its speed and efficiency. After the death of Raghujī I, the army of the Bhosles became heterogeneous in an increasing proportion. In the Battle of Sitābuḷḍī, Mānbhaṭ was in command of the Arab contingent.

[1] NPI., p. 289.

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Nagpur Administration under Bhosles.

The income of the Bhosles from different provinces during the Residency of Forster was:—

		Rs. in lacs.
Nāgpūr	...	18
Berār 1/2 income	...	10
Gaṅgthaḍī	...	2
Kaṭak	...	17
Ratanpūr	...	3
Multāi	...	2
Other items	...	7
	Total	—59

Out of this income, Rs. 16 lacs were spent in the following manner[1]:—

		Rs. in lacs.
Burhān Śāh, the Goṇḍ *Rājā* for his maintenance	...	3
Jāgirdār of Śivaṇī	...	3
For the expenditure of the army in Berār	...	3
For the expenditure of the army in Kaṭak	...	7
	Total	—16

In 1800 A.D. the Bhosles received highest revenue as the territory under them was at its maximum:—

		Rs. in lacs.
1. Devagaḍ including Nāgpūr	...	30
2. Gaḍha-Maṇḍlā	...	14
3. Huśaṅgābād, Śivaṇī-Māḷvā and Caurāgaḍ	...	7
4. Multāi	...	2
5. 1/2 revenue of Berār and revenue of Gāvilgaḍ, Narnāḷā, etc.	...	30
6. Orissā and the feudatory states	...	17
7. Candrapūr or Cāndā	...	5
8. Chattisgaḍ and the feudatory states	...	6
	Total	—111

[1] NPI., pp. 289, 302.

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MODERN PERIOD.

1858 to 1885.

After the annexation of the kingdom of the Bhosles, Resident Mansel was appointed as the first Commissioner of Nāgpūr on 13-3-1854. The English directly assumed the administration of Nāgpūr in which they had been taking keen interest for their own political gains since the treaty of Devagāṅv. The Central Provinces were formed into a new administrative unit in 1861, comprising Nāgpūr, Cāndā, Bhaṇḍārā, Chindavāḍā, Rāipūr (Chattisgaḍ), Sirońjā with their dependencies Bastār and Kuroṇḍā—these formed the Nāgpūr territory; and Sāgar, Dāmoh, Jubbulpore, Maṇḍlā, Seoni, Baitul, Narsimhapūr and Huśaṅgābād—these formed the Sāgar-Narmadā territories.

From the map of this period it seems that Nāgpūr then extended up to the Wardhā river. The territory up to the western bank of Wardhā granted to the *Nizām* by the treaty of Devagāṅv—1803, was annexed by Dalhousie on the plea that the *Nizām* had failed to pay the money for the maintenance of the subsidiary force. The arrears then amounted to Rs. 50 lacs. The annexation took place in 1853. The Berār was then divided into the Northern and Southern Berār. For the loyal services of the *Nizām*, however, during the rising of 1857, Southern Berār was given back to him. Again in 1903 it was joined to the Central Provinces forming the Central Provinces and Berār[1]. This arrangement remained unchanged till the redemarcation of the provinces by the States Reorganization Commission.

A wave of repression spread all over India at the end of the rising of 1857. Thousands of innocent persons were hanged after a summary trial. At times a whole village was set on fire on the ground that some person or persons participating in the revolt hailed from it. The whole village was held at stake for the acts of just a few persons. These repressive measures were intended to strike terror into the hearts of the people. Nāgpūr with its surrounding area was saved for some time from these cruelties of the government as Bakābāi remained loyal to the East India Company during the rising. Actually she discouraged any rising in the neighbourhood of Nāgpūr. However, the result of the repression was engendering racial hatred between the ruling English and their Indian subjects. Nāgpūr was no exception to this general situation.

The Arms Act of 1857 was passed with a view to disarming the people. The property of those who were suspected of having participated in the rising was confiscated. In the Nāgpūr area chieftains, like *Navāb* Quādir Alikhān and a number of petty *zamindārs* came to be deprived of their property on the suspicion that they had a hand in the revolt. The Arms Act was renewed in 1860 and finally took shape as the Arms Act of 1878. This new Act introduced licensing of firearms throughout India and imposed heavy import duty. Penalties for the breach of this Act were enforced very stringently.

[1] HFM., pp. 109, 112.

Along with the repressive measures, the British Government astutely employed the policy of divide and rule in order to keep their hold firm over the populace. In the army as well as in the civil services, this policy was very carefully implemented which finally divided India vertically and horizontally.

The armies were organized in such a manner that tribal, sectarian, religious and caste groups could maintain their own peculiarities. They were stationed at such places where they had no contacts of any kind with the local population and therefore were considered alien.

The newly invented theory of martial and non-martial races was applied and the people of U. P. and Bihār were classed under the second category. The communities of North West India were declared as martial. The people of Oudh and North Western Provinces who had helped the British in the conquest of the Punjāb and the North-West Frontier suddenly became non-martial[1].

The Police force in the Central Provinces including Nāgpūr was placed under the supervision of the police officers of the Regular Police. The old local village police which had strong affinities with the population were done away with. The aim was to create an efficient administrative instrument isolated from the public[2].

The loyal support afforded by Sayyad Ahmad to the British soon bore fruit. After 1875 the Muslims became the chosen people of the Government to put down the patriotic Hindu activities. In the Central Provinces the Muslim population was negligible. Yet more than fifty per cent of the officers and nearly the same percentage of posts in the police were given to them[3]. The policy of the British of setting the Muslims against the Hindus continued unabated. The evidence of the '*Berār Mitra*' of 8th July 1879, is significant in this respect. In one of the editorials it asked, "why is it that only Musalmāns are appointed *Tahśildārs* these days[4] ?".

As a part of the divide-and-rule policy in 1861 the entire Nāgpūr Irregular Force was incorporated in the police. The police were trained to be overbearing and contemptuous in their behaviour towards the people. The rank and file of the police force was drawn from that section of the population which had no character in the past. This naturally led to corruption and abuse of power in the police force. Sir Richard Temple, the Chief Commissioner of Central Provinces, 1864-65, referring to this state of affairs says, "Service in the police has always been unpopular with natives of superior stamp, and men of character avoided entering it. Men of ability rarely entered it except with

[1] HFM., p. 122.
[2] *Ibid*, p. 124.
[3] HFM., p. 125.
[4] *Ibid*, p. 236.

the intention of making an unlawful fortune within a short time, risking the chance of such detection as would lead to personal punishment but quite prepared for dismissal.[1]"

The police purposely insulted men of status and the Government connived at their rudeness. A British police officer could easily whip a citizen of Nāgpūr on the street if he failed to stand up when the *Sāheb* passed by[2]. The feeling of oneness between the police and the people was completely disrupted.

Dalhousie's policy towards the native states was topsyturvied in the aftermath of the revolt. Except for their sovereignty the states were restored to their former honour and rights. As a result the States came to be recognised as one of the pillars of the British Empire in India till their disappearance. Next to the States, it were the Zamindārs who merited the attention of the British. In the Nāgpūr area a new class of *Zamindārs* and *Mālguzārs* was created with full proprietary rights in their villages. This was quite against the Indian tradition which did not recognize private ownership in land. The landlords were revenue farmers or managers in the pre-British period. Endowed with proprietary rights in land, majority of them became stooges of the alien Government and at the same time took upon themselves the odium of revenue collection[3].

The Nāgpūr revenue assessment was enhanced by the Residents right from 1830. The revenue system under the Bhosles though crude and elementary left the farmers with a surplus that was enough for their maintenance and future agricultural operations[4].

The activities of the Christian Missionaries began to be felt in Nāgpūr since 1845. In that year Stephen Hislop arrived in Nāgpūr and soon founded the Scottish Mission[5]. One of the associates of Hislop, Mr. Voss was belaboured by the Nāgpūr mob for his proselytising activities. The Nāgpūr people stoutly resisted the missionary activities[6], however, the missionaries in course of time further divided the Indian society which was already subjected to the divide-and-rule policy of the British.

In sum, in Nāgpūr as in other parts of India the alien rulers set the police against the people, the landlords against their cultivators, the Muslims against the Hindus, one caste against the other and even one sub-caste against another sub-caste. The socio-political repercussions of the dissensions nurtured by the British are felt by the people even today. In its trail, it has created problems which are difficult of solution.

[1] *Ibid*, p. 126.
[2] *Ibid*, p. 127.
[3] HFM., p. 133.
[4] *Ibid*, p. 137.
[5] NPI., p. 498.
[6] HFM., pp. 157 58.

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Within less than a hundred years of the British rule the indigenous economy was killed in the interest of Great Britain. No wonder that Nagpūr should have fallen a prey to this general economic devastation. The cotton and silk textile industries of Nāgpūr which were carefully built by the Bhosles had once great demand in the markets of Egypt and Europe. With the advent of machine-made cloth imported free of duty these industries were totally ruined[1].

1886-1920

Lord Lytton's unblessed regime (1876—80) left sad memories in the people's mind. The oppressive Vernacular Press Act, the huge expenditure incurred during the Second Afghāṇ War, the lowering of age-limit for admission of Indians to the I. C. S. and the opening of the Muhammedan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligaḍ roused public feelings throughout India. Nagpūr was not slow to react against these measures.

Nāgpūr was moved when Vasudev Baḷavant Phaḍke of Śirḍhoṇ, the first revolutionary, tried to overthrow the British rule. He failed in his attempt and was deported to distant Aden. Nāgpūr was quick to receive new ideas from Pooṇā, which led to the formation of nationalism. Soon after the foundation of the *Sārvajanik Sabhā* of Pooṇā, the *Loka Sabhā* was established in Nāgpūr with its branches in the principal towns of the Madhya Pradeś[2]. The educated well-to-do middle class formed the backbone of these public activities.

Establishment of Congress.

For the Second Session of the Congress which met at Calcuttā, B. K. Bose of Madhya Pradeś was invited but could not attend. However, his friends Bapurāv Dādā Kinkheḍe, Gaṅgādharrāv Citṇavis and Gopal Hari Bhiḍe of Nagpūr were present at the session. Abdul Aziz of Kāmpṭee, near Nāgpūr, made a fine speech in Urdu at Calcuttā. The Calcuttā meeting imparted fresh vigour to the efforts of Kṛṣṇarāv Pāṭhak to establish a *Sabhā* on the lines of the *Sārvajanika Sabhā* of Pooṇā. Gaṅgādharrāv Citṇavis was the President of the Nāgpūr *Loka Sabhā* and Bāpurāv Dādā Kinkheḍe its secretary. In 1886, a similar *Sabhā* was founded at Amrāvatī with the efforts of Vināyak Digambar Devrās of Akolā, Khāparḍe, Mudhoḷkar, Jośi and Kāzi Badruddin of Malkāpūr.

Soon after the visit of *Svāmī* Dayānand Sarasvati to Nāgpūr, in 1884, the *Gorakṣaṇa Sabhā* was formed in the city. Within a year it had as many as 49 branches in the Madhya Pradeś. The *Sābhā* shortly assumed an all-India form with *Lokmānya* Ṭilak, Mālaviya and Pettit as its prominent members.

The Seventh Session of the All-India National Congress was held in Nāgpūr in 1891. Out of the 3,812 delegates 480 were from Berār. P. Ānanda Charlu presided and the venue chosen was the *Lāl Bāg*. Among the chief topics taken for discussion were

[1] HFM., pp. 170-71.
[2] *Ibid*, p. 171.
[3] HFM., pp. 174-75.

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Establishment of Congress.

the Second Afghāṇ War and Forest Laws. The latter were irksome to the people as they had deprived the villagers of their privileges, such as the common pasturage. The Nāgpūr session gave new impetus to the national movement in the surrounding area[1].

In 1893, a public meeting in Nāgpūr held at the Neill City High School appealed to the Secretary of State that the Central Provinces should be allowed to send one member under the Council Act of 1892. In 1896, Gaṅgādharrāv Citṇavis of Nāgpūr was the member recommended to the Vicéroy.[2]

When the outbreak of plague towards the end of the last century resulted in the murder of Rand and Lt. Ayerst in Pooṇā, Tiḷak was sentenced to eighteen months' rigorous imprisonment. Nāgpūr was agitated at this news. In the year 1897 when the Congress session was held at Amrāvati, Dādāsāheb Khāparḍe referred to the famine and plague which ravaged the country.[3]

Towards 1907, Tiḷak came to the forefront as the leader of the extremist group in the Congress. From Nāgpūr province Dādāsāheb Khāparḍe and Muñje represented the *Tiḷakite* school whereas Mudhoḷkar and Gaṅgādharrāv Citṇavis backed the moderates. In 1907 the Congress was to meet in Nāgpūr. The extremists wanted it to be presided over by Ṭiḷak. After a meeting which was held in the Town Hall, the students took out a procession with the photographs of Ṭiḷak, Lālā Lajpat Rāi, Arabindu Ghoṣ and Bipin Candra Pāl, singing *Vandemātaram*. The students in the Morris College (now Nāgpūr Mahāvidyalaya) greeted their European professors in the class with *Vandemātaram*. Situation in Nāgpūr grew quite tense. The Congress, however, was held at Surat which marked a turning point in its history.

The group of extremists in Nāgpūr were encouraged by the lectures of Bābu Arabindu Ghoṣ in the city in 1908. He urged the people to adopt the cult of *Svadeśi*. Acyutrāv Kolhaṭkar was sentenced to eighteen months' rigorous imprisonment for publishing the speeches of Arabindu in his journal *Deśasevak*.[4]

The *Rāṣṭriya Maṇḍaḷ* was established in Nāgpūr when the Terrorist Movement was seriously disturbing the Government. Nilkaṇṭhrāv Udhoji was the President of the *Maṇḍaḷ* and Muñje, Acyutrāv Kolhaṭkar, Parāñjape, Mādhavrāv Sapre, Rāmnārāyaṇ Rāṭhī, Barrister Cakravarti and Gadre its principal members.[5]

[1] *Ibid*, pp. 181—84.
[2] HFM., p. 189.
[3] *Ibid*, p. 192.
[4] HFM., p. 119.
[5] *Ibid*, p. 213.

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During the Industrial Exhibition held on the Kasturcand Park in Nāgpūr in 1908, the statue of Queen Victoria in the *Mahārāj Bāg* was defaced with coal-tar. One Nārāyaṇ Parāñjpe was arrested for this act and later released.

The news of Ṭiḷak's deportation to Maṇḍaley for six years created sensation in Nagpur. The students left their classes and took out a procession. The Principal of Morris College was pelted with stones. A mammoth meeting held at the Citṇavis Park was dispersed by the police. In the second meeting held on 19th August 1908, in front of the Veṅkaṭeś theatre a resolution was passed demanding the release of Ṭiḷak, and as a protest against injustice it called upon the people to completely boycott British goods.[1]

The repressive measures which followed this agitation deprived Nāgpūr press of its freedom. Acyutrāv Kolhaṭkar was arrested on the Nāgpūr station on his arrival by Calcuttā mail. In 1913, Vicéroy Hardinge came to Nāgpūr to lay the foundation stone of the Central Provinces Legislative Council. Out of its 26 members, 3 were from the Congress.[2]

The Svadeśi mills—now Model Mills—was founded in 1870. Its first directors were members of the Congress, namely, Gaṅgādharrāv Citṇavis, Gopāḷrāv Bhiḍe, Mukundrāv Buty and Gopāḷrāv Ghaṭāṭe. Along with *Svadeśi* and Boycott, the *Paisā* Fund too received support from Nāgpūr.[3]

To meet the local needs, the first Provincial Conference was held in 1905. Dādāsāheb Khāparḍe was its President and Gaṅgādharrāv Citṇavis the Chairman of the Reception Committee. The demands of the Conference were—

1. abolition of *Paṭvāri* cess;
2. *bigār*—free labour service;
3. a High Court for M. P.[4]

After 1907, the Congress in Nāgpūr was sharply divided having overwhelming supporters of Ṭiḷak.

In 1915, Mrs. Besant explained in Nāgpūr the objectives of the Home Rule League. In 1918, Ṭiḷak toured the Nāgpūr area for the same purpose.[5]

He had full faith in the constitutional struggle for the attainment of *Svarāj*. Like many others he was convinced of its practicability under the given situation. He, however, did not consider the activities of the terrorists or the revolutionaries as ineffectual or theoretically objectionable. He was not opposed to the overthrow of the British rule by an armed revolution if one

[1] *Ibid*, p. 221.
[2] *Ibid*, p. 232.
[3] HFM., p. 247.
[4] *Ibid*, p. 253.
[5] *Ibid*, p. 279.

could bring it about. In the Rand murder case the Cāphekar brothers who were convicted stated in the enquiry that they were driven to desperateness by the writings of Ṭiḷak in the *Kesari*. Being involved in this case Ṭiḷak was sentenced to eighteen months' rigorous imprisonment. For many revolutionaries he was the source of inspiration.

Heḍgevār, the brain behind the revolutionary movement in Nāgpūr, had been to Pooṇā to consult Ṭiḷak on the matter. Nothing is known about the nature of the advice he received. One Bhānjī Kāvare was the trusted associate of Heḍgevār. Both used to secure pistols and ammunition clandestinely from outside. One Dādāsāheb Bakṣi repaired old pistols and made them serviceable. Heḍgevār once unsuccessfully tried to secure arms and ammunitions from Goā. Funds were collected for this movement and secret meetings were held at the out-of-the-way places like Barāḍvārī, *Tulśi Bāg*, Sonegāṅv *Mandir*, Colonel *Bāg*, Indora *Mandir*, and Mohite *Vāḍā*. Like of Mazzini, stories of the Bengal Revolutionaries, the Alipur and Māṇiktolā Bombing Cases, and Indian War of Independence by Sāvarkar were widely circulated among the revolutionaries as food for thought. Heḍgevār had sent his own trusted persons to Puñjāb with a view to keeping contact with the revolutionaries there. One Gaṅgā Prasād was the principal figure in this secret deputation. He was accompanied by Āppājī Jośi of Wardhā and, Nānājī Purāṇik and Bāburāv Harkāre of Nāgpūr. These revolutionary activities were conducted for nearly three years from 1916 onwards. Towards the end of the World War I, Heḍgevār found that the movement was losing its dynamism and the chances of its success were few. He therefore called back his compatriots and systematically disorganized the movement. He then joined the Congress.[1]

Emergence of Gāndhiji.

Between 1906 and 1914 Gāndhījī had attracted the attention of Indian political leaders by his peaceful resistance to injustice in South Africa. He was successful in getting abolished the most hated Asiatic Act and the discriminatory treatment meted out to the Indian immigrants there. His activities in Africa were heartily blessed by Gopāḷ Kṛṣṇa Gokhale. On his return to India in 1914 he was hailed as the votary of truth and *ahimsā*. In spite of his bitter experience of the British rule in Africa he expressed full faith in the justice of England and advised his countrymen to offer unconditional help to the British during the First World War. But the hollowness of the proclamation during the War that responsible Government would be introduced in India, the disappointing Montford Reforms, the Rowlatt Bills and the Jāllianvālā *Bāg* Tragedy of 1919, in mounting succession convinced him that the British Government was satanic. In the *Khilāfat* Conference of November 1919 Gāndhījī expounded his policy of non-co-operation with Government as a political weapon. This was largely supported

[1] Dr. Hedgevār—by N. H. Palkar, pp. 60—69.

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Emergence of Gāndhiji.

in the Congress Session that followed.[1] However, Congress stalwarts like Ṭiḷak, C. R. Dās and Moti Lāl Nehru had misgivings regarding the Gandhian ways and programme. Mrs. Annie Besant was against his *Satyagraha* movement, and the Jallianvala *Bag* Tragedy resulted in her exit from the Congress and politics.[2]

Death of Lokamānya Ṭiḷak.

With Ṭiḷak's death on 1st August 1920, India lost a great scholar and a fearless leader of exceptional abilities. The death of the "Father of Indian Unrest" was mourned throughout the country. Nāgpūr people paid their homage to Ṭiḷak in a mammoth meeting.[3] The era of vigorous extremism in the Congress may be said to have ended with the passing away of Ṭiḷak.

The Gāndhian Era.

The special Congress Session which met at Calcuttā in September 1920 marked a turning point in Indian politics. Gāndhījī's resolutions on Hindu-Muslim unity and the policy of non-violent, non-co-operation for the attainment of *Svarāj* were passed by the Session, though Bipin Candra Pāl and Dās strongly opposed them considering them to be disadvantageous to the country. The Nāgpūr Session of the Congress which met at the end of 1920 firmly established Gāndhījī's leadership in India. His philosophy and method received a clear support. His progressive policy of non-co-operation and boycott actually outstripped the extremists.

On the eve of the Nagpūr Session, opposition members had expressed their disapproval of the policy and principle of non-co-operation. They thought the movement would do more harm than good to the country. Before the Congress Session met, Dādāsāheb Khāparḍe published a memorandum pointing out how Gandhiji's resolution sought to divert the energies of the Congress in attaining spiritual force and moral excellence to the neglect of immediate political objectives. He further thought that boycotting the Councils would result in the loss of contact with the *de facto* Government ultimately depriving the people of the practical training ground for political struggle. It would not be far from truth if one states that this opinion was largely shared by the intellectuals of Nāgpūr.

In addition to the non-violent non-co-operation programme for the attainment of *Svarāj,* the Nāgpūr Session passed resolutions regarding promotion of *Khādi,* unconditional support to the Muslims in the Khilāfat movement, removal of untouchability and creation of Tiḷak *Svarāj* Fund. *Svarāj* was to be attained within one year.

The Nāgpūr Congress gave tremendous fillip to the national movement in the Madhya Pradeś. As part of the peaceful programme the Non-Co-operator's *Āśram* and the Ṭiḷak

[1] HFM., p. 291.
[2] *Ibid*, p. 288.
[3] *Ibid*, p. 293.

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The Gāndhian Era.

Vidyālaya were established at Nāgpūr. To make Prohibition effective volunteers picketed at the liquor shops on January 1921. Police opened fire on the picketers in the city.[1]

After the *Cauri Caura* incident in which the constables were cut to pieces by the angry mob, Gandhiji withdrew his mass civil disobedience movement which was to be launched all over the country. His promise of attaining *Svarāj* within an year fell through and a sort of lull spread over the entire programme of the Congress. It was in this atmosphere that the *Svarājist* Party was established following the Congress Session of Gayā of 1923. Dās and Motilāl Nehru formed the *Svarājist* Party to carry the fight into the legislatures. *Svarāj* was to be attained by Council-entry. By this time M. V. Abhyaṅkar who was the acknowledged leader of Nāgpūr moved a resolution at the All-India Congress Committee meeting in Bombay that Council-entry should be accepted as the programme of the party.[2] Khāparḍe and Muñje too were in favour of capturing all public bodies and Councils. Thus, there was a tussle between the Non-changers and the *Svarājists* within the Congress party.

In the elections of 1923, the *Svarājists* in the Central Provinces got a clear majority. The Governor called Muñje, the leader of the *Svarājists* to form the Ministry. He promptly refused the invitation and the party launched its obstructive battle. When the Governor formed his own Ministry, the *Svarājists* in the house passed a motion of non-confidence against it. This was the first non-confidence motion to be passed against a Government under the Reform Act. It was the first triumph of the battle for freedom inside the Council.[3] The *Svarājist* party itself, however, soon betrayed signs of schism under threats from the Governor. The election of Tāmbe of the *Svarājist* Party as President was hailed as its triumph. He decided in October 1925 to accept the membership of the Executive Council in the Central Provinces in the vacancy caused by the retirement of M. V. Jośī. This had a nation-wide reaction. Tāmbe was supported by Keḷkar and M. R. Jayakar of Bombay. The Berar *Svarāj* Party in the Executive Committee meeting of 26th October 1925, declared that time had come for adopting a policy of the *Svarājists* which created such a serious situation that a meeting of the All-India *Svarājist* Executive Committee was called at Nāgpūr and Motilāl Nehru after heated discussions with Muñje remarked that, "Mahārāṣṭra was a diseased limb of the *Svarāj* Party and he was quite prepared to amputate it."[4] The result was that N. C. Keḷkar and M. R. Jayakar resigned from the Party and Muñje followed the suit. The Responsive Co-operationist group formed their own party under the presidentship of Jayakar. Muñje-Aṇey of this faction broke off from Abhyaṅkar-Vāmanrāv Jośī.

[1] HFM., pp. 303—308.
[2] *Ibid*, pp. 320—322.
[3] HFM., p. 333.
[4] *Ibid*, pp. 341-342.

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The Gāndhian Era.

The Congress Party which was developing cracks inside was destined to witness worst kind of communal riots between 1923 and 1925. In 1923 Mustafa Kamal Pāśā declared Turkey a Republic and in 1924 the Khilafat itself was abolished. The Indian Muslims were baffled. It knocked the bottom out of the Hindu-Muslim unity nurtured by the Congress all these years. The Muslims fell apart from the Congress increasingly.

In 1923, in the tense atmosphere of communalism the Nagpūr people under the leadership of Heḍgevar, Parāñjpe and Coḷkar successfully carried the Diṇḍi Satyagraha[1]. During the riots of the next year Muñje gave complete co-operation to Heḍgevār the founder of the *Raṣṭrīya Svayaṁsevak Saṅgha*. What was happening in Nāgpūr was common phenomenon in many other cities of India. To quell the riots Gāndhījī started a fast of 21 days on 18th September, 1924[2].

It may be noted here that Heḍgevār was once an active and prominent worker of the Congress Party. He was the chief associate of Parāñjpe who founded the *Bhārat Svayaṁsevak Maṇḍal* with a view to training the volunteers for the Nāgpūr Session of the Congress of 1920. During the Non-co-operation Movement Muñje and Heḍgevār carried a hurricane campaign against the Government in and out of Nāgpūr. Heḍgevār was sentenced to one year's rigorous imprisonment. After his release he found that his heart was not in the Congress as the unconditional help to the Muslims in the Khilafat movement to the exclusion of *Gorakṣā*—Cow protection- in the Congress programme presented a real contrast[3]. To him, as to many others in Nāgpūr, unconditional help to Muslims for the attainment of Hindu-Muslim unity was a theoretical or spiritual solution fraught with danger. It was this mental dichotomy that drove Heḍgevār to found the *Raṣṭrīya Svayaṁsevaka Saṅgh* and forced many a thinker of Nāgpūr to join the *Hindu Mahā Sabhā*[4].

When the Simon Commission visited Nāgpūr in March 1929 the Youth League and the Students' Organization were on the forefront of the protests and demonstrations. The educational institutions in the city became active centres of youth agitation. On 14th July, the National Flag was hoisted on the Hislop College. As a sequel to Government warning against such actions all colleges in Nāgpūr were closed for sometime[5].

Civil Disobedience Movement of 1930—32.

With Gāndhījī's historic march from Sābarmati to Dāṇḍī the Satyāgraha movement spread throughout the length and breadth of the country. On 16th April 1930, the Nāgpūr War Council

[1] Dr. Hedgevār—by N. H. Palkar, pp. 123—29.

[2] HFM., p. 352.

[3] Dr. Hedgevār—by H. N. Palkar, p. 84. One Badhe wanted that the Congress meeting in Nāgpūr should take the question of *Gorakṣā* as it was national. Gāndhījī told him that this could not be taken as it would touch the feelings of the Muslims, and asked Mr. Badhe to leave the meeting. On his refusal to do so the meeting was adjourned.

[4] Dr. Hedgevār—by N. H. Palkar, pp. 136, 143, 147.

[5] HFM., pp. 383, 384.

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was formed with Abhyaṅkar as its president. Among the other members of the Council were Jamnālāl Bajāj, Mahātmā Bhagvāndin, Khare, Punamcanda Rākā and Nilakaṇṭhrāv Deśmukh. In Berār Brijlāl Biyāṇī, Bāpūjī Aṇey and Vāmanrāv Jośī led the movement.

Abhyaṅkar was arrested. Bāpūjī Aṇey was arrested for cutting grass in the Pusad forest. Anusayābāī Kāḷe was arrested for picketing[1]. Nāgpūr people gave a good account of themselves in the Civil Disobedience Movement.

After the passing of the Act of 1935, the Congress decided to contest the elections. It had clear majority in five provinces. When the new constitution came into force in the Madhya Pradeś a new ministry was formed with Khare as the Chief Minister, on 14th July 1937[2]. At the time of forming the Ministry Khare had to drop Harkāre from the list of Ministers at the instance of Vallabhabhāi Paṭel. Because of serious differences between N. B. Khare and his *Mahākośal* colleagues and also because of his differences with the Congress High Command, he had to resign his office of Chief-Ministership. He later published his case in the papers under "My Defence"[3].

After the outbreak of the Second World War the Congress Working Committee which met at Wardhā from 8th September 1939 took the following momentous decisions:—

(i) It condemned Nazism and Fascism.

(ii) No foreign Government had the right to decide the issue of war and peace for India. It must be decided by the Indian people.

(iii) The British Government should declare its war aims.

(iv) Great Britain must establish democracy in India. A free India would willingly help free nations for mutual defence.

(v) Any declaration of war aims must be given effect to immediately[4].

On these fundamental questions no compromise was possible and the Congress Ministries from different provinces resigned. A deadlock became inevitable. Gāndhījī started his individual satyāgraha and Vinobā Bhāve was the first volunteer to launch it on 17th October 1941. In 1942 when the Quit India Call was given by the Congress, arrests, repression, underground activities and violence became a matter of daily occurrence. On the 12th August, the Police fired on the Nāgpūr mob killing even women and children. At Rāmṭek in Nāgpūr district there was no government for sometime. The atrocities at Aṣṭī in Wardhā

[1] *Ibid*, pp. 385—389.

[2] My Political Memoirs or Autobiography, p. 8.

[3] *Ibid*, pp. 10—15.

[4] HFM., pp. 438-439.

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and Cimūr in Cānda are too well-known during the freedom-struggle. On the 12th August 1942, the Itvāri Railway Station Godown and Post Office were set on fire. The underground movement was very active in Nāgpūr under the leadership of Maganlāl Bāgḍi[1].

Post-Independence Period.

After the end of the war, in Madhya Pradeś, the Cabinet was sworn in with Ravi Śaṅkar Śuklā as the Chief Minister on 27-4-1946. When freedom dawned finally on the 15th August 1947, the Nagpūr people celebrated it by hoisting the National Flag on the historic fort of Sitābuldi. Ravi Śankar Śuklā was the Chief Minister and Maṅgaldās M. Pakvāsā the Rajyapāla[2].

With the reorganisation of States in 1956, Nagpūr along with the other districts of Vidarbha region became a part of the bilingual State of Bombay. In 1960 the State of Mahārāṣṭra came into existence of which Nāgpūr district forms a part.

The British Residents of Nagpur.

1. Forster. 15-1-1788 to 5-1-1791.
2. Colebrooke. March 1799 to May 1801.
3. Elphinstone. January 1804 to 24-1-1807.
4. Jenkins. 24-1-1807 to 29-12-1826.
5. Wilder. 12-4-1827 to 19-2-1830.
6. Groeme. 1830—1833.
7. Lt.-Col. J. Briggs. 31-5-1834 to 1835.
8. Mr. C. Cavendish. 1835 to 13-11-1839.
9. Maj. Thomas Wilkinson. 13-11-1839 to 12-9-1844.
10. Col. A. Spiers. 1-12-1844 to 1847.
11. Capt. Ramsay. January 1847 to 12-3-1849.
12. Mr. Davidson. 12-3-1849 to August 1850.
13. Mr. Mansel. 1850 to 1854. First Commissioner from 13-3-1854.
14. Capt. Elliot. 1854 to 1855.
15. G. Plowden. 1855 to 1860.

List of the Chief Commissioners and Governors of the Central Provinces since their constitution

Serial No. (1)	Name (2)	Date of assuming charge of office (3)
1	Col. E. K. Elliot	11-12-1861
2	Lt.-Col. J. K. Spence, Offg.	27-2-1862
3	Mr. Richard Temple, Offg.	25-4-1862
	Col. E. K. Elliot	18-12-1863
4	Mr. J. S. Campbell, Offg.	12-3-1864
	Mr. Richard Temple	17-3-1864
	Mr. J. S. Campbell, Offg.	24-4-1865
	Mr. Richard Temple	6-11-1865

[1] HFM., pp. 472-473.
[2] HFM., pp. 492-493.

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Chief Commissioners and Governors.

List of the Chief Commissioners and Governors of the Central Provinces since their constitution—cont.

Serial No. (1)	Name (2)	Date of assuming charge of office (3)
5	Mr. J. H. Morris, C.S.I., Offg.	4-6-1867
6	Mr. G. Campbell	27-11-1867
	Mr. J. H. Morris, C.S.I., Offg.	16-4-1868
	Confirmed	27-5-1870
7	Col. R. H. Keatings, V.C., C.S.I., Offg...	8-7-1870
	Mr. J. H. Morris, C.S.I.	6-7-1872
8	Mr. C. Grant, Offg.	11-4-1879
	Mr. J. H. Morris, C.S.I.	15-11-1879
9	Mr. W. B. Jones, C.S.I.	30-4-1883
10	Mr. C. H. T. Crosthwaite, Offg.	1-4-1884
	Confirmed	27-1-1885
11	Mr. D. Fitzpatrick..	15-12-1885
12	Mr. J. W. Neill, Offg.	19-2-1887
13	Mr. A. Mackenzie, C.S.I.	24-3-1887
14	Mr. R. J. Crosthwaite	22-7-1889
15	Mr. J. W. Neill	18-11-1890
	Mr. A. P. MacDonnel, C.S.I.	28-1-1891
16	Mr. J. Woodburn, C.S.I., Offg.	28-5-1893
	Confirmed	1-12-1893
17	Sir C. J. Lyall, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.	21-12-1895
18	The Hon. Mr. D. C. J. Ibbelson, C.S.I...	14-7-1898
19	The Hon. Sir A. H. L. Fraser, K.C.S.I., Offg.	28-11-1899
	Confirmed	6-3-1902
20	The Hon. Mr. J. P. Hewett, C.S.I., C.I.E., Offg.	16-9-1902
	Confirmed	2-11-1903

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History.

Chief Commissioners and Governors.

List of the Chief Commissioners and Governors of the Central Provinces since their constitution—cont.

Serial No. (1)	Name (2)	Date of assuming charge of office (3)
21	The Hon. Sir F. S. P. Lely, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Offg.	18-2-1904
	Confirmed	23-12-1904
22	The Hon. Mr. J. O. Miller, C.S.I. ..	4-5-1905
23	The Hon. Mr. S. Ismay, C.S.I., Offg. ..	27-7-1906 to 2-10-1906
24	The Hon. Mr. F. A. T. Phillips, I.C.S. ..	S. P. T. 5 to 24-3-1907
25	The Hon. Mr. R. H. Craddock, C.S.I., I.C.S.	25-3-1909
	The Hon. Mr. F. A. T., Phillips, I.C.S., Offg.	20-5-1909
	The Hon. Mr. R. H. Craddock, K.C.S.I., I.C.S.	22-11-1909
26	The Hon. Mr. H. A. Crump, C.S.I., I.C.S.	S.P.T. Fr. 26-1-1912 to 16-2-1912
27	The Hon. Mr. M. W. Fox-Strangways, C.S.I., I.C.S.	S.P.T. Fr. 17-2-1912
28	The Hon. Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.	3-8-1912
	The Hon. Mr. H. A. Crump, C.S.I., I.C.S., Offg.	1-1-1914 to 8-4-1914
	The Hon. Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I., K.C.M.G., C.I.E., I.C.S.	9-4-1914 to 25-1-1920
	The Hon. Sir F. Sly, K.C.S.I., I.C.S.	S.P.T. 26-1-1920 to 16-12-1920
	Governors	
29	H. E. Sir F. Sly, K.C.S.I., I.C.S. ..	17-12-1920 to 25-1-1925
30	H. E. Sir M.S.D. Butler, K.C.S.I., C.B., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., I.C.S.	26-1-1925
31	H.E. Mr. J. T. Marten, C.S.I., I.C.S., Offg.,	20-8-1927 to 16-12-1927
	H. E. Sir M. S. D. Butler, K.C.S.I., C.B., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., I.C.S.	17-12-1927 to 29-11-1929 and from 29-3-1930
32	Hon. Mr. S. B. Tambe	30-11-1929 to 28-3-1930
	H. E. Sir A. E. Nelson, K.C.I.E., O.B.E., J.P., I.C.S.	Acting 30-7-1932 to 24-11-1932
	H. E. Sir M. S. D'Butler, K.C.S.I., C.B., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., I.C.S.	15-9-1933
33	H. E. Sir H. C. Gowan, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., V.D., I.C.S., J.P.	16-9-1933

CHAPTER 2.

History.

Historical Families.

Historical Families of Nagpur.

Royal Families:

1. Bhosale, descendants of Parasoji Bhosale, the first Sena-Saheb—Subha.

2. The Gond Rajas of Devagad, descendants of Bakhat Buland, the founder of Modern Nagpur.

Other Families:

Ahirrao, Malji first to come to Nagpur. Bakshi, accompanied Raghuji I.

Biniwale, Gundo Shankar in the service of Raghuji II.

Chitnavis, descendants of Rakhamaji Ganesh accompanied Raghuji I.

Chorghade, Divakar Purushottam in the service of the Bhosales from Janoji I onward.

Dube, Beniram ambassador of the Bhosales with the British.

Gujar, Janrao accompanied Raghuji I.

Gupte, Vinayak.

Jachak.

Jamdar brought to Nagpur by Raghuji I from Akot.

Kalikar in charge of the treasury.

Kalo Bhavani—Bakshi.

Khandekar, Ganesh Sambhaji, Subhedar of Orissa.

Kolhatkar, Kanher Ram accompanied Raghuji I.

Kothekar, Anandrao Subhedar of Gangthadi.

Lashkari, Mahadaji Ballal.

Munshi Bhavani Nagnath—Munshi.

Mohite, Kedarji related to Raghuji I.

Navab family of Nagpur from Siddik Alikhan.

Nimbalkar, Piraji Naik.

Narasing Bhavani Prabhu accompanied Raghuji I.

Pantavane, Vishwanathpant, Bhosale's ambassador at Calcutta.

Phadnavis.

Potnis accompanied Raghuji I.

Rajaram Mukund Subhedar of Katak.

Risaldar Ramchandra Dado, envoy brought by Sabaji Bhosale from Ellichpur.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

Historical Families.

Historical Families of Nagpur—cont.

Sakhadeo Timmaji, Divan of the Gond Rajas of Chanda. When Raghuji conquered Chanda he brought Timmaji to Nagpur.

Shirke, Sambhaji brother of Sakavarbai, wife of Raghuji I.

Subhedar, Vyankat Pandurang, Subhedar of Chhattisgad.

Subhedar, Vitthal Ballal Paranjpe in charge of the Bhosale army in the Battle of Kharda.

Tikhe, Ramaji Keshav, appointed Divan of Chanda by Mudhoji Bhosle.

Upadhye Joshi Dadbhat came to Nagpur with Kanher Ram and later became the priest Royal—Rajopadhye.

Vaidya Vishwanath envoy of Poona darbar at Nagpur.

Wagh, Ramchandra Anandrao with Appasaheb Bhosale[1].

[1] This account of (i) the British Residents of Nāgpūr, (ii) the Chief Commissioners and Governors of the Central Provinces and Berār and (iii) the Historical Families of Nāgpūr has been prepared with the help of NPI and Selections from the Nāgpūr Residency Records—by H. N. Sinha.

CHAPTER 3—THE PEOPLE

CHAPTER 3.

The People.

POPULATION.

THE POPULATION OF NĀGPUR DISTRICT ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1961 is 1,512,807 (*m.* 784,161 : *f.* 728,646). Spread over its area* of 9,930 km². (3,834 sq. miles), it works out at 152 per km². (395 to the sq. mile). Of these 725,107 (*m.* 367,760 ; *f.* 357,347) or 47.9 per cent is spread over the rural areas and the remaining 787,700 (*m.* 416,401, *f.* 371,299) or 52·1 per cent over the urban areas. The urban-rural ratio of the district works out at 52 : 48.[1]

Growth of Population, 1874—1901.

It appears that the first census of the district was taken along with that of the Central Provinces in 1866. However, population figures as they are available show that the district of Nāgpūr had a population of 631,109 in 1872 and it variated to 697,356 ; 757,862 ; and 751,844 at the censuses of 1881, 1891 and 1901, respectively.

Census 1901

Commenting on these variations generally for the Province Mr. R. V. Russel[2] remarks that between 1866 and 1872 there occurred the famine of 1869, when the two divisions—Nāgpūr and Jubbulpore—were found to have declined in population. In 1881 there was an increase of 25.2 per cent. on the population of 1872 there being a rapid recovery during the decade from the effects of the famine of 1869. The only checks to the natural increment were epidemics of cholera and smallpox in the years 1872, 1878 and 1879. Part of the increase in 1881 was, however, certainly to be attributed to better enumeration. Between 1881 and 1891 the condition of the people continued on the whole to be prosperous, though the latter part of the decade was marked by some seasons of scarcity and high prices, culminating in a very unhealthy year in 1889, when there were severe epidemics of cholera and smallpox, combined with a visitation of malarial fever in the autumn. The increase of population during the decade was 12·1 per cent. During the last decennial period (1891-1901) the population had decreased by 8.3 per cent. In seven out of the ten years there were severe epidemics of cholera, and in four years, besides the two great famines, there were partial failure of crops.

*Area figures supplied by the State Land Records and Survey Department to the Census Authorities.

[1] Census of India, 1961, Vol. X, Maharashtra, Part II-A, p. 51.

[2] Census of India, 1901, Central Provinces, Vol. XIII, Part I, pp. 126—30.

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Growth of Population, 1901—61.

The following table illustrates the growth of population of the district during sixty years—1901-1961 :—

TABLE No. 1*

GROWTH OF POPULATION IN NĀGPUR DISTRICT, 1901-1961.

Decade year	Persons	Males	Females	Variation since last Census	Mean decennial growth-rate	Density
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1901 ..	750,935	377,169	373,766	..	..	196
1911 ..	808,922	408,363	400,559	+57,987	7·4	210
1921 ..	792,521	402,869	389,652	—16,401	2·05	206
1931 ..	940,049	481,246	458,803	+147,528	17·03	245
1941 ..	1,059,989	542,132	517,857	+119,940	11·9	276
1951 ..	1,234,556	631,199	603,357	+174,567	15·1	322
1961 ..	1,512,807	784,161	728,646	+278,251	20·2	395 per sq. mile (152 per km².)

Census, 1911.

The total increase in the population of the district during the sixty years was 101.46 per cent. The mean decennial rates of increase or decrease since 1901 were 7.72, - 2.03, 18.62, 12.76, 16.47 and 22.54, respectively, for each decade; variations in density of the general population of the district for these years were 196; 210; 206; 245; 276; 322 and 395, respectively.

"Plague dominates the figures of the Nāgpūr district and seems to have vitiated the registration of the vital statistics. With a recorded birth-rate of 48 and a death-rate of 44, of which 57,386 persons or 7 per cent., are due to plague, the excess of population according to the vital statistics stands at 4 per cent. To raise this to the census increase of 7.6 would require a balance in favour of immigration of about 28,000 persons. Instead of this we find, after taking into consideration the migration figures of 1901, a balance of about 40,000 emigrants which would more than swamp the natural excess according to the deduced figures. It would thus appear that there has been an omission during the decade of something over 20,000 births. The registration in urban areas during plague outbreaks is notoriously defective and while some check is possible at the cemeteries and burning ghats of the number of deaths, it is practically impossible to check births

* This table compares the population of the district as ascertained at the Census of 1961 with that of the six previous Censuses. In computing the figures, transfer of territory has been duly taken account of and adjustments made accordingly. To ensure comparability of growth-rates over long periods, mean decennial growth-rates are given. These rates are arrived at by expressing the difference between the general population totals of two successive Censuses as a percentage of the arithmetical means of the totals.

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Census, 1911.

in a population scattered over a wide area in temporary huts and shelters. Plague visited the Nāgpūr city in eight years during the decade and in Kāmpṭee outbreaks occurred in six years, and it seems probable that the difference to which attention has been drawn is due to defective registration in the urban areas resulting in omission of births.

Apart from the decrease in the population of the towns which amounted to 21 in Nāgpūr and 56 per cent in Kāmpṭee, there has been a considerable increase in the *tahsīl* population. A certain amount of this is fictitious and is due to the diffusion of the city population over the villages of the district. As has already been explained in dealing with the population of the Nāgpūr city, it is unfortunately not possible to estimate with any accuracy the effect on the population of the rural areas of this dispersion of the city people. The headquarter *tahsīl* which got the full benefit of the dispersion showed an increase of over 24 per cent, the opening of mines and the construction of a large irrigation reservoir in the Rāmṭek *tahsīl* must have attracted immigrants, and the population of that *tahsīl* shows a larger increase (21.50) than the others, the increase in which amount to 17.28 in Umrer, 14.68 in Kaṭol and 13.31 in the new *tahsīl* of Sāoner."[1]

Census, 1921.

Regarding the distribution and movement of the population of Nāgpūr district in 1921 Mr. N. G. Roughton observes—

"Owing to the presence of Nāgpūr city the density is 207 per square mile as against 211 at the last census, but the *tahsīl* density is less, being as low as 137 per square mile in the Rāmṭek *tahsīl*. The natural population decreased by about 24,000, the somewhat indefinite term 'fever' in 1912, and plague and cholera in 1916 being responsible for heavy mortality. In the influenza epidemic of 1918, 69,000 persons died, or 36,000 more than the births, and in the following year the birth-rate was exceptionally low. The population actually decreased however only by 16,000 and now stands at 792,521, which is 25.6 per cent in excess of the figures of 1872. However, in spite of the fact that the district attracts labour from without to its industrial centres, there is a decrease of 4,000 during the decade with number of those born outside the district, which may partly be attributed to the fact that at those places the older immigrants are now beginning to die off, and are replaced by their children born in the district."[2]

Census, 1931.

The following remarks regarding the distribution and movement of population of the district in 1931 were made by Mr. W. H. Shoobert—

"The density of population in Nāgpūr *tahsīl* is greater than that anywhere else in the province. This is of course due to the presence of Nāgpūr City, the enormous rise of 48.19 per cent which greatly affects the *tahsīl* figure. The increase in the rural

[1] Census of India, 1911, Central Provinces and Berar, Vol. X, Part I, Report, p. 40.

[2] Census of India, 1921, Central Provinces and Berar, Vol. XI, Part I, p. 20.

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Census, 1931.

population, excluding that of Nagpūr City and Kāmpṭee Municipality and Cantonment, is 16·94 per cent on the population of 1921. Owing to the commercial importance of the capital of the province the population has naturally tended to concentrate around it and the growth has been rapid. The increase in the figures of immigrants to the district since 1921 is over 36,000 according to the figures in Subsidiary Table IV. The deduced population calculated from vital statistics by the District Census Officer for the beginning of the year 1931 was 892,119. The census population was 940,049. As the increase in the number of immigrants is insufficient to make up the difference even if emigration was negligible, it must be assumed that the registration of vital statistics was again incomplete."[1]

TABLE No. 2.

GROWTH OF POPULATION, NAGPUR DISTRICT (1931).

Tahsil (1)	No. of persons per sq. mile (2)	Increase per cent since 1921 (3)	Increase of persons per sq. mile since 1921 (4)
Nāgpūr	465	34.02	118
Rāmṭek	150	9.65	13
Umrer	159	15.34	21
Kāṭol	242	8.70	19
Sāoner	231	6.40	13

Census, 1931—40.

The decade 1931 was fairly normal except towards the end when there were partial failures of crop and the outbreak of the World War. The mean decennial growth-rate of the population of the district during the period was 11·9 per cent.

Rural and Urban Population, 1961.

About 47·93 per cent of the population of the district lived in villages and about 52.06 per cent in towns. The actual distribution of the population is summarised in table below:—

TABLE No. 3.

DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL AND URBAN POPULATION, NĀGPUR DISTRICT, 1961.

(1)	Persons (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)
Total	1,512,807	784,161	728,646
Rural	725,107	367,760	357,347
Urban	787,700	416,401	371,299

The district has five *tahsīls*, *viz.*, Rāmṭek, Kāṭol, Nāgpūr, Umrer and Sāoner. The following table shows the rural and urban population of each *tahsīl* as enumerated in the census of 1961:—

[1] Census of India, 1931, Vol. XII, Central Provinces and Berar, Part I, Report, p. 44.

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Rural and Urban Population, 1961.

TABLE No. 4.

POPULATION BY *tahsīl* (URBAN AND RURAL), NĀGPUR DISTRICT, 1961.

Tahsil (1)	Population									
	Persons			Males			Females			
	Total (2)	Rural (3)	Urban (4)	Total (5)	Rural (6)	Urban (7)	Total (8)	Rural (9)	Urban (10)
Kāṭol	167,850	136,986	30,864	86,256	70,158	16,098	81,594	66,828	14,766
Sāoner	149,172	117,078	32,094	76,218	59,697	16,521	72,954	57,381	15,573
Rāmṭek	175,153	163,395	11,758	89,117	83,080	6,037	86,036	80,315	5,721
Nāgpūr	828,455	138,153	690,302	435,700	69,732	365,968	392,755	68,621	324,334
Umrer	192,177	169,495	22,682	96,870	85,093	11,777	95,307	84,402	10,905
Total	1,512,807	725,107	787,700	784,161	367,760	416,401	728,646	357,347	371,299

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Area, population and density of the five *tahsils* as well as the municipal towns in Nagpūr district as enumerated in the census of 1961 are as shown in Table No. 5.

TABLE No. 5.

Tahsīl AND TOWNWISE AREA, POPULATION AND DENSITY, NĀGPUR DISTRICT, 1961.

Tahsīl and Town (1)	Area in sq. kilometres (2)		Total population (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)	Density (per sq. kilometre) (6)	
Kāṭol *Tahsīl*	1,590·02	(614·00)*	167,850	86,256	81,594	105	(273)*
Movāḍ Municipality	13·00	(5·02)	5,841	2,973	2,868	449	(1,164)
Nārkheḍ Municipality	14·69	(5·67)	10,442	5,489	4,953	711	(1,842)
Kāṭol Municipality	16·89	(6·52)	14,581	7,636	6,945	863	(2,236)
Sāoner *Tahsīl*	1,406·04	(543·00)	149,172	76,218	72,954	106	(275)
Khāpā Municipality	5·70	(2·20)	9,536	4,873	4,663	1,674	(4,335)
Sāoner Municipality	12·46	(4·81)	10,186	5,331	4,855	1,095	(2,118)
Mohpā Municipality	4·87	(1·88)	5,647	2,920	2,727	1,160	(3,004)
Kaḷameśvar Municipality	11·81	(4·56)	6,725	3,397	3,328	569	(1,475)
Rāmṭek *Tahsīl*	2,323·02	(897·00)	175,153	89,117	86,036	72	(195)
Rāmṭek Municipality	5·78	(2·23)	11,758	6,037	5,721	2,036	(5,273)
Nāgpūr *Tahsīl*	2,100·5	(811·00)	8,28,455	435,700	392,755	395	(1,022)
Nāgpūr Municipal Corporation	217·56	(84·00)	6,43,659	341,654	302,005	2,959	(7,663)
Kāmpṭee Municipality	6·06	(2·34)	40,859	21,139	19,720	6,742	(17,461)
Kāmpṭee Cantonment	14·97	(5·78)	5,784	3,175	2,609	387	(1,001)
Umrer *Tahsīl*	2,509·7	(969·00)	192,177	96,870	95,307	76	(198)
Umrer Municipality	10·44	(4·03)	22,682	11,777	10,905	2,173	(5,628)

*Figures in brackets under columns (2) and (6) show area in square miles and density per square mile, respectively.

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Urban Population.

The district has, according to 1961 Census, 1,665 inhabited places of which 12 are towns and 1,653 villages. Besides, there are 244 uninhabited villages.

Of the towns,* when classified according to the population, Nagpūr Municipal Corporation (pop. 643,659) belongs to class I; Kāmptee Municipality (pop. 40,859) and Umrer Municipality (pop. 22,682) to class III; Kaṭol Municipality (pop. 14,581); Narkhed Municipality (pop. 10,442); Ramṭek Municipality (pop. 11,758) and Sāoner Municipality (pop. 10,186) to class IV; and the remaining five, namely, Khāpā Municipality (pop. 9,536), Kaḷameśvar Municipality (pop. 6,725), Movāḍ Municipality (pop. 5,841), Kāmptee Cantonment (pop. 5,784) and Mohpā Town (pop. 5,647) to class V.

TABLE No. 6.

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF TOWNS, NĀGPUR DISTRICT, 1961.

Town with population (1)	No. of Towns (2)	Population as percentage with total of urban population (3)
Above 100,000	1	82.95
50,000 — 100,000	Nil	Nil
20,000 — 50,000	2	8.18
10,000 — 20,000	4	4.54
5,000 — 10,000	5	4.33
Less than 5,000	Nil	Nil
Total	12	100.00

On an average the population per town in the district was about 65,641 which was much higher than the State average which was 41,965.

The growth of the urban population in the last sixty years is disclosed by the following figures obtained at successive censuses:—

TABLE No. 7.

GROWTH OF URBAN POPULATION, NĀGPUR DISTRICT.

Census year (1)	Urban population (2)	Decade variation (3)	Percentage Decade variation (4)	Urban population as percentage of the total population (5)
1901	240,388	..	..	31.9
1911	194,903	—45,485	—18.9	24.07
1921	239,984	+45,081	+23.1	30.2
1931	323,345	+83,361	+34.7	34.4
1941	418,181	+94,836	+29.3	39.4
1951	577,650	+159,468	+38.1	46.9
1961	787,700	+210,050	+36.3	52.1

* For the purposes of 1961 Census, a town or an urban area is defined as a place which has (1) a Municipality, a Cantonment or Civil lines; or (2) a population of 5,000 or over; and (ii) at least three-fourths or more of male workers engaged in non-agricultural pursuits.

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Urban Population.

The rural population (725,107) which formed about 47.93 per cent of the total population of the district was spread over 1,653 inhabited villages, 244 villages being uninhabited. In terms of population the village in the district had an average population of 382 persons. There were at the time four big villages with a population between 5,000 and 12,000; 34 villages had a population between 2,000 and 5,000; 403 villages had a population between 500 and 2,000 and 1,212 villages had a population of less than 500.

TABLE No. 8.

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF VILLAGES, NĀGPUR DISTRICT, 1961.

Villages with population (1)	No. of villages (2)	Percentage of total rural population (3)
Less than 500	1,212	36.75
500—2,000	403	45.66
2,000—5,000	34	14.33
5,000 and above	4	3.26
	1,653	100.00

Density.

Nāgpūr district has a mean density of 152 per sq. km. (395 persons per square mile) and as such is one of the most thickly populated districts of the Division. Excluding the thickly populated industrial and commercial city of Nāgpūr, the density over the rest of the Nāgpūr district is fairly uniform. The general density of population of the district per sq. km. is 75 (196 per sq. mile)* for the rural area and 2,357 (6,104) for the urban area. Actually, in the Nāgpūr *tahsīl*, excluding the urban area, the density is only 74 (192); while that for the Nāgpūr Town-Group it is 2,893 (7,494), for Nāgpūr (M. Corpn.) 2,959 (7,663), Kāmptee (M.) 6,742 (17,461) and for Kāmptee Cantonment 286 (1,001). The general density of population for the Kāṭol *tahsīl* is 106 (273), 97 (230) for the rural and 863 (1,793) for the urban area; for Sāoner *tahsīl* the general density is 106 (275), 99 (258) for the rural area and 818 (3,118) for the urban one; Rāmṭek *tahsīl* has 75 (195) as general density, 71 (183) for the rural and 2,034 (5,273) for the urban area; and that of Umrer *tahsīl* it is 77 (198) as general, 68 (175) as rural and 2,172 (5,628) as urban.

Immigration.

The incidence of immigration in the district is worth considering. According to the census of 1951, out of the total population of 1,234,556 (*m.* 631,199; *f.* 603,357) 1,014,071 persons (*m.* 526,024; *f.* 488,047) or 81.4 per cent were born in the district of enumeration, and the rest, *i.e.*, 220,485 (*m.* 105,175; *f.* 115,310) or

*Density figures given in brackets denote density per square mile and those without per sq. km.

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18.6 per cent were born outside the district but were enumerated within the district while the census was being taken. The whole population is distributed as follows according to birth-places:—

TABLE No. 9.

IMMIGRATION, NĀGPUR DISTRICT, 1951.

Place of birth (1)	Persons (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)
Born in the district of enumeration ..	1,014,071	526,024	488,047
Born in other districts of the same natural division.	67,507	28,496	39,011
Born in other parts of the State	84,014	35,458	48,556
Born in adjacent States	39,483	24,305	15,178
Born in other parts of India	13,592	8,518	5,074
Born in countries beyond India—Pakistan	15,253	8,021	7,232
Born in other Territories beyond India..	636	377	259
Total Population	1,234,556	631,199	603,357

Immigration data according to 1961 Census is as follows:—

TABLE No. 10.

IMMIGRATION, NĀGPUR DISTRICT, 1961.

(1)	Persons (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)
Born in place of enumeration	890,452	529,826	360,626
Born elsewhere in the district of enumeration.	323,822	110,945	212,877
Born in other districts of Mahārāṣṭra ..	164,981	73,921	91,060
Born in India beyond the State of Mahārāṣṭra.	114,275	59,112	55,163
Born in Goa, Daman, Diu	26	5	21
Born in countries in Asia	16,234	8,950	7,284
Born in countries in Europe	67	23	44
Born in countries in Africa	91	42	49
Born in countries in America	20	12	8
Unclassifiable	2,839	1,325	1,514

Of those born outside the Nāgpūr district 30.62 per cent were born in other districts of the same natural division; 38.10 per cent in other parts of the State; 17.91 in adjacent States; 6.16 in other parts of India; 6.92 born beyond India (i.e., in Pakistan) and 0.29 born in other territories beyond India.

An analysis of the immigrants into the Nāgpūr district shows that the largest number is contributed by the adjoining districts of Wardhā 33,791 (*m.* 13,082; *f.* 20,709), Bhaṇḍārā 24,748

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(*m.* 9,485; *f.* 15,263), Chindvāḍā 16,652 (*m.* 7,373; *f.* 9,279) and Cāndā 10,999 (*m.* 4,336; *f.* 6,663). The four districts of Berār have contributed comparatively smaller number of migrants into the Nāgpūr district. The figures are as follows:—

Amrāvatī 19,888 (*m.* 9,244; *f.* 10,644), Yeotmāḷ 6.376 (*m.* 3,000; *f.* 3,376). Akolā 5,297 (*m.* 1,955; *f.* 3,342) and Buldhāṇā 2,155 (*m.* 1,215; *f.* 940).

The casual nature of this migration is obvious from the preponderance of women amongst the migrants.

"In the Nāgpūr district rapid industrialisation has attracted the migrants". The four districts of Berār have contributed a comparatively smaller number of migrants because "Bombay and Hyderābād receive migrants more freely from the areas east of Berār".[1]

Persons of Foreign Birth.

The total number of persons of foreign birth enumerated in the district in 1951 was 15,889 (*m.* 8,398; *f.* 7,491) of whom 15,253 were from Pakistan including the displaced persons, the Pakistan nationals and persons who had migrated before the partition of the country.

Displaced Persons.

The number of displaced persons[2] in Nāgpūr district in 1951 was 14,994 (*m.* 7,802; *f.* 7,192) of whom 1,937 (*m.* 1,002; *f.* 935) were located in the rural areas and 13,057 (*m.* 6,800; *f.* 6,257) in the urban areas. These, as found living in the towns of the district were: Nāgpūr City—11,383; Kāmpṭee—940; Kāmoṭee Cantonment—321; Nārkheḍ—154; Umrer—75; Sāoner—97; Mohpā—36; Kaḷameśvar—15 and Rāmṭek—36.

The figures of arrival of these persons since 1946 till February 1951 were as follows:—

1946—24; 1947—5,874; 1948—7,530; 1949—1,309; 1950—229; February 1951—6.

The livelihood pattern of these persons was as under:—

TABLE No. 11.

DISPLACED PERSONS BY LIVELIHOOD CLASSES, NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1951.

Livelihood Classes (1)	Males (2)	Females (3)
Cultivators of owned land	2	7
Cultivators of unowned land	8	5
Agricultural labourers	5	4
Non-cultivating owners of land	..	1
Production other than cultivation	915	847
Commerce	4,560	4,096
Transport	468	391
Other services and miscellaneous sources	1,844	1,841
Total ..	7,802	7,192

[1] Census of India, 1951, Vol. VII, Madhya Pradesh, Part I-A, Report, p. 29.

[2] Census of India, 1951 (Madhya Pradesh), Nagpur District Census Handbook, pp. 112—17.

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LANGUAGES.

According to the Census of 1961, the languages and dialects returned as 'mother-tongues' found in the district numbered 150. Arranged in the order of total speakers these were as follows:—

(1) Marāṭhī (1,127,992); (2) Hindi (154,865); (3) Urdu (70,738); (4) Goṇḍī (47,446); (5) Koṣṭi (19,470); (6) Sindhī (16,065); (7) Telugu (14,217); (8) Gujarati (12,800); (9) Puñjabi (7,271); (10) Tāmiḷ (7,053); (11) Mārvāḍī (5,371); (12) Baṅgalī (5,047); (13) Bhoyar (2,861); (14) Raghobaṅśī (2,484); (15) Lodhī (2,197); (16) Chattisgaḍī (2,012); (17) Pardeśī (1,659); (18) English (1,536); (19) Halbi (1,425); (20) Malayālam (1,395).

The following eighteen languages or dialects had each less than one thousand speakers:—

Kannaḍa (827); Lamāṇī (742); Nepāḷī (644); Kirārī (626); Garhavālī (615); Rājasthāṇī (585); Oriyā (536); Kachchī (529); Rāṭhaurī (522); Koṅkaṇī (509); Mevāḍī (267); Holiyā (206); Pārdhī (203); Camārī (186); Bañjārī (147); Gurumukhī (147); Rajputānī (140) and Parsee (101).

Those claiming more than twenty speakers each were:—

Arabic (41); Bāghelī (81); Baloci (31); Bihārī (21); Bundelkhaṇḍī (66); Gavḷī (70); Golārī (48); Govārī (28); Gurkhiā (61); Kaikāḍi (27); Kalālī (58); Kāśmirī (29); Kaṭia (99); Madārī (34); Multānī (47); Paśto (37); Sanskṛt (23); and Vaḍari (65).

The remaining 94 dialects accounted for about 505 speakers.

Contrary to the practice of the previous censuses of classifying the languages or dialects, in 1951 and 1961 these were enlisted exactly as returned. It could be seen that eight languages, namely, Marāṭhī, Hindī, Urdu, Goṇḍī, Koṣṭī, Sindhī, Telugu and Gujarātī had each more than ten thousand speakers. These together were spoken by 1,463,593 persons or by 96.8 per cent of the population, 74.5 per cent speaking Marāṭhī, 10.4 Hindī, 4.6 Urdu, 3.01 Goṇḍī, 1.28 Koṣṭī, 1.06 Sindhī, 0.94 Telugu and 0.84 Gujarātī.

Mārathī.

With nearly three-fourths of the population speaking Marāṭhī, it could be said that Marāṭhī is the principal language of the district. According to the Linguistic Survey three main dialects of Marāṭhī Berāri, or that spoken in Berār; Nāgpūrī or the impure dialect of the Nāgpūr country; and the standard Marāṭhī of Pooṇā are distinguishable in the province. The form of the language known as the Nāgpūrī dialect is in general use in the district; it differs in a number of points from the pure Marāṭhī of Pooṇā, but resembles in all essential points the dialect of Berār, which was formerly distinguished from it under the name Berāri. The Koṣṭīs in the district have a jargon of their own, differing slightly from ordinary Nāgpūrī.

Hindi.

Hindī in the Province could be divided into three main divisions, Eastern Hindī, Western Hindī, and Rājasthānī, each of which has almost acquired the status of a distinct language. The Bundelī dialect of Western Hindī is the basis of the Nāgpūr form

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of the language, but as used in the town of Nāgpūr it is a regular jargon, grammar and idioms being mixed up with other forms of Hindī and with Marāṭhī in indescribable confusion.

Hindi.

Urdu.

The bulk of the Muhammedans return themselves as speaking Urdu. In the district, the proportion of Muslims in the population is 5.73 per cent, while that of Urdu speakers is 3.9 per cent showing that 1.28 per cent of the Muslims do not speak Urdu. The whole question of the difference between Hindī and Urdu has been thoroughly dealt with by Dr. Grierson in his report on the Linguistic Survey of India, in which after mature consideration he has classified Urdu as merely a dialect of Western Hindī.*

Goṇḍī.

Goṇḍī is returned by 47,446 persons or 3.7 per cent of the population which is less by 1.9 per cent to that of 1931 and 0.5 to that of 1951. Like all other tribal languages, Goṇḍī has no script or literature. Goṇḍs, when they settle in the plains gradually give up their aboriginal language and begin to speak the language of the locality. The diminution in the percentage of speakers of Goṇḍī is typical of many other tribal languages.

Sindhi

The increase in the percentage of Sindhī speakers who constituted 0.85 per cent of the population at the 1951 Census is due to the influx of Sindhī displaced persons into the State after partition.

Other tongues with significant number of speakers recorded by the Census are Telugu, Gujarātī, Puñjābī, Tāmil, Beṅgālī and Mārvāḍī. The proportion of Telugu speakers has been rising steadily since 1921, due presumably, to the increased immigration of Telugu-speaking people from the bordering districts of Madrās and Hyderābād. Gujarātīs who, in general, belong to the trading class have come here for trade. The influx of speakers of Puñjābī and Beṅgālī may be like that of the Sindhīs[1] (displaced persons) due to conditions after partition.

* Census of India, 1911, Central Provinces and Berar, Vol. X, Pt. I, p. 188.

[1] Census of India, 1951, Vol. VII, Madhya Pradesh, Part I-A, Report.

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TABLE No. 12

BILINGUALISM, NAGPUR DISTRICT (1961)

Mother-tongue	Total Speakers	Persons Speaking Subsidiary Languages	Subsidiary Languages				
			Hindi	Marāṭhi	Gondi	Kosṭi	Gujarāti	Urdu
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Marāṭhī	1,127,992	166,714	145,299	..	1,505	287	255	1,659
Hindi	154,865	55,374	..	45,520	159	4	194	1,154
Urdu	70,738	22,863	15,769	4,436	3	..	147	..
Goṇḍī	47,446	33,034	3,670	29,317	..	..	..	1
Koṣṭī	19,470	9,028	1,120	7,847	..	..	..	1
Sindhi	16,065	8,178	7,423	135	..	..	26	42
Telugu	14,217	8,307	5,344	1,980	..	..	..	8
Gujarāti	12,800	8,138	6,175	710	..	..	..	110

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The general results regarding the return of subsidiary languages according to 1961 census will now be set out. It appears that bilingualism in the case of persons with Marāṭhī as a mother-tongue is not much extensive. Of the 1,127,992 Marāṭhī-speaking people, 166,714, i.e., only 14.8 per cent know a subsidiary language, 12.8 per cent knowing Hindī. But, of the total of 154,865 Hindī-speakers 55,374, i.e., 35.7 per cent know a subsidiary language, 29.4 per cent, knowing Marāṭhī. The 70,738 Urdu-speakers have among them 22,863, i.e., 32.3 per cent who know a subsidiary language, 22.3 per cent knowing Hindī and 8.06 per cent, Marāṭhī. Of the 19,470 persons who are returned as having Koṣṭī as their mother-tongue, 9.028 or 46.3 per cent speak subsidiary languages, 7,847 or 40.3 per cent knowing Marāṭhī and 1,120 or 5.7 per cent knowing Hindī. There are 16,065 Sindhī speakers; of them 50.9 per cent are bilinguists, 7,423 or 46.2 per cent knowing Hindī. Among the 14,217 persons who are Telugu-speakers, bilingualism is found to the extent of 58.4 per cent, 36.8 per cent speaking Hindī and 13.8 per cent Marāṭhī. Gujarāti-speaking persons in the district numbered 12,800 of whom 8,138 or 63.8 were bilinguists, 6,175 or 48.2 per cent knowing Hindī. It is worth while to note here that Hindī as a bi-language has improved to the extent of 3.5 per cent during the decade 1951—61 among the Marāṭhī-speaking people only; otherwise, it has deteriorated among all other linguists.

RELIGIOUS COMMUNITIES.

The numerical strength of the various religious communities and sects in the district as returned by the Census of 1961 is as under:—

TABLE No. 13

POPULATION BY RELIGIOUS COMMUNITIES—DISTRICT NĀGPUR—1961

	Urban		Rural	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Buddhists	57,973	54,856	61,084	0,199
Christians	6,744	6,265	358	322
Hindus	304,661	269,049	299,839	290,698
Jains	3,258	3,082	615	567
Jews	15	28	..	..
Muslims	41,047	35,762	5,750	5,505
Sikhs	2,106	1,773	86	43
Zoroaṣṭrians	487	353	..	..
Tribals	86	73	..	..
Non-Tribals	..	2	..	..
Religion not stated	24	56	28	13
Total ..	416,401	371,299	367,760	357,347

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These include 54,388 (*m.* 27,906; *f.* 26,482) belonging to Scheduled Castes; no person has been returned as belonging to Scheduled Tribes, but 159 (*m.* 86; *f.* 73) are separately returned as Tribals.

In 1951, under the head of 'Other religions' were shown 'Tribals' and 'Non-Tribals'; the district had then no 'tribals'; the non-tribal religions included 38 (*m.* 25; *f.* 13) Khojās, 15 (*m.* 12; *f.* 3) Bohorās and 8 (*m.* 8; *f.* —) Kabirpanthis.

In 1951, there were only 149 (*m.* 63; *f.* 86) Buddhists but their number had increased to 234,112 (*m.* 119,057; *f.* 115,055) in 1961. This sudden increase of the Buddhists is obviously due to the return of a large number from the 'Scheduled Castes', particularly from the *Mahārs*, of 1951 as Buddhists (Neo-Buddhists) in 1961. The 'Scheduled Castes' who numbered 223,546 in 1951 have decreased by 189,158 in 1961. Many of them who might have been returned as Buddhists (Neo-Buddhists) are shown as forming a community separate from that of the Hindus.

HINDUS.

The Hindus, according to the enumeration of 1961 Census numbered 1,164,247 (*m.* 604,500; *f.* 559,747) or 76.8 per cent of the population of the district. Of these 49.2 per cent of the people lived in the urban area, and the rest, i.e., 50.8 per cent in the rural area, and as such they formed 72.8 per cent of the urban population, and 81.4 per cent of the rural population. Their population of 660,976 in 1901 has increased by about 76.1 per cent within sixty years, the mean decennial rates of increase or decrease during the period being +9.2, −4.6, +21.8, +5.67, +22.6 and +1.7, respectively, for each decade.

If the Buddhists are enumerated as Hindus for the year 1961 their combined population which numbers 1,398,359 forms 92.4 per cent of the district population. It shows an increase of 111.5 per cent over the Hindu population of 1901 and a mean decennial growth rate of 19.9 per cent over the Hindu population of 1951.

TABLE No. 14

GROWTH OF HINDU POPULATION—NĀGPUR DISTRICT

Census Year (1)	Persons (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)	Mean Decennial growth-rate (5)
1901	660,976	331,299	329,677	..
1911	725,399	365,125	360,274	+9·2
1921	692,710	351,419	341,291	−4·6
1931	862,519	439,201	423,318	+21·8
1941	911,889	465,141	446,748	+5·67
1951	1,144,411	584,555	559,856	+22·6
1961	1,164,247	604,500	559,747	+1·7

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The trend of the growth of the Hindu population in the district during the last sixty years does not appear to be in consonance with that of the general population for the period. This may be shown as correlated with the fluctuations in the growth of the tribals or the Animists in the district during the time. The fact is well-known that Hinduism is rather a social system than a religious organisation; it is avowedly not a proselytising religion and conversion is achieved by absorption. And it can be seen from the following comparative table of the Hindus and the Animists or tribal population in the district that the Hindu community has grown at the expense of those who once followed tribal religions.

TABLE No. 15

GROWTH OF THE HINDU AND THE TRIBAL POPULATION,*
NĀGPUR DISTRICT

Census Year (1)	Hindus (2)	Mean decennial growth-rate Hindus (3)	Animists and Tribals (4)	Mean decennial growth-rate Tribals (5)
1901	660,976	..	38,497	..
1911	725,399	9·2	36,003	−6·6
1921	692,710	−4·6	52,062	36·4
1931	862,519	21·8	9,784	−136·7
1941	911,889	5·67	66,471	148·6
1951	1,144,411	22·6	Nil	Nil

Castes.

The Hindu community is found divided into various socially differentiated groups better known as castes. In consonance with the changes in Government policy, the Census enumeration has ceased to take cognisance of these groups since 1941. However, of the ninety or more castes enumerated in the district in 1931 the following ones could be considered as important. (Figures of male and female population are given in bracket against each caste and its traditional occupation, arranged alphabetically).

Ahir, graziers, (3,092; 2,555); *Bahānā*, cotton carders, (2,529; 2,543); *Baniā*—Hindu and Jain traders, (5,486; 4,733); *Badhāi*, carpenters, (7,653; 7,494) *Bhoyar*, agriculturists, (1,989; 1,906); *Brāhmaṇ*, priests, (21,494; 16,344); *Cāmbhār*, leather-workers, (5,074; 4,979); *Darzi*, tailor, (2,029; 1,984); *Dhimār*, water-bearers, (11,871; 11,698); *Dhobī*, washermen, (4,583; 4,589); *Goṇḍ*—Hindu, agriculturists, (21,546; 21,801); *Goṇḍ*-tribals, (4,925; 4,730); *Govārī*, graziers, (11,020; 10,940); *Kalār*,

* The population figures are as given by the censuses without regard to the transfer of territory during the decades.

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distillers, (5,278 ; 4,969) ; *Kāyastha*, writers, (1,028 ; 928) ; *Koṣṭi*, cotton-weavers, (23,822 ; 23,327) ; *Kumbhār*, potters, (2,172 ; 2,166) ; *Kuṇbī*, agriculturists, (89,934 ; 86,345) ; *Lodhī*, agriculturists, (4,652 ; 4,604) ; *Lohār*, iron smith, (6,202 ; 6,049) ; *Māḷī*, vegetable and fruit growers, (17,366 ; 16,708) ; *Manā*, agriculturists, (2,308 ; 2,345) ; *Māṅg*, native musicians, (4,523 ; 4,659) ; *Marāṭhā*, soldiers, (5,081 ; 4,877) ; *Mehrā*, cotton-weavers, (82,360 ; 82,477) ; *Mehtar*, scavengers, (2,314 ; 2,175) ; *Mhālī*, barbers, (5,468 ; 5,554) ; *Pardhan*, tribal-priests, (3,009 ; 5,398) ; *Rajput*, soldiers, (6,650 ; 5,398) ; *Sonār*, goldsmiths, (5,716, 5,778) ; and *Telī*, oil-pressers, (40,317 ; 39,625).

Of these the most numerous castes in the district in 1931 were the *Kuṇbīs*, the *Mehrās* or *Mahars*, the *Telīs*, the *Gonds*, the *Koṣṭis*, the *Brahmaṇs*, the *Maḷīs*, the *Dhimārs*, the *Gowarīs*, and the *Barhāis* who constituted respectively about 19, 17, 8.5, 5.6, 5, 4, 3.6, 2.5, 2.3 and 1.6 per cent of the population.

Speaking generally about these castes the old District Gazetteer of Nāgpūr (1908)* states : The most numerous castes in the district are the *Kuṇbīs* constituting 20 per cent of the population, and the *Mahārs* or *Mehrās* 16 per cent. *Brāhmaṇs* are the largest proprietors and own 750 villages or a third of the total number and next to them come *Kuṇbīs* with 440. The bulk of the population are of *Marāṭhā* extraction, but in the north of the district there is a fair sprinkling of Hindustāni castes, *Kirārs*, *Lodhīs* and *Rāghwīs*, who have come down from the Sātpuḍā plateau, and these are the best agriculturists. *Gonds* are the only forest tribe, constituting 6 per cent of the population, but many of them have taken to work in the mines, and as coolies and porters in towns, and except in features are hardly distinguishable from Hindus. The remainder live principally in the tracts adjoining the Sātpuḍā hills to the north.

The old Gazetteer describing at some length these caste-groups makes some pertinent observations about them. Written as early as 1908 the account derives now some historical value and it is worth while to mention a part of it which to some extent still holds good.

Brāhmaṇs.

Of the *Brāhmaṇ* community the majority consisted of *Marāṭhā Brāhmaṇs* of *Deśastha* sub-caste, whose home is Pooṇā country above the western ghāṭs, as distinguished from the *Koṅkaṇasthas* who belong to the Bombay Koṅkaṇ or littoral, and the *Karhāḍes* from Sātārā and the north. These are further divided into sects such as *Ṛgvedīs* and *Yajurvedīs* according to the Vedas from which the prayers which they recite are taken. Inter-marriage was formerly prohibited among these sub-castes. *Marāṭhā Brāhmaṇs* generally use three names, their own Christian name, their father's and their surnames. They have also a *gotra* or exogamous group named after a *Ṛṣī* or saint of Vedic times.

* R. V. Russel, Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Nāgpūr District, Vol. A (1908), pp. 74—96.

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Mr. Craddock * describes the *Marāṭhā Brāhmaṇs* as follows:—

'As traders, moneylenders and lawyers, the *Brāhmaṇs* are most successful, but as landlords they fall far below the ideal standard. As clerks and officials they are second to none, and they almost monopolise the subordinate appointments in Government service. An outsider in an office largely manned by *Marāṭhā Brāhmaṇs* stands a very small chance of success. ..... Excellent judges of character themselves, they are past masters in concealing their own thoughts. Their abhorrence of practical and mechanical work is also beginning to give way. *Brāhmaṇs* have become thoroughly practical as well as scientific agriculturists, and have also taken to engineering and other professions.'

Marāṭhās.

The *Marāṭhās* are castes formed from military service, and it seems probable that they sprang mainly from the peasant population of *Kuṇbīs* and followed Śivājī in his guerilla warfare against the armies of Auraṅgzeb. In the Central Provinces the *Marāṭhās* are divided into 96 exogamous clans which marry with each other. But the Bhosle Rājās selected seven of the highest clans including their own, and confined their alliances to these. The names of these clans are, Bhosle, Gujar, Mohite, Śirke, Mahāḍik, Phāḷke and Ahirrāv. Now that the authority of the ruling chief has been removed, this arrangement, though still commonly observed, has in some cases been violated. The *Marāṭhās* proper seclude their women, do not permit them to wear silver ornaments on the arms or to spin cotton, and prohibit widow-marriage.

Speaking about the *Marāṭhā* families connected with the Bhosles Mr. Craddock observed:—

Many of them own villages or hold tenant land, but as a rule they are extravagant in their living ; and several of the old *Marāṭhā* nobility have fallen very much in world. .....The sons are brought up to no employment and the daughters are married with lavish pomp and show. ..... It is a question whether their pride of race will give way before the necessity of earning their livelihood soon enough for them to maintain or regain some of their former position ; otherwise those with the largest landed estates may be saved by the intervention of Government, but the rest must gradually deteriorate till the dignities of their class have become a mere memory. The humble members of the caste find their employment as petty contractors or traders, private servants, Government peons, sowars, and hangers-on in the retinue of the more important families.

Kuṇbīs.

The *Kuṇbīs*, the traditional tillers of the soil, have several sub-castes, of whom the *Tiroles* are considered the highest. These generally held offices of Deśmukh under indigenous rule, and the Deśmukh families have taken to marrying among themselves and prohibiting widow-marriage. The *Mānes* and

*Craddock R. M., Settlement Report (1899).

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Dhānojes are the lowest sub-divisions. *Mānes* appear to be *Mānās* who have become *Kuṇbīs*; the *Dhānojes* are probably an offshoot from the *Dhangar* caste of shepherds. The *Bāones* take their name from the term Bāvan, formerly applied to Berār; and the *khaires* from the occupation of boiling catechu from the bark of the *Khair* tree.

Speaking about this caste Mr. Craddock remarked: 'To the outside world the *Kuṇbī* is regarded as the embodiment of the agriculturist and the term *Kuṇbī* has become the generic name for professional cultivator. He is certainly a most plodding, patient mortal with a cat-like affection for his land. Some of the more intelligent and ffluent of the caste, who have risen to be among the most prosperous members of the community, are as shrewd men of business in their way as any section of the people, though lacking in education. But of the general body of the *Kuṇbī* caste it is true to say that in the matter of enterprise, a capacity to hold their own with the money-lender, determination to improve their standard of comfort or their style of agriculture, they lag far behind the cultivating classes as the *Kirār*, the *Rāghvī* and the *Lodhī*. However, he is much their superior in endurance under adversity, is more law-abiding, and commands both by reason of his character and caste, greater social respect among the people at large.

Northern Cultivating Castes.

'The *Kirārs*, *Rāghvīs* and *Lodhīs*', Mr. Craddock remarked, 'are exceptionally good cultivators and represent the immigrants from Hindustān (upper India), as distinguished from *Kuṇbīs* who are immigrants from Mahārāṣṭra. The *Kirārs* are concentrated in the rich wheat country of the Thārsā plain. They are much given to display. Extravagance ruins a great many of the community, and they have no compunction about preying on each other. Still, with all their faults, they take high place among the cultivators, a position which would be impossible if they had no compensating virtue.

The *Rāghvīs* who are but *Raghuvaṅśis* of Chindvāḍā have by their pushing character occupied the most fertile tracts of the Sāoner and Nārkheḍ country. Though of Rajput descent, they are of mixed blood, and have split off into a separate caste. Some have a sect of their own and have *gurus* or priests, discarding Brāhmaṇs. Though fond of comfort a *Rāghvī* combines a good deal of thrift with it, and whatever may happen to other classes, he will never give way to the money-lender.

The *Lodhīs* are good cultivators and generally men of strong character, but their constant family feuds and love of faction militate against their prosperity.

Koṣṭīs.

Among the artisan-castes the principal are the *Koṣṭīs* who are still engaged in the production of finer kinds of cotton cloth. They are found in great number generally in Nāgpūr, Umrer and other smaller towns. The old Gazetteer reproduces a description of the community from the Nāgpūr Settlement

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Report which though may strike as quaint at present pictures well a situation arising at the time an artisan caste had to face the inception of mechanised labour and factory life. The account says—

"The *Koṣṭī* is an inveterate grumbler and indeed from his point of view he has a great deal to complain of. On the one hand the price of raw cotton and the cost of his living have increased very largely; on the other hand the product of his loom commands no higher price than it did before and he cannot rely on selling it when the market is slack. He cannot adapt himself to the altered environments and clings to his loom. He dislikes rough manual labour, and alleges, no doubt with truth, that it deprives him of the delicacy of touch needed in weaving the finer cloths. If prices rise he is the first to be distressed, and on relief works he cannot perform the requisite task and has to be treated with special indulgence. The mills have been established many years in Nāgpūr, but very few of the older weavers have sought employment there. They have begun to send their children but work at home themselves, though they nearly all use machine-spun yarn. The *Koṣṭīs* are quarrelsome and addicted to drink, and they have generally been the chief instigators of grain riots when prices rise. They often marry several wives and their houses swarm with a proportionate number of children. But although the poorer members of the community are in struggling circumstances, and are put to great straits when prices of food rise, those who turn out the finer silk-bordered work are fairly prosperous in ordinary times ..... Though riotous, the *Koṣṭīs* are not physically strong ..... They are a religious caste and are divided into numerous sects. Some are Kabirpanthis, other Liṅgāyats and Śivites. In Nāgpūr they have two or three other sects, one of which consists of the followers of a local saint Kolibā Bābā—a miracle-worker. As already stated the *Koṣṭīs* marry a number of wives to obtain their assistance in spinning-work and in the preparation of the frame of the warp. Without several assistants a weavers' business does not pay at present, and a wife is really a factory hand. Well-to-do *Koṣṭīs* buy or occasionally steal as many women as they can, and cases in which wives are sold or mortgaged are by no means unknown."[1]

Mahārs.

Mahārs or *Mehrās* formed about 17 per cent (1931) of the population. "Looked down upon as outcastes by the Hindus, they are hampered by no sense of dignity or family prejudice. They are fond of drinking but are also hard workers. They turn their hands to anything and every thing, but the great majority of them are agricultural labourers. If there is only one well in the village he may not use it but has to get his water supply from where he can. His sons are consigned to a corner in the village school and the schoolmaster, if not superior to caste prejudices, discourages their attendance. Nevertheless *Mahārs* will not

[1] Central Provinces District Gazetteer Nāgpūr District (1908), p. 84.

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remain for years down-trodden in this fashion and are already pushing themselves up from this state of degradation. In some places they have combined to dig wells and in Nāgpūr have opened a school for members of their own community".[1] Occasionally a *Mahār* is the most prosperous man in the village. Several of them are money-lenders in a small way and a few are *mālguzārs*.

A large number of the *Mahārs* have turned to Buddhism following the lead given by Dr. Ambedkar and call themselves as neo-Buddhists. In schools, colleges and in Government services a number of seats are reserved for them and economic aid is given. Conscious and painstaking efforts by social workers to create a proper social attitude as also by the members of their own community to come up in various spheres have helped to overcome the former prejudices, and a new trend has begun.

The other important castes in the district are the *Telīs*, the *Māḷīs*, the *Dhimārs*, the *Govārīs*, and the *Barhāi*.

Telīs.

Telīs, the occupational caste of oil pressers and sellers though found in great number in the district have now generally abandoned their hereditary trade and have taken to agriculture, the number actually engaged in oil-pressing being about seven per cent. The caste has a large number of sub-divisions. On Nāgpūr side the principal sub-divisions are the *Ekbaile* and the *Dobaile*, so called because they used to yoke one or two bullocks, respectively, to the oil-press. The distinction is still maintained, the *Dobaile* being also known as *Tarāṇe*. Each sub-caste is divided into a number of exogamous groups for the regulation of marriages. The names of the groups appear to be taken either from villages or titles or nicknames. The derivation of most of them cannot be deciphered except for a few such as *Bāghmāre* (*Vāghmare*), a tiger-killer; *Deśmukh*, a village officer; *Vaidya*, a physician; *Bāvankule*, the fifty-two steps; *Sātpute*, seven sons; *Caudhari*, a caste headman; and *Śanīcar*, born on Saturday. The marriage of persons of the same sept and of first cousin is usually forbidden. Divorce and widow-marriage are permitted. The caste especially revere Mahadev or Śiva, who gave them the oil-mill. They do not work the mill on Monday, because it is Mahādev's day. Like other low castes the *Telīs* of Nāgpūr make the sacrifice of a pig to Nārāyaṇ Dev or the Sun God at intervals. The social status of the *Telī* was in the past considered low, in the group of castes from which *Brāhmaṇs* would not take water, and below such menials as the blacksmith and carpenter. The *Telī* was considered a caste of bad omen. The proverb says, 'God protect me from a *Telī*, *Cāmbhār* and a *Dhobī*', and the *Telī* was considered the most unlucky of the three.

The opening up of oil-mills have robbed a number of them of their traditional occupation. However, the *Telīs* are a very enterprising caste, and the great bulk of them have abandoned

[1] Nāgpūr Settlement Report, para 58.

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Telī.

their traditional occupation and taken to others which are more profitable. Many of them have become money-lenders in a small way, and some have even acquired property. They are also shopkeepers and petty traders travelling about with goods like the *Banjārās*.

Māḷī, the functional caste of vegetable and flower gardeners, derives the name from the Sanskṛt *Mālā*, a garland. The caste has numerous endogamous groups, varying in different localities. The *Phulmāḷīs*, who derive their name from their occupation of growing and selling flowers (*phul*), usually rank as the highest. The *Jire Māḷīs* are so named because they were formerly the only sub-caste who would grow cumin (*Jire*), but this distinction no longer exists as other *Māḷīs*, except perhaps the *Phulmāḷīs*, now grow it. The caste has also exogamous septs or *vargas*, with designations taken from villages, titles or nicknames or inanimate objects. Marriage is forbidden between members of the same sept and between first and second cousins. Girls were once betrothed in childhood and married before maturity. The marriage ceremony follows the standard form prevalent in the locality. Widow-marriage is permitted. Like other castes practising intensive cultivation the *Māḷīs* once married several wives where they could afford it. The dead may be either buried or burnt; in the former case the corpse is laid with the feet to the north. Devī is the principal deity of the *Māḷīs*, weddings being celebrated in front of her temple.

The *Māḷī* combines the callings of a gardener and nursery man. In laying out a flower-garden and in arranging beds he is an expert. Many *Māḷīs* live in the towns and keep vegetable or flower-gardens just outside. They sell flowers, and the *Māḷī* girls are very good flower-sellers. The *Māḷī* also prepares the *maur* or marriage crown both for the bride and the bridegroom at marriages.

Dhimār.

Dhimār, the caste of fishermen and palanquin-bearers derives the name from a corruption of the Sanskṛt *Dhivara*, a fisherman. It has a large number of sub-divisions of a local or occupational nature. The *Śiṅgāḍā* or those who cultivate *Śiṅgāḍā* nut; the *Nādhā* or those who live on banks of streams, and the *Dhuriās* who sell parched rice. A large number of exogamous groups are also returned, either of titular or totemistic nature: such as *Bāghmār* or *Vaghmār*, tiger-slayer; *Giḍhve*, a vulture; and *Kolhe* or jackal. Marriage is prohibited between members of the same sept and also between first cousins. In many localities families do not intermarry so long as they remember any relationship to have existed between them. Two families may exchange daughters in marriage. A custom exists among the poorer *Dhimārs* of postponing the marriage ceremony to avoid expense; a man will thus simply take a girl for his wife, making a payment of Rs. 1.25 or so to her father and giving a feast to the community. She will then live in the house as his wife, and at some subsequent date, perhaps in old age, the religious ceremony will be held so that the couple may have been properly married

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HINDUS.

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before they die. In this fashion the weddings of grandparents, parents and children have all been celebrated simultaneously. Widow-marriage is freely permitted; divorce is allowed, but is of rare occurrence. Adultery on the part of wife will be frequently overlooked, and the extreme step of divorcing her is only taken if she creates a public scandal. When a widower marries a second time his wife sometimes wears a *tawiz* or amulet round her neck in order to ward off the evil machinations of her predecessor's spirit. *Dhimars* usually bury the dead, cremation being beyond their means.

The occupations of *Dhimar* are many and various. Primarily he is a fisherman and a boatman. He is adept in various methods of river-fishing and is also regularly employed as a worker on a ferry. He monopolises growing *Śiṅgaḍe* or water-nuts in tanks; also grows melons, cucumbers and other vegetables on the sandy stretches along the banks of streams, but at agriculture proper he does not excel. The *Dhimār's* connection with water has led to his becoming the water-carrier for Hindus. Another business of the *Dhimars* is to take sweet potatoes and boiled plums to the fields in harvest times and sell them; he also supplies water for drinking to the reapers and receives from them shares in payment. With the introduction of wheeled transport the *Dhimār's* or *Bhoi's* occupation as carriers of palanquins or litters has dwindled. Because of his comparative social purity all castes will take water and cakes and sweetmeats from a *Dhimar*. The *Dhimar* is often seen selling parched grain and rice to travellers in markets and railway stations.

Govārī.

Govārī the herdsman or grazier caste corresponds to the *Aḥirs* or *Gavḷis*. The name is derived from *gai* or *gāo*, the cow, and means a cowherd. Many of the caste have largely abandoned the work of grazing cattle in the forest and have taken to more profitable business of making milk and ghee. They have three divisions, the *Gāi-Govārī*, *Iṅgā* and *Marīā* or *Goṇḍ-Govārī*, the *Gāi* or cow *Govārīs* being considered the highest. The *Govārīs* have exogamous sections of the titular and totemistic types, such as: *Cañcamia* from *cacan*, a bird; *Lohār* from *loha*, iron; *Ambādare*, a mango branch; *Kohriā* from *Kohri* or *Kohli* caste; and *Sarvariā*, and *Goṇḍ* sept. Some septs do not permit inter-marriage between their members, saying that they are *Dudh-Bhāis* or foster-brothers. Marriage is prohibited within the same section or *kuḷ*, and as mentioned above between sections related to each other as *Dudh-Bhais*. Girls are usually married after attaining maturity, and a bride-price is paid by way of grain, cash and cloth. The auspicious date of the wedding is calculated by a *Mehrā mohturia* or soothsayer. *Brāhmaṇs* are not employed, the ceremony being performed by the *bhanyā* or sister's son of either the girl's father or the boy's father. The wedding is held mainly according to the *Marāṭhā* ritual. Divorce and the remarriage of widow are permitted. The dead are either buried or burned, burial being more common. The principal deities of the *Govārīs* are the *Kaḍe Koḍvan* or deified

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ancestors. All *Govārīs* revere the *haryāl*, or green pigeon calling it a kinsman. The community has a caste committee the head of which is known as Śaṇḍia. He is elected and holds office for life.

Badhāi, the occupational caste of carpenters is naturally most numerous in large towns. The name *Badhāi* is said to be from the Sanskṛt *Vardhika* and the root *vardh*, to cut. *Sutār* is a common name of the caste, and is from *Sutra-dhāra*, meaning a holder of string, referring to the strings used in planning and measuring. The caste is of comparatively recent growth as is shown by its sub-divisions. There are sub-castes like *Pardeśī* or *foreigner*, so also *Jāṭ* and *Telī Badhāis*, consisting of *Jāṭ* and *Telīs* (oil-pressers) who have taken to carpentry. The castes are also divided into exogamous septs named after villages. In some localities they have no septs, but only surnames, and persons of the same surname cannot intermarry. *Brāhmaṇ* priests are employed at weddings, though on other occasions their services are occasionally dispensed with. The caste worship *Viśvakarmā*, the celestial architect, and venerate their trade implements on the *Dasarā* festival. In some localities well-to-do members of the caste have begun to wear the sacred thread.

In cities the carpenters are rapidly acquiring an increased degree of skill as the demand for a better class of houses and furniture becomes continually greater and more extensive. In villages he works as a village artisan and makes and mends plough and harrow and other wooden implements of agriculture for which he receives annual contribution of grain from each cultivator.

JAINS.

Jains, according to the Census of 1961, numbered 7,522 (*m.* 3,873; *f.* 3,649) in the district, 6,340 (*m.* 3,258; *f.* 3,082) in the urban area and 1,182 (*m.* 615; *f.* 567) in the rural one. In 1951 they numbered 3,977 (*m.* 2,010; *f.* 1,967) in Nagpur City. Their population in the district in 1951, 1941, 1931 and 1921 was 5,216 (*m.* 2,618; *f.* 2,598), 3,916 (*m.* 2,104; *f.* 1,812), 3,621 (*m.* 1,827; *f.* 1,794 and 2,732 (*m.* 1,378; *f.* 1,354), respectively. According to the old District Gazetteer, 'the number of Jains had decreased from 3,141 in 1891 to 2,675 in 1901'[1]. It appears that during the sixty years since 1901 the community has increased by about 181.2 per cent in the district.

In 1931, the community was returned as consisting of 938 (*m.* 493; *f.* 445) as Hindus and 2,683 (*m.* 1,334; *f.* 1,349) as Jains. In 1921 owing to representation made by the Jain Associations of Bombay and Calcutta instructions for a sect-wise enumeration of the community were given, and accordingly it was returned as consisting of 635 (*m.* 318; *f.* 317) *Digambars*, 65 (*m.* 39; *f.* 26) *Śvetāmbars* and three females of *Terāpanthī* in the district; 2,030 (*m.* 1,022; *f.* 1,008) were returned as 'unspecified'[2].

[1] Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Nagpur District, 1908, p. 71.

[2] Census, 1921, Central Provinces and Berar, Vol. XI, Pt. II, p. 30.

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JAINS.

The Jains are divided into two principal sects, the *Digambars* and *Śvetambars*. The *Digambars* are the more numerous and the stricter sect, but their proportion is not so high in Nāgpūr as in the rest of the province. The principal tenet of the Jains is to avoid the destruction of all animal, including insect life; but the Hindu *Banias* who are practically all *Vaiṣṇavas*, observe almost the same tenderness for animal life as the Jains. The Jains are distinguished by their separate temples and methods of worship, and they do not recognise the authority of the Vedas nor revere the *Liṅgam* of Śiva. In other respects they closely resemble the Hindus. *Brahmaṇs* are often employed at their weddings, they revere the cow, worship sometimes in Hindu temples, go on pilgrimages to the Hindu sacred places, and follow the Hindu law of inheritance. In Nagpūr the Jains are nearly all *Marvaḍi Banias* and are engaged in trade and banking. Consequently they are much wealthier than other castes. The former hostility between Jain and Hindus has nearly vanished. They take food together but many not intermarry in a large way. Like *Banias* and other trading communities the Jains are still tardy to give English education to their children. The most orthodox among them are almost unaffected by the modern tendency towards the abolition of caste restrictions. Although widow remarriage is not permissible among them, reformers have now sprung up who advocate such marriages. A few such marriages which have been performed were countenanced by many in the community.

CHRISTIANS.

The Christians in the district, according to 1961 Census, numbered 13,689 (*m.* 7,102 ; *f.* 6,587) or about 0.9 per cent of the general population. Of these, 13,009 (*m.* 6,744 ; *f.* 6,265) persons, or about 95 per cent resided in the urban area, and 680 (*m.* 358 ; *f.* 322), or about 5 per cent in the rural area. The population which numbered 6,163 (including 2,870 Europeans and Eurasians) in 1901 has increased by about 122 per cent during the last sixty years, the mean decennial rate of increase or decrease for the period being +1.3, +6.07, +25.3, +3.6, +9.9 and +33.68, respectively, for each decade. In 1951 the population included 661 (*m.* 385, *f.* 276) Anglo-Indians.

TABLE No. 16

GROWTH OF CHRISTIAN POPULATION—NĀGPŪR DISTRICT.

Census Year (1)	Persons (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)	Mean decennial growth-rate (5)
1901	6,163	3,486	2,677	..
1911	6,245	3,764	2,481	+1·3
1921	6,635	3,792	2,843	+6·07
1931	8,558	4,810	3,748	+25·3
1941	8,877	4,589	4,288	+3·6
1951	9,803	4,686	5,117	+9·9
1961	13,689	7,102	6,587	+33·08

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CHRISTIANS.

Christian Organisations.

Christians in the district belong to two main groups:— (a) the Roman Catholics, (b) Other Christian Denominations.

Roman Catholics: "The Catholic mission was started from Savoy in France in 1846, the headquarters being fixed at Kāmpṭee, where the first church and school was built in 1852. In 1870, the St. Francis de Sales' school was built at Nāgpūr and the centre of the mission was transferred there. The diocese was established in 1887"[1], and in September 1953 it was raised to an Archdiocese. The St. Francis de Sales' Cathedral which has an Archbishop is the main church in the Archdiocese. The clergy for the most part are Indians. The following are some of the more important institutions existing in the Archdiocese:—

(a) The St. Francis de Sales' Cathedral; (b) The St. Francis de Sales' High School, Nāgpūr; (c) The St. John's High School; (d) The St. Francis de Sales' College, a full-fledged Arts and Science College teaching up to the Bachelor's degree; from June 1962 it has started a Post-Graduate Diploma Course in Co-operation; (e) The St. Charles's Seminary: an ecclesiastical College for the training of Catholic priests; (f) Educational Institutions for girls run by Catholic nuns: (i) St. Joseph's Convent, (ii) Providence Girls' High School, (iii) Mount Carmel School, Dhantolī, (iv) St. Joseph's Convent High School, Kāmpṭee, (g) The St. Anthony's Church and the St. Anthony's High School, Ajanī, (h) The Poor House, Sakkardarā, where lepers, diseased and aged people are looked after and cared for by nuns.

The Archdiocese also runs a number of churches, missions schools (mainly primary and middle), and charitable organisations in the mofussil.

Other Christian Denominations: (a) The Church of India, Pakistan, Burma and Ceylon (C.I.P.B.C.) formerly known as the Anglican Church has a Bishop at Nāgpūr who is the Head of the Anglican diocese with Nāgpūr as headquarters. This diocese was founded in 1902 and consists of the Nāgpūr and Chattisgad divisions of the former Central Provinces. The Church of All Saints is the Cathedral Church of this diocese. It conducts the Bishop Cotton High School, a co-educational institution in Nāgpūr. (b) The United Church of North India: The most prominent figure of this church organisation was the Rev. Stephen Hislop, whose name is well known for his geological and ethnographical researches in the country round Nāgpūr, and in whose memory the Hislop College has been named. The Church runs the Hislop College in Nāgpūr, a full-fledged Arts and Science College with a Post-Graduate Course in Journalism, which has done yeoman service in the field of higher education in this area. It also maintains the church at Nāgpūr, and some primary, middle and high schools. The renowned Muir Memorial Hospital also belongs to it.

[1] Nāgpūr Gazetteer (1908) P, 73.

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CHRISTIANS.

Christian Organisations.

The Catholic population in the district consists of Goans, Maṅglorians, East-Indians, Tāmiḷians and Malayāḷis found chiefly in towns. They have come in search of jobs from their home provinces and have settled down here since the past few decades. The Anglo-Indian section of the Catholic population (and this is true also of the Anglo-Indians belonging to the Other Christian Denominations) has been steadily diminishing since the last decade, as they have been leaving India for United Kingdom. The *Marāṭhī* Catholics are local Catholics. They mostly reside in rural areas, though some have also drifted from there into the towns and industrialised centres which offer better scope for employment.

MUSLIMS.

The Muslims according to the 1961 Census, number 88,064 (*m.* 46,797 ; *f.* 41,267) or about 5.8 per cent of the population. This population which has increased by about 106.2 per cent since 1901 held then nearly the same percentage to the general population. Of the total Muslim population 76,809 (*m.* 41,047 ; *f.* 35,762) or about 87.2 per cent live in the urban area, and the remaining 11,255 (*m.* 5,750 ; *f.* 5,505) or about 12.8 per cent in the rural area.

The community which numbered 70,789 (*m.* 36,804 ; *f.* 33,956) in the 1951 had a tract-wise distribution over the district as follows :—

Rural Tracts: 11,783 (*m.* 6,154 ; *f.* 5,629) ; Rāmṭek *tahsīl*, 1,699 (*m.* 861 ; *f.* 838) ; Sāoner *tahsīl*, 1,715 (*m.* 951 ; *f.* 764) ; Nāgpūr *tahsīl*, 3,751 (*m.* 1,767 ; *f.* 1,984) ; Umrer *tahsīl*, 1,387 (*m.* 651 ; *f.* 736) ; and Kāṭol *tahsīl*, 3,231 (*m.* 1,924 ; *f.* 1,307).

Urban Tracts: 59,006 (*m.* 30,650 ; *f.* 28,356) ; Nāgpūr City 42,841 (*m.* 22,448 ; *f.* 20,393) ; District (Non-city Urban), 16,165 (*m.* 8,202 ; *f.* 7,963).

TABLE No. 17

GROWTH OF MUSLIM POPULATION, NĀGPŪR DISTRICT.

Census Year (1)	Persons (2)	Male (3)	Female (4)	Mean decennial growth-rate (5)
1901	42,573	21,955	20,618	..
1911	38,432	20,047	18,385	−10·2
1921	37,391	19,957	17,434	−2·7
1931	53,809	29,366	24,443	+36·00
1941	66,545	35,781	30,764	+21·1
1951	70,789	36,804	33,985	+6·2
1961	88,064	46,797	41,267	+2·17

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MUSLIMS.

The Muslims in the district have come from all directions, some from Delhi and Uttar Pradeś, some from Berār and the west, but probably the greatest number from the former Hyderābād State in the south. Only a few families can date their first settlement in the district as far back as the commencement of the 18th Century when the bulk of them came during and after the *Marāṭhā* occupation. Many of them can claim descent from officers in the old Bhosle and English armies, and some, though illegitimate, children from the old *Rājās* and *Marāṭhā* nobility. Like the *Marāṭhās* many of them have lost their ancestral property and are found struggling to keep up appearance on an attenuated pension. But those less hampered by past dignity have been more successful, some taking to trade and others acquiring landed property and managing it well.

Though generally backward in education and easily spoilt by prosperity, Muslims as a class are more united than the Hindus. The better educated among them extend their efforts to improve the condition of their community even to the very poorest. A number of them are employed in the police and the army, and in the subordinate ranks of Government service. The community includes a number of artisan castes, principally *Momins* and *Julāhas* who are weavers, and *Bahnas* and *Piñjārīs* who are cotton-cleaners. The *Momins* belong chiefly to Kāmptee and weave cloth on hand-loom and power-loom. The *Piñjārīs* have generally found their occupation gone with the establishment of ginning factories, and have taken to cultivation and petty trade. Others are *Kāceras*, glass bangle-makers ; *Kuñjāras*, green grocers ; *Kasāis*, butchers ; and the *Raṅgārīs*, a caste of dyers who once used to dye with safflower. The *Bohorā* and *Khojā* merchants who are of the Śia sect, and the *Cutchis* or *Memāns* from Gujarāt, who are also traders, are foreigners to the district. Many of them do not bring their wives with them, though by now they have begun to settle here. These Muslim groups are known as converts from Hinduism and are therefore, looked down upon by the proper or respectable Muslims such as Śaikh, Sayyad, Moghal and Paṭhāṇ all of whom claim a foreign strain.

The term Sayyad properly means descendant of Ali the son-in-law, and the Lady Fātimāh, the daughter of the prophet. They use the title Sayyad or Mir before, and sometimes Śāh after their name, while women employ that of *Begum*. The title Śaikh properly belongs only to the three branches of the Quraiś tribe or that of Muhammad: the Siddikis, the Faruk and the Abbāsis. Both these titles, however, and especially Śaikh, are now arrogated by large number of persons who cannot have any pretence to the above descent. The term Śaikh means properly an elder, and is freely taken by persons of respectable position. Śaikhs commonly use either Śaikh or Muhammad as their first names. The Paṭhāṇs were originally the descendants of Afghāṇ immigrants. The men add Khān to their names and the women Khātun or Khātu. Moghals use the title Mirzā before their names, and add Beg after them ; the women add the designation Khātun after their names. Formerly the Sayyad constituted the

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MUSLIMS.

superior class of Muslim gentry, and never touched a plough themselves, like the Hindu *Brāhmaṇs* and Rajputs. The four divisions are not like the Hindu castes as they are not endogamous. Nor is there any distinction of occupation between them, the men following any occupation indifferently. In fact, the divisions are now little more than titular.

PARSEES.

The Parsees numbered 840 (*m.* 487 ; *f.* 353) in the district in 1961, almost all living in the urban area. They numbered 481 ; 574 ; 795 ; 1,047 ; 1,053 and 1,706 in 1901, 1911, 1921, 1931, 1941 and 1951, respectively, the increase in their population in the district since 1901 being nearly 74.6 per cent. It appears that the community which numbered 1,706 (*m.* 1,112 ; *f.* 592) in the district in 1951 has dwindled by about 50.7 per cent in 1961, the decrease being in all probability due to emigration.

The Parsees also known as Zoroastrians or the followers of the religion of Zoroaster are supposed to have emigrated to India from Persia in about 766 A.D. Parsees of Nāgpūr originally immigrated from Bombay, though many of the families are now of long standing in the district.

As enterprising traders Parsees are essentially town-dwellers. They adopted English education and habits with avidity during the British rule, and this gave them an advantage over the *Baniās*, as they would engage in any kind of business that came to hand, such as shopkeeping, liquor-contracts and timber trade, to which the *Mārvāḍis* were unable to adapt themselves. At present the Parsees base their manner of life very largely on that of the westerners. Their women are perhaps the best educated in India after Europeans and Anglo-Indians ; they are in no way secluded. A century back the Parsees would not eat *pakki*, i.e., food cooked by non-Parsees. But such a custom is now more honoured in the breach than in observance among the laity. The priesthood, especially the officiating priesthood, still abstain from food prepared by non-Parsees. Most Parsees are at present of course either businessmen, industrialists or Government servants, but even then the number of distinguished public men drawn from this small community is surprising.

RELIGION.

Hinduism.

Except for the small body mainly of *Baniās* who follow Jainism, the Hindus of the district belong to two main classes: (1) Brāhmānic Hindus including *Brāhmaṇs* and other castes who worship Brāhmānic gods, and employ *Brāhmaṇs* as their priests ; (2) low-caste and tribal Hindus who mainly worship non-Brāhmānic and animistic deities.

Brāhmānism.

The religion of the *Brāhmaṇs* is Hinduism, of which they are the priests and exponents. Most *Brāhmaṇs* belong to a sect worshipping especially Śiva or Viṣṇu, Rāma and Kṛṣṇa, the incarnations of the latter god, or *Śakti*, the female principle of energy of Śiva.

Animism.

To describe the religious beliefs of the Hindus of the lower caste the term Animism is often used. It denotes technically, the collection of beliefs possessed by the Dravidian tribes who have not even nominally been admitted to the caste system or become

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Animism.

Hindus. The general nature of Animism may perhaps be explained as the belief that everything which has life or motion has also a soul or spirit, and all natural phenomena are caused by direct personal agency. Instances of animistic beliefs may be found in the daily practices of the Hindus. Before climbing a tree it is frequently the custom to pray for its pardon for the rough usage to which it is to be subjected. Stones and rocks of any peculiar shape suggesting the intervention of personal agency in their construction are considered the abodes of spirits and are consequently reversed. When women go out to the field they take a little sugar and put it on an ant-hill to feed the ants. It is considered a virtuous act to satisfy the *ātmā* or spirit which resides in all animals. The habit of worshipping the implements of the caste trade should probably be classified as Animism. Such practices belong to the Hindus just as much to the Dravidian tribes.[1]

Caste Deities.

Castes, particularly of the lower order have their caste deities, e.g., the *Ahirs*, a caste of cowherds, milkmen and cattle breeders have among them special deities Kharak Dev, who is always located at the *khirkā*, or place of assembly of the cattle, on going to or returning from pasture. He appears to be the spirit or god of the *khirkā* and is represented by a platform with an image of a horse on it, and when cattle fall ill the owners offer flour and butter to him. Similarly, the *Govārīs*, the herdsmen or grazier caste worship *Dudherā*, a godling, for the protection of the cattle. He is represented by a clay horse placed near a white ant-hill. But the principal deities of the *Govārīs* are the *Koḍe Koḍvaṇ* or deified ancestors who are worshipped at the annual festivals and also at weddings. The *Dhimārs*, a caste of fishermen and palanquin-bearers, have as of other low castes, *Dulhā Dev*, the deified bridegroom, as one of the principal deities whose image they fashion of *Kadamb* wood and besmear with red-lead. Those who are employed on ferry-boats especially venerate *Ghāṭoiā Dev*, the god of ferries and river crossings. The *Dhobī*, the professional caste of washermen also worship *Ghāṭoiā*, the god of the *ghāṭ* or landing place on the river to which they go to wash their clothes. There they bow to the stone on which they beat out clothes and make offering to it of flowers, turmeric and cooked food on the *Dasarā* festival.

Village Gods.

Mārutī.

Among the village deities the most popular is Hanumān, or, as he is locally termed, Mārutī. His image of a monkey coloured with vermilion with a club in one hand and a mountain in the other is placed on the boundary of villages, and is known as *Vīr-mūrti* (the image of strength). His representation in another form with folded hands is known as *Dās-mūrti* (slave image) and is placed in subordinate hamlets.

Mythologically Mārutī is ascribed with several epithets: son of Añjanī and Marut (wind-god) : *avatār* (incarnation) of Śiva ; god of strength ; life-long *bramhacārī* (celibate) ; devotee and henchman of Rāma ; and originator of *mantra-śāstra* (science of magical formula).

[1] Census of India, C. P. and Berar, 1901, Part I, p. 92.

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Village Gods.

Mārutī.

Accordingly, gymnasts tie his image to their wrists, and also consecrate one in their gymnasiums; women desirous of getting children go to the temple of Marutī and there burn lamps, made of wheat flour and filled with ghee; persons who are under the evil influence of the planet Saturn worship the god on Saturdays and offer him oil and *śendur* (red-lead), place garlands of leaves and flowers of *rui* plant round his neck, and also offer him *uḍid* and salt.

Mahadev.

Mahādev or Śiva is generally revered in this district in his incarnation as the warrior Khaṇḍoba attended by a dog. Khaṇḍobā guards the country as Bhairav guards the village, and is shown as a horseman with a sword in his right hand and his wife sitting beside him. He is the patron deity of the *Marāṭhā* caste, who worship him every Sunday placing rice and flowers before him. The dog is held sacred by the *Marāṭhās* who will not injure it.

Temples built to Mahādev in the form of *liṅg* are also popular in the district. Here Mahādev is worshipped vaguely as being able to bestow blessings or avert misfortune. He is represented simply by a conical stone, which is the phallic sign, and all that is necessary to do is to sprinkle a few grains of rice or a *loṭā* of water over it. In summer an earthen *ghaḍā* (pot) is supported on a tripod over the stone, and water is allowed to drip through a piece of cloth tied over a small hole at the bottom, on the stone, so that Mahādev will be continually kept cool and will be pleased. The leaves of the *bel* tree are also offered to Mahādev, it being necessary always to present a shoot of three leaves. Gonḍs offer fowls to Mahādev, though they are not allowed to do so in the temple itself, and it may be conjectured that the attributes of the god in this part of the country are to some extent derived from Burā Dev, the great god of the Gonḍs.

Kālī.

The goddess Kālī, the wife of Śiva, is worshipped in the local incarnation of *Mahā-Māī*, the deity representing the dreaded disease of smallpox. She is represented by some daubed with vermilion and on each side of her are *triśuḷas* (tridents) surmounted with flags. To the trident is attached an iron chain, which is known as *cābuk* or whip of the goddess. People possessed with evil spirits are beaten with this chain so that the spirits may be driven out of them. Worshipped as the goddess of the village the deity probably merely represents the earth goddess from whom the crops and the people derive their sustenance. But she is also worshipped as the goddess who brings and can avert smallpox and cholera, and is considered to be incarnate in the body of anyone who has smallpox, and those who enter the room in which a sufferer lies take off their shoes as a mark of respect for the deity.

Sigḍī worship.

If a patient is severely attacked by smallpox, a vow is made to offer the *śigḍī* worship. The *śigḍī* is an earthen vessel filled with burning charcoal and is placed on the head of a married woman, whose hands are tied in front of her as she goes in procession to the shrine, accompanied by other married women bearing brass pots of water on their heads. The way before them is swept with

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branches of the *nim* tree (*Azadirachta Indica*) which is sacred to the goddess. When the patient has recovered he or she also walks in the procession. On arrival at the shrine music is played and the neighbours all come and put a little grain in the lap of the woman who has carried the *śigḍī*. Offerings are made to the goddess and a sacrificial goat is led before the image and bathed. If it shakes its body when water is poured over it, it is considered that the goddess has accepted the offering. A clay horse is also offered, perhaps in substitution for the former sacrifice of a real one.

Nārāyaṇ Dev.

Nārāyaṇ Dev or the sun-god is worshipped by *Mahārs*, *Dhimārs* and *Māṅgs*. Two young pigs are castrated and fed profusely till they are three years old. When the offering is to be made, the *Mahārs*, *Dhimārs*, *Goṇḍs*, *Govārīs*, *Cāmbhārs* and *Māṅgs* are invited, they wash their hands and feet with water from the same pot, and after the pig has been sacrificed to Nārāyaṇ Dev, consume it in company. As soon as the cock crows in the morning the feast is stopped, and caste distinctions are resumed.

Christianity.

All Christians believe in God, in Jesus Christ, the Saviour and founder of the Christian religion, and in the Bible which is their Sacred Book containing the life and teachings of Jesus Christ. The aim of every Christian is that he should save his soul by living according to the teachings of Jesus and applying to himself the merits obtained for mankind by Christ through His sufferings and death on the Cross which he suffered in separation and redemption for the sins of mankind.

Though the principles of Christianity are the same for all churches, they differ among themselves mainly in (1) their methods of administration, (2) sources of their beliefs and doctrines, (3) dogmas of faith, and (4) rituals. The Catholics, for instance, have a distinctive set of religious beliefs which differentiate them from the members of the other Christian denomination.

(1) They acknowledge the Pope, Bishop of Rome, as the Head of the Church, to whom they owe allegiance and obedience in doctrinal and moral matters.

(2) Though the Bible is for each of them the inspiration of their religious life, it is not left to each one's individual intellect to interpret the Bible as he likes. All Catholics accept the Bible as it is interpreted by the Magistracy of the Church and Tradition. By Magistracy of the Church is meant the Pope and the Bishops authoritatively and officially interpreting the Bible and stating the doctrine of the Catholic Church. By Tradition is understood the doctrine as it has been handed down from the early Church, generation after generation, through the Fathers and the Doctors of the Church.

(3) For Catholics the Holy Sacrifice of the Mass is the centre of religious worship. At the end of Holy Mass, the Catholic priest receives the Sacred Body and Blood of Christ under the species of bread and wine. Such Catholic lay-people as are present at the Holy Mass and are free from mortal sin receive Christ under the

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species of bread only. This is known as Holy Communion which for Catholics is not simply a memorial service, but, in fact, a true reception of Christ's own Body under the Sacramental species.

(4) Catholics believe in auricular confession: This means that the normal way for a Catholic to get remission of his sins is to go to the Catholic priest, confess his sins and feel and express contrition for them, and get absolution from them from the priest, who absolves the penitent in the name of God.

Muhammedanism.

Of the 70,789 Muslims in the district in 1951, only 53 were returned as *Śias* (*Khojas* and *Bohoras*) and the rest *Sunnis*. In 1901, in the Muslim population of 42,573, 40,187 were *Sunnis* and 1,926 *Śias*. Only the *Cutchi*, *Bohora* and *Khoja* from Gujarat are *Śias* and practically all other Muhammedans are *Sunnis*. The main difference between the *Sunnis* and *Śias* is that the latter think that according to the Kuraṇ the Caliphate or spiritual leadership of the Muhammedans had to descend in the Prophet's family and therefore necessarily devolved on the Lady Fātimāh, the only one of his children who survived him, and on her husband Ali the fourth Caliph. They therefore reject the first three Caliphs after Muhammad, that is, Abu Bakar, Omar and Usmān. After Ali they also hold that the Caliphate descended in his family to his two sons Hassan and Hussain. The central incident of the *Śiā* faith is the slaughter of Hussain, the son of Ali, with his family, on the plain of Karbalā in Persiā, on the 16th day of the month of *Muharram*, in the 61st year of the *Hijrā* or A.D. 680. This martyrdom of Hussain and his family at Karbalā is celebrated annually for the first ten days of the month of *Muharram* by the *Śiās*. The *Śiās* also reject the four great schools of tradition of the *Sunnis*, and have separate traditional authorities of their own. They count the month to begin from the fading of the old moon instead of the new moon, pray three instead of five times a day, and in praying hold their hands open by their sides instead of folding them below the breast.

The five standard observances of the Muhammedan religion are: (1) The kālimā, or creed which consists simply in the sentence, 'There is but one God and Muhammad is his prophet', which is frequently on the lips of devout Muslims; (2) Sulā, or the five daily prayers, the five periods for them being (*a*) morning, before sunrise, (*b*) midday, after the sun has begun to decline, (*c*) the afternoon, about four, (*d*) the evening, immediately after sunset, and (*e*) the evening, after the night has closed in. These prayers are repeated in Arabic, and before saying them the face, hands and feet should be washed, and, correctly speaking the teeth should also be cleaned; (3) Rosā, or the thirty-day fast of *Ramzān*, the ninth month of the Muslim year. During its continuance no food or water must be taken between sunrise and sunset, and betel-leaf, tobacco and conjugal intercourse must be abjured for the whole period; (4) Zakāt, the legal alms consisting of money, cattle, grain, fruit and merchandise are to be given annually to pilgrims desiring to go to Meccā but have not the means; to poor religious and other beggars; debtors who have

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not the means to discharge their debts, champions of the cause of God, and proselytes to Islam; (5) The Haj or pilgrimage to Meccā is incumbent on all Muslim men and women who have sufficient means to meet the expenses of the journey and to maintain their families at home during their absence.

RITUALS AND CEREMONIES.

HINDUS.

For the Hindu, religion plays an important part in the context of his family life as also at every stage of the individual's life. Life for him is a round of rituals and ceremonies, and most of the Hindu customs and traditions consist of ritualistic practices related to various religious observances known as *samskāras* or sacraments. According to the Hindu *Dharma-śāstra*, the individual has to pass through many *samskāras* which are really *śarīra-samskāras* for these are intended to sanctify the body (*śarīra*) beginning from the moment the foetus is laid (*garbhādhāna*) to the death (*antyeṣṭi*) of a person. The number of these *samskāras* differs according to different authorities, and some say there are 16 which are compulsory (*nitya*) and 24 which are optional (*naimittika*). These are usually conducted under the direction of *Brāhmaṇ* priests who on their part say that they use Vedic text for *Brāhmaṇs* and *Paurāṇic* text for others. Of late even the 16 of these sacraments are reduced to half a dozen in most of the Hindu communities, and are observed in respect of birth, thread-girding, marriage, pregnancy and death. A *samskāra* is usually preceded by a symbolic sacrifice (*homa*).

Pregnancy and Child-birth.

The *garbhādhāna* or the foetus-laying ceremony to be performed at the consummation of marriage derived social significance when child marriage was in vogue. At present the ritual is symbolically included in the marriage ceremony without any bustle.

The *gṛhyasūtras* prescribed for the benefit of the pregnant woman a number of observances of magico-religious nature, and believers in the efficacy of Vedic rites follow them to varying extent. The *pumsavana samskāra*, or the 'male-making' rite may be performed during the third month of the wife's pregnancy, so that the deities governing the sex of the foetus would be propitiated and a male issue assured.

The *jāta-karma* ceremony may be performed at the birth of the child. Here the father has to touch and smell the child, utter benedictory *mantras* into its ears expressing his wish that it may be endowed with long life and intelligence. However, the first popular ritual in an infant's life is the *Pañcavī* and *Ṣaṣṭhī*, i.e., the ritual observed on the fifth and sixth day after birth. On the fifth day a configuration of a betel-nut, rice, flowers, sandal paste and a sickle or a sword arranged on a *pāṭ* in the lying-in room in the name of *Pāñcavī* or Mother Fifth is bowed to by the mother with a prayer to save the child from the attacks of evil spirits. On the sixth day, a blank sheet of paper and a reed pen and an ink-stand are set on a stool and worshipped as *Saṭvāi* or Mother Sixth, and a few friends are feasted. Though these worships have no Vedic basis as a *samskāra* they are observed among many castes.

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Naming Ceremony.

The *nāma-dheya* rite is performed on the tenth or twelfth day after the birth of the child when it is given a name. Popularly the ceremony is called *bārase*, and its observance varies according to caste. In higher castes a *Brāhmaṇ* is usually called in and he proposes certain names considered auspicious in view of the astrological circumstances of childbirth. The family selects one of these names, but usually two names and sometimes more are given, one of which is kept for common use and the other for ceremonial use. The horoscope is usually cast and read, the name proclaimed, *pān-supāri* and sweets distributed and drums beaten. In some castes a ceremonial 'cradling' is held in the evening by women of the house and the 'naming' celebrated. On this day the child receives gifts from relatives in the form of clothes, gold and cash. The *karṇavedh* (piercing of the ear-lobes) ceremony may take place the same morning or may be postponed to the sixth or twelfth month. If the boy is subject to a vow, his right nostril is bored and gold ring put into it. The 12th day is also important in that on this day the mother, who since giving birth to the child was considered unclean, is proclaimed to be clean. On this day the confinement room is thoroughly cleaned, and this is the first day on which the male folk could go to see the mother and the child.

The naming ceremony as observed among the lower castes is much more simple, *e.g.*, among the *Māṅgs* the name is conferred by five old women, who, standing in a circle, swing the child in their *sāris* and repeat the name.

Annaprāśana.

Among better class Hindus a ceremony called *Annaprāśana* celebrates the first feeding of the child. It may take place in the fifth or sixth month after birth but some castes perform the rite for a male child in the seventh month and for a female in the sixth. An auspicious day is chosen, and relatives are invited who come with gifts for the child. Food which is usually *khīr* or rice boiled with milk and sugar is put in the mouth of the child with a golden ring or a silver spoon. In some castes the maternal uncle is made to officiate.

Jāvaḷ.

Then comes the hair-cutting ceremony known as *jāvaḷ*. As a *saṃskāra*, it is known as *cuḍā-karma*, or the first tonsure of the hair for the sake of *dharma*, and is performed in the first or third year, or at any age according to the tradition of the family. At present the rite is gone through prior to *upanayana* among higher castes; lower castes are much more keen to observe it as a ceremony thinking that the hair the child is born with is impure and must be removed with social celebration.

Thread-girding.

The thread-girding ceremony or *muñja* as it is popularly known is prescribed for all Hindus claiming a place in the first three *varṇas*. The ceremony is also called *upanayana* or the introduction to knowledge since by it the boy acquires the right to read the sacred books. Until this ceremony is performed he is not really a *Brāhmaṇ*, and is not bound to observe the caste rules and restrictions.

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HINDUS.

Thread-girding.

A boy (*kumāra*) undergoes the *upanayana* at the age of eight or after, eighth, eleventh and twelfth years from birth being considered the proper time for the ceremony. There are also rules regarding the *muhurtas* (auspicious times) to be determined according to the birth stars of the boy. The ceremony always takes place between morning and noon, never after midday.

Preparations may begin a few days before the thread-girding day. Drummers and pipers to play at the ceremony are engaged. A booth or porch is built in which a *bahule* (decorated platform) is constructed. Invitation cards are sent to distant relations and friends. Kins people and intimates ask the boy to *keḷavaṇa* or congratulatory feast and present him with clothes and money. A formal invitation (*akṣat*) ceremony is held a day or two before the thread-girding when the local temple of Gaṇapati is visited and the god is prayed to be present at the thread ceremony; personal invitations are then given to the local friends and relatives.

On the early morning of the lucky day the musicians start playing on the drum and pipe. The *ghāṇā* ceremony is gone through with the help of not less than five *suvāsinīs*. Prior to the *upanayana* ceremony proper, the usual propitiatory rites are gone through with the same procedural details as before the performance of an auspicious *saṃskāra*. These are Gaṇapati and *Mātṛka Pūjana* (worship of Gaṇapati and the *Mātṛka* deities), *Puṇyāhavācana* (the holy-day blessing), and *Devaka-pratiṣṭā* (installation of *devaka*). The ceremony of *Caula* (shaving the boy's head) if it was not performed in childhood is gone through, and the boy is then bathed and taken to the dining hall. There boys called *baṭus*, girt with the sacred thread but not married, are seated in a row and served with food. While they eat, the boy's mother sitting in front of the *baṭus* sets her son on her lap, feeds him, and herself eats from the same plate. The ceremony is known as *Mātṛbhojana* (the mother's meal) when it is the last time the boy and his mother eat from the same plate. This over, the boy is taken to the barber who shaves all the locks that were left on his head except the top-knot. The boy is then bathed and made ready for the *upanayana* ceremony.

The boy and his parents enter the booth and take their seats on the three *pāṭs* (wooden stools) arranged on the *bahule*. The father begins the ceremony by giving away some cash to make for the neglect in failing to perform the *saṃskāras* at their proper time. The father then sits on a *pāṭ* with his face to the east, while the boy stands before him facing west, and the priests hold between them a curtain marked with *svastika* (lucky cross) in vermilion. The priests recite *maṅgalāṣṭakas* (lucky verses) and the guests throw *akṣatas* (rice mixed with *kumkum*) at the boy and his father. At the proper *muhūrta* (lucky moment), the priests stop chanting, the musicians redouble their notes, the curtain is pulled to the north and the boy lays his head on his father's feet. The father blesses him and seats him on his right. The guests are then regaled with *pān*, perfume and rose-water and sweet drink. It is now getting customary for the guests to make some present to the *baṭu* (boy) on this occasion.

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Thread-girding.

The *upanayana* ritual now begins. A *vedi* (earthen altar) is traced in front of the father, blades of *darbha* (sacred grass) are spread over it and a *homa* (sacrificial fire) is kindled on it. Offerings of *ājyā* (ghee), sesamum, and seven kinds of *samidhas* (sacred fuel sticks) are made on the sacrificial fire. The boy then with folded hands approaches the *acārya* (head-priest) with a request to make him a *brahmacārī* (Vedic student). The *acārya* grants his request. He daubs a cotton string in oil and turmeric, ties it round the boy's waist and gives him a *laṅgoṭī* (loin-cloth) to wear. He then rolls a yellow *pañcā* (short waist-cloth) round the boy's waist and a white one round his shoulders. Another cotton string daubed with oil and turmeric and a bit of deer skin passed into it is hung on the boy's left shoulder. He hands over to him a consecrated *yajnopavīta* (sacred thread) * and a *daṇḍā* (staff) of *Paḷas*. The boy is made to pass between the sacrificial fire and his father, and sip three *ācamanas* and repeat texts. He then goes back between the fire and his father and takes his seat. The preceptor then gives the boy a coconut and taking him by the hand goes out of the booth and both bow to the sun. On their return to the seats the preceptor takes the boy's right hand and asks him to state his name and to say whose *Brahmacārī* he has become. When the boy mentions his name and says he is his preceptor's *Brahmacārī*, the preceptor lets go the boy's hand, takes him round the sacrificial fire, and seating him by his side drops nine offerings into the fire. He then says to the boy: "You have now become a *Brahmacārī*; you must observe religious exactness; you must sip *ācamana* before taking food; you must not sleep during the day; you must control your speech; you must keep alight the sacred fire and cleanse your mouth after taking food." The boy then sitting on the north of the sacrificial fire bows to the preceptor and begs to be initiated into the mysteries of the sacred verse; the boy and the preceptor or father are covered with a shawl and the preceptor thrice whispers the sacred *gāyatrī* into the boy's right ear first syllable by syllable, next phrase by phrase and then the whole verse. The shawl is taken away and all return to their seats, and give blessings to the Vedic student and the father.

The preceptor then makes four offerings of *samidhā* to the fire and then the boy makes an offering of one *samidhā* and wipes off his face thrice with words purporting "I anoint myself with lustre and may *Agni* and *Indra* bestow on me insight, offspring and vigour". The preceptor concludes the sacrifice with the final oblations, and sprinkles sacred water over the head of the boy and in all directions. Money presents are then made to the priests who bless the Vedic student and the father.

* The sacred thread is made by a *Brāhmaṇ* who spins a thread as long as ninty-six times the breadth of four fingers and from cotton obtained from a cotton tree growing wild. The thread is first folded into three and again trebled and the folds held together by a knot called *brahmagranthi* or Brahmā's knot. The thread hangs from the left shoulder, falling on to the right hip; sometimes, when a man is married he wears a double thread of six strands, the second being for his wife, and after his father dies a treble one of nine strands.

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Thread-girding.

At noon, the priest teaches the boy to recite the *mādhyānha sandhyā* (mid-day prayer) and in the evening the *sāyam sandhyā* (evening prayer). The ceremony of *bhikṣāvaḷa* (asking alms) is then held. The boy and his relatives go in a procession to the temple of Gaṇapati with music and company and on return the boy is seated near the altar. To his mother, who approaches him there the boy says, "*Bhavati bhikṣām dehi*" (Lady, be pleased to give alms), and holds a cloth wallet before her. The mother blesses him and puts in the wallet some sweet balls, rice and gold or silver coin. Other married women follow suit to each of whom the boy addresses in the same manner and each presents him some sweet balls and money. The contents (eatables) of the wallet go to the priest who gives part of the sweetmeats to the boy and keeps the rest for himself.

The whole of the *upanayana* ceremony is now-a-days usually wound up within a day. Formerly when it used to last for four days, each day the boy was taught to offer his morning, mid-day and evening prayers, and made to worship the sacred fire kindled on the first day. The last rite of the *upanayana* ceremony is *medhājanana*. A small square earthen mound is raised and a *paḷas* branch is planted in it. The boy pours water round the plant, and prays *medhā*, the goddess of mind, to give him knowledge and wealth. The boy is now a *brahmacārī*, an unwed Vedic student and from now on for some years should learn the Vedas at the feet of his *guru* and on completion of the studies should undergo the *samavartana* (return) ceremony. But, according to the present custom the *samavartana* or the *soḍ-muñj* as it is called follows immediately after the *upanayana*. The boy makes over to the priest the loin cloth, the staff, the deer skin, etc., and puts on new clothes, a *jarī* cap, and a pair of shoes, takes an umbrella, and sets out as if on a journey to Benaras. Usually the boy's maternal uncle, as may be the custom, persuades him away from the journey and promises to give him his daughter in marriage so that the boy may end the *brahmacaryāśrama* and become a *grahastha* (householder).

Death Rites.

Hindus who follow Vedic or Paurāṇic rites usually cremate their dead. Backward communities such as *Dhangars*, *Cāmbhārs*, *Koḷīs*, *Vaḍārs* etc., either burn or bury; *Ḍhors*, *Mahārs*, *Māṅgs* etc., as a rule, practise burial. The tribals have some peculiar funerary customs of their own. Except that they do not use *mantras* the main funerary observances of lower class Hindus are similar to those in a Vedic cremation. *Sanyāsis* when they die receive a ceremonial burial called *samādhī*. Infants who have not cut their teeth and those persons who have died of smallpox or leprosy are buried. Where fuel is scarce and dear the poorer section of the community often bury. In other cases the dead are usually burnt. The bones and ashes of the dead are generally thrown into the sea or a river, and sometimes a part of the bones is kept preserved to be consigned to the waters of a sacred river like the Gaṅgā.

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Death Rites.

When a person is on the point of death the nearest kin sits close to the dying man and comforts him, assuring him that his family will be well cared for. A small piece of gold is laid in his mouth and a few drops of Gaṅgā water are poured into it. When life is extinct the body is removed from the bed or cot and laid with the head to the north on ground and washed with cow-dung water; holy water is sprinkled on it and a wreath of *tulaśī* leaves is put round its neck. The chief mourner has to undergo a purificatory bath, while the priest chants some *mantras*. If the deceased is an ascendant, the chief mourner and other mourners of the same degree shave their heads (except the top-knot) and moustaches. Having done this, he offers oblations of rice (*piṇḍa*) in honour of the dead. The corpse is bathed and wrapped up in a new *dhotar* or *lugaḍe* according as the dead person is a man or a woman. If the deceased is a female, with her husband living, she is arrayed in a yellow cloth and with some of the ornaments in her customary use, decked with flowers, rubbed with turmeric paste and *kuṅku* marks are put on her brow. These honours are not shown to a widow. All the relations present, men and women bow to the dead. Finally the corpse is put upon a ladder-like bier of bamboo and borne by four persons on their shoulders to the cremation ground, the priest and the chief mourner (who holds the sacred fire for burning the dead body) walking in front of the bier. Women do not accompany a funeral procession. All persons attending the procession are bare headed. Half way to the cremation ground the oblation of rice is repeated, and they are offered a third time on reaching the cremation ground. With the help of the live charcoal brought along a fire called *mantrāgni* is prepared, the corpse is laid on the pyre and the chief mourner then ignites it with the fire. Immediately after the body is burnt, the chief mourner goes round the pyre thrice with a trickling water-pot (in which the fire was brought) and finally throws the pot backward over the shoulder spilling the water over the ashes, to cool the spirit of the dead which has been heated by the fire. He then pours water mixed with sesamum, and rest of the mourners follow suit. The party then returns when the body is completely consumed. During the first ten days all persons belonging to the *gotra* of the deceased observe mourning (*sutak*).

Obsequies.

The *śrāddha* and funeral obsequies are the only ceremonies performed for the salvation of the ancestors. A special ceremony called *Nārāyaṇ baḷi* may be performed for those that have died of accident; but in case of one dying childless, no departure from the ordinary rites takes place. The funeral obsequies are performed during the first thirteen days after death. Oblations of rice are offered every day, in consequence of which the soul of the deceased is supposed to attain a spiritual body limb by limb till on the thirteenth day it is enabled to start on its further journey. Oblations are also offered on the twenty-seventh day, and sometimes thereafter on the day of the death, once in every month for a year, of which the six-monthly and the *bharaṇi*

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Obsequies.

oblations (i.e., the *śrāddha* performed on the fifth of the dark half of the month of *Bhādrapad* are essential; and after a year has elapsed, the oblations of the first anniversary day are celebrated with great solemnity. The annual *śrāddha* is performed on the day corresponding to the day of death in the latter half of the month of *Bhādrapad*. Where the deceased's family can afford it, a *śrāddha* is also performed on the anniversary day, which is known as *kṣayatithī*. While performing the *śrāddha* for one's deceased father, offerings are also made to other ancestors and to deceased collaterals. Women dying in the lifetime of their husbands have special oblations offered to them during their husbands' lifetime. This takes place on the ninth day of *pitṛpakṣa*, and is called the *avidhavā navamī* day.

MUSLIM.

The rites and ceremonies observed by Muslims chiefly consist of those as relating to pregnancy, birth, naming, sacrifice, initiation, betrothal, marriage, and death.

Pregnancy.

In the seventh or ninth month of pregnancy a fertility rite may be performed as among the Hindus. The woman is dressed in new clothes, and her lap is filled with fruit and vegetables by her friends. In some localities a ceremony to propitiate the spirits of ancestors is performed.

Child-birth.

A woman goes to her parents' home after the last pregnancy rite and stays there till her confinement is over. The rites performed by the midwife at birth resemble those of the Hindus. When the child is born the *azan* or summons to prayer is uttered aloud in its right ear, and the *takbir* or Muslim creed in its left. The child is named on the sixth or seventh day. The proper name for the male child is often formed by combining the prefix *abd* or servant, *ghulām* or slave, or suffix baks or 'given by' to the numerous titles of God. e.g., *Abd-ul*-Aziz, Rahim, Razāk; *Ghulām*-Hussain; Khudā-*bakṣ* Hyder-*bakṣ*, etc.

Ukika Sacrifice.

After child-birth the mother must not pray or fast, touch the Kurāṇ or enter a mosque for forty days; on the expiry of this period she is bathed and dressed in good clothes, and her relatives bring presents to the child. On the fortieth day the child is placed in a cradle for the first time. In some localities a rite called *Ukika* is performed after the birth of a child. It consists of a sacrifice, in the name of the child, of two he-goats for a boy and one for a girl. The goats must be above a year old, and without spot or blemish. The meat must be separated from the bones so that not a bone is broken, and the bones, skin, feet and head afterwards buried in the earth. When the flesh is served the father offers a prayer to the "Almighty God".

Either on the same day as the *Ukika* sacrifice or soon afterwards the child's hair is shaved and is then tied up in a piece of cloth and either buried or thrown into a river. Rich parents weigh the hair against silver and distribute the same to beggars,

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Ear-boring.

It was once customary among Muslims to bore the ear-lobes of a girl when she was one or two years old. The holes were bored along the edges of the ear step by step and even in the centre, and by the time she was two or three years old, she had thirteen holes in the right ear and twelve in the left. Little silver rings and various kinds of ear-rings were inserted and worn in the holes. The practice is now on the wane among the better-class Muslims.

Sāl-girāh.

The child's birthday is known as *sāl-girāh* and is celebrated by a feast. When the child is four years, four months and four days old the ceremony of *Bismillāh* or taking the name of God is held, which is obligatory on all Muslims. Friends are invited, and the child dressed in a flowered robe (*sāhrā*) repeats the first chapters of the Kurāṇ after his or her tutor.

Circumcision.

A boy is usually circumcised at the age of six or seven, but as may be the custom among some classes of Śiāś and Arabs the operation is performed a few days after birth. The barber operates and the child is usually given a little *bhāṅg* or other opiate. When a girl arrives at the age of puberty she is secluded for seven days, and for this period eats only butter, bread and sugar, fish, flesh, salt and acid food being prohibited. In the evening she is given a warm-water bath, and among lower classes an entertainment is given to friends.

Marriage.

Among Muslims no specific religious ceremony is required, nor are any rites essential for the contraction of a valid marriage. If both persons are legally competent, and contract marriage with each other in the presence of two males or one male and two female witnesses, it is sufficient. And the Śiā law even dispenses with witnesses. As a rule the Kāzī performs the ceremony, and reads four chapters of the Kurāṇ with the profession of belief, the bridegroom repeating them after him. The parties then express their mutual consent, and the Kāzī, raising his hands recites a benediction. A dowry or *meher* must be paid to the wife, which under the law must not be less than ten silver *dirhāms* or dracmā; but it is customary to fix it at Rs. 17, or at Rs. 750. The wedding is, however, usually accompanied by feasts and celebrations not less elaborate or costly than those of the Hindus.

Several Hindu ceremonies, at the marriages of the lower class Muslims, still persist; e.g., the anointing of the bride and bridegroom with oil and turmeric, and setting out earthen vessels which are meant to afford a dwelling place for the spirits of ancestors. Another essential rite is the rubbing of the hands and feet of the bridegroom with *mehandī* or red henna.

Funeral Rites.

Muslims bury their dead, and the same word *janazāh* is used for the corpse, the bier and the funeral. When a man is at the point of death a chapter of the Kurāṇ telling of the happiness awaiting the true believer in the future life, is read, and he is given a few drops of *śarbat*. After death the body is carefully

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washed and wrapped in three or five clothes for a man or woman, respectively. Some camphor or other sweet-smelling stuff is placed on the bier. Women do not usually attend funerals, and the friends and relations of the deceased walk behind the bier. To carry a bier is considered a very meritorious act, and four of the relations, relieving each other in turn, bear it on their shoulders. Muslims allow no delay for carrying their dead to the place of interment, and necessarily attend the funeral on foot. The funeral service is recited in a mosque or in some open space close to the graveyard. Usually the family priest or the village Kāzī recites the service. Coffins are only used by the rich. When the body has been lowered in the grave each person takes up a clod and pronouncing over it a verse of the Kurāṇ places it gently over the corpse. When the grave is completely filled in, two stones are kept over it on either ends and two plants or branches of trees are planted. Then the *fatihā*, i.e., the opening chapter of the Kurāṇ, is read. On the third day a feast is given in the morning and after that trays of flowers with a vessel containing scented oil are handed round and the guests pick flowers and dip them into the oil. They then proceed to the grave, when the oil and flowers are poured over the grave. On the morning of the tenth this offering of flowers and scented oil is repeated. Other feasts are given on the fortieth day, and at the expiration of four, six and nine months and one year from the date of death, and the rich sometimes spend large sums on them. These observances though not prescribed by the Kurāṇ have been retained either from pre-Islamic times or adopted in imitation of the Hindus.

CHRISTIANS.

The ritualistic customs observed by a Christian are governed by the aim that he should save his soul applying to himself the merits obtained for mankind by Christ. These merits of graces could be availed of by a person through sacraments which are seven in number, *viz.*, (1) Baptism, (2) Confirmation, (3) Penance, (4) Holy Eucharist, (5) Extreme Unction, (6) Holy Order and (7) Matrimony or the sacrament of marriage. Of these, Baptism and Matrimony both of which are considered as important in all Christian Churches are described below:—

Baptism.

All the Christian denominations, Catholic and non-Catholic, have the rite of Baptism or the rite of initiation into the Christian religion. The rite according to the Roman Catholic Church is as follows:—

The child is brought to the church for Baptism with two persons termed god-parents who answer in the name of the child the questions put by the priest to the child.

The priest after putting a pinch of specially blessed salt in the mouth of the child exorcises it of the evil spirit or influence that may have dominion, and then anoints it with holy oil. He then solemnly asks the child whether it desires to receive Baptism, and on the god-parents answering for it in the affirmative performs the really essential rite of Baptism. He pours especially blessed water on its head, saying meanwhile, "N (here he addresses the child by its name), I baptise thee in the name of the

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Baptism.

Father and of the Son and of the Holy Ghost." The name by which the child is addressed remains henceforth as the Christian name of the child. The ceremony comes to a close when the child is once again anointed with holy oil (different from the previous one) and the child is presented with a white garment, a symbol of Purity and Innocence, and a lighted candle—symbol of Preparedness and Vigilence. Though most Christian churches ordinarily administer Baptism to children, they have also provision for Adult Baptism in the case of adults converted to Christianity.

Matrimony.

Since marriage is a very important event in the life of a human being the Christian Churches have developed a solemn ceremony about it.

The bride is dressed all in white, her head covered with a white veil and crowned with a wreath of white flowers. She comes into the church resting on the hand of her father or some other elder male relative. The bridegroom has a personal attendant who is called the best-man. The bridal pair comes forward to the altar-rails and in the presence of two responsible witnesses and the congregation in general the priest solemnly interrogates each in turn about their free consent to the matrimonial contract. The formula is generally this:—

"N, will thou take N, here present for thy lawful wife according to the rite of our Holy Mother the Church"? and a correspondingly worded question is put to the bride. Conscious of the momentous consequences of their reply, they each in turn give their affirmative, "I will". Then the father (or the elder representing him) formally makes over the girl to the man, who takes her right hand in his hand and solemnly says, "I, N, take thee, N, for my wedded wife, to have and to hold from this day forward, for better for worse, for richer for poorer, in sickness and in health, till death do us part, and thereto I plight thee my troth". Then he withdraws his hand and now the bride takes his hand in hers and utters the same formula with the corresponding changes of wording. Then the priest, their hands still being joined, blesses the marriage in the words: "I join you in holy matrimony in the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Ghost," and he sprinkles them with holy water. The essential rite of the marriage is then over.

The priest then blesses a ring (usually of gold) and some trinket or a silver coin produced by the bridegroom and hands it over to the bridegroom who then puts it on the third finger of the bride's hand, saying, "With this ring, I thee wed; this gold and silver I thee give and with all my worldly goods I thee endow". The priest then says a prayer and the ceremony is over.

Among the Mahārāṣṭrian, Tāmiḷ and Malayāḷi Christians of this region it is still customary at the ceremony to give to the priest a '*maṅgalsūtra*' for being blessed by him, which is then tied by the bridegroom round the neck of the bride. The *Maṅgalsūtra* is made of gold thread and black beads.

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Death and Funeral.

Christians are very much concerned about the administration of a priest to a sick person in danger of death; they consider this even more important than the attention of a doctor. The priest gets the patient to review, as far as it is in his power at the time, all the wrongs he has done, all the sins he has committed and then induces him to be really sorry for what he has done and to ask God's pardon for his sins. Then the priest (if he is a Roman Catholic), by virtue of the power given him by Christ gives him absolution, i.e., in God's name forgives his sins. If the patient is unconscious, he is given what is called the Sacrament of Extreme Unction. The priest anoints the vital senses of the lying man with a specially blessed oil, and prays to God to forgive the dying man for whatever wrong he may have done through the senses.

Christians bury their dead. The well-to-do lay the body in coffin and the poor carry it in church bier. The hands are tied together across the chest and a small crucifix is placed in them. When the body or coffin is lowered in the grave the priest first puts a few handfuls of earth over it and then the mourners follow. On the seventh and on the thirteenth day and at the end of the year and in some cases every year solemn office and mass are sung for the repose of the soul of the dead, and all persons who attend are given a festive dinner or breakfast. Black clothes are a mark of mourning and the close relatives of the dead person observe mourning for one year during which period they do not attend public or social functions.

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Hindu *Dharmaśāstra* considers that it is obligatory for every person to marry, as, according to it *vivāha* (marriage) is one of the *śarīrsamskāras* (sacraments sanctifying the body) through each of which every man and woman must pass at the proper age and time. But, though marriage is thus universally prescribed for all Hindus, the institution as such is hedged with several rules and restrictions which fall under two main heads, namely, endogamy and exogamy.

Endogamy.

A Hindu may not marry outside his caste or his particular sub-caste which according to social custom is considered endogamous. He is confined for the choice of a wife within this group. Thus, the internal structure of the *Kuṇbīs*, the great agricultural caste of the *Marāṭhā* country, shows several endogamous sub-castes recruited from different classes of the population. The *Jhāre* or jungly *Kuṇbīs* are the oldest immigrants and have no doubt an admixture of *Goṇḍ* blood. With them may be classed the *Manvā Kuṇbīs* of the Nāgpūr district who appear to be a group recruited from the *Mānas*, a primitive tribe. Among the other sub-castes are the *Khaire*, who take their name from *khair* or catechu tree; the *Dhānoje* are those who took to the occupation of lending *dhan* or small stock; *Kheḍule* sub-caste may be derived from *kheḍā* a village. The biggest *Kuṇbī* sub-castes are the Tirole or Tilole, who now claim to be Rajputs. The *Vāṇḍhekars* are another group which also includes some *Deśmukh* families.

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The *Vañjārī* sub-caste certainly represents a branch of the *Bañjārā* caste of carriers, who have taken to agriculture and been promoted into the *Kuṇbi* community[1].

Exogamy.

The caste or sub-caste forms the outer circle, within which a man must marry. Outside it are a set of further sub-divisions which prohibit the marriage of persons related through males. These are called exogamous groups or class and their name among the higher castes is *gotra*. The theory is that all persons belonging to the same *gotra* are descended from the same male ancestor, and so related. System of exogamous *gotra* based as it is on descent from males suffices to prevent the unions of persons nearly related on the father's side, but not those on the mother's side, which are, therefore, regulated by another set of rules. In the twice-born castes marriage is usually avoided between persons related on the woman's side, within three or some times five degrees. The marriage of the children of two sisters is prohibited in northern castes and is rare in the southern. The marriage of the children of a brother and sister, called cross-cousin marriage, which is common in southern castes is prohibited in most of the Hindustani castes. Among *Marāṭhī* communities—*Marāṭhās, Kuṇbis, Māḷis, Mahārs,* etc.—the marriage of a brother's daughter with a sister's son is common. The other form of cross-cousin marriage, *viz.*, the marriage of the brother's son to the sister's daughter is practised by some *Goṇḍs* and some of the less civilised tribes, among whom it is spoken of as *dudh lauṭnā* (give back the milk). Among some castes of Telugu origin, and among some *Deśastha Brāhmaṇas* a brother has the first claim to his sister's daughter even as his own wife, an idea which would be looked on with horror by the Northern or *Marāṭhā* Hindus. The marriage of two sisters at the same time was once permitted in most of the lower castes and in all tribes, and was common among those castes which were specially polygamous, but the elder sister might not be married after the younger. There seems to be a general rule that a man should marry a woman of his own generation.

Hypergamy.

Hypergamy relates to the social rule by which a woman should be married to a man who is either her equal or her superior in rank. Such practice is still widely prevalent in northern India by which men of the higher sub-caste of a caste will take daughter in marriage from lower ones but will not give their daughters in return. Only a few cases of hypergamy are found in this district among *Brāhmaṇas, Marāṭhās* and other castes. Among the sub-castes of *Kanauja Brāmaṇas*, the *Sarwāriā* sub-caste, which is the highest, takes daughters from *Kanaujās*, and the *Kanaujās* take them from the Jijhotias; *Marāṭhās* who lay no claim to Rajput ancestry take daughter from the *Kuṇbīs* in marriage for their sons, though they do not give their daughters to the *Kuṇbīs*.

1. Russel R. V., Tribes and Castes of the Central Provinces, Vol. IV, p. 18.

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More commonly, families of the lower sub-castes or class in the same castes consider the marriage of their daughters into a higher group a great honour and will give large sums of money for a bridegroom. Occasionally intermarriage between two castes takes place on a hypergamous basis; thus Rajputs are said to take daughters from the highest class of the cultivating caste of *Dāṅgīs*.

Polygyny.

Hinduism permits polygyny *. The *Smṛtis* not only prescribe that a man who has entered *gṛhasthāśrama* must not remain single and should take another wife without delay to keep up religious rites, but also ask to take another wife during the lifetime of the first one who had no son. But even then polygyny has been practised through the ages only by a few people. A *Kuṇbī* would take a second wife only if the first was childless or a bad character, or destitute of attractions. Polygyny was very rare among the Baniās and it was generally the rule that a man must have obtained the consent of his first wife before taking a second one. Similarly, among the *Kaikāḍis*, the consent of the first wife must have been obtained to the taking of a second. In recent years, the spread of English education and assimilation of modern liberal ideas have made almost all communities among the Hindus monogamous, though a few isolated cases of polygyny could not be ruled out. However, the Hindu Marriage Act of 1955 has now completely reformed the law relating to Hindu marriage all over India and has made monogamy compulsory among all classes of Hindus.

Widow-marriage and Divorce.

The remarriage of widows was once strictly prohibited among the *Brāhmaṇas*, it being reasoned that marriage was the only sacrament (*saṃskāra*) for a woman and she could go through it only once. And even now though legally permissible widow-marriages are not much in vogue in 'higher' Hindu communities. Only a minority of the most advanced *Brāhmaṇas* would recognise widow-remarriage, and these were once generally held to be excluded from the caste, though defaults in caste practices such as breaches of the rules against the consumption of prohibited kinds of meat, and drinking even alcoholic liquor were winked at and not visited with proper penalty. Similarly, divorce was once not recognised among *Brāhmaṇas*. Among Baniās the remarriage of widows was nominally prohibited, but frequently occurred, and remarried widows were relegated to the inferior social groups in each sub-caste. Divorce was also said to have been prohibited, but it was probable that women put away for adultery were allowed to take refuge in such groups instead of being finally expelled. Many a lower caste in the district allowed both widow-remarriage and divorce. The *Kuṇbīs* permitted the remarriage of widows, with the exception of *Deśmukh* families of the *Śiroḷe* sub-caste who had forbidden it; on the death of her husband the woman returned to her father's house and he used to arrange her second marriage, which was called *coḷi-pātaḷ*, or giving her new clothes. The ceremony of widow-marriage was largely governed

*The state of having more than one wife at a time is more aptly described a 'polygyny' than 'polygamy'.

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by the idea of escaping or placating the wrath of the first husband's ghost. A bachelor who wished to marry a widow had first to go through a mock ceremony of marriage with an *arka* or swallow-wort plant. Divorce was permitted on sufficient grounds at the instance of either party, it being effected before the caste committee or *pañcāyat*.

Dowry.

In Hindu religious books are enumerated eight forms of marriage, i.e., methods of consecrating a marriage-union of which, in modern times only two are in vogue, viz., the *brāhma* and the *asura*. Conforming with the *brāhma* form of marriage generally among the higher castes, a *huṇḍā* (dowry—property which a woman brings to her husband) is paid by the bride's parents to the bridegroom. Among lower castes, the bride's parents usually take *dej* (bride-price) thereby conforming with the *asura* form. The monetary aspect in the settlement of a marriage may take various forms, e.g., among the *Marāṭhās*, in a *sālaṅkṛta kanyādān*, the bride's father, besides the ornaments he gives to his daughter, spends on many items of expenses on both the sides; in *kanyādāna*, the expenses of the bride's father are much restricted; in *varapakṣa-vadhupakṣa*, the parties bear their own expenses, stand each other's *mānpān* and the groom's party gives a *rasbhog* (feast) to all the villagers; in the *huṇḍā* form the girl's father pays bridegroom-price to the boy's father, while in the *dej* form, as the proposal of the marriage comes from the boy's father, he has to pay a *dej* (bride-price) to the girl's father.

It may be mentioned here that the dowry demanded from the brides's father is under the guise of *vara-dakṣiṇā*—money the donee receives from the donor to fulfil the purpose of a *dān* (gift). In communities where for some reason or other the supply of marriageable boys falls much short of the demand, dowry forms the important consideration in a marriage settlement. Education only lends 'appreciation' to the boy's value in the matrimonial market, and scarcity of suitable grooms enforces spinsterhood on a large number of eligible girls whose parents are unable to pay the stipulated dowry. Examples to the contrary are also found; boys remain unmarried in communities where because of the scarcity of marriageable girls, besides presents to the girl in the shape of ornaments and clothes large sums in the shape of purchase-money are demanded by her father.

Enactments.

Social usage in relation to Hindu marriage has been considerably affected by various legal enactments passed, perhaps right from 1833 when the regulation prohibiting *sati* was declared. (1) A common form of civil marriage for all communities in India was provided by the Special Marriage Act III of 1872, which made it possible for an Indian of whatever caste or creed to enter into a valid marriage with a person belonging to any caste or creed, provided the parties registered the contract of marriage, declaring *inter alia* that they did not belong to any religion *. This Act was amended by Act XXX of 1923, making it possible for Hindus,

* Ghurye G. S., *Caste and Class in India* (1950), p. 165.

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Enactments.

Buddhists, Sikhs and Jains (but not for Christians, Jews, Mahāvardans and Parsees) to declare their religion and yet get their marriage registered. (2) The Child Marriage Restraint Act XIX of 1929, as amended by Act 19 of 1946 prohibited marriages of boys under 18 years of age, and girls under 14 years of age. (3) The Hindu Marriage Disabilities Removal Act XXVIII of 1946 validated marriages between parties (*a*) belonging to the same *gotra* or (b) belonging to different sub-divisions of the same caste; and now (4) The Hindu Marriage Act of 1955 which abrogates and modifies all the past laws. It has made Hindu marriage now strictly adult and monogamous; has done away with the caste and *gotra* restrictions which limited the field of marriage; and has set down definite conditions under which a degree of nullity and further of dissolution of marriage could be obtained.

As marriage from the Hindu point of view created an indissoluble tie between the husband and the wife, divorce was not known to the general Hindu law. Neither party to a marriage could, therefore, divorce the other unless divorce was allowed by custom. The Indian Divorce Act, 1869 provided *inter alia* for dissolution of marriage, but it applied only to cases where "the petitioner or respondent professed the Christian religion" (S. 2 of the Act). However, according to the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, reliefs by way of judicial separation, declaration of nullity of marriage and divorce are recognized (Ss. 10 to 13).

TABLE No. 18

A YEARLY STATEMENT OF INCIDENCE OF CASES OF DIVORCE IN THE DISTRICT OF NAGPUR SINCE THE PASSING OF HINDU MARRIAGE ACT, 1955 *

Year (1)	Number of applications filed by the husband (2)	Number of applications for divorce filed by the wives (3)	Number of suits for divorce (4)	Number of suits for judicial separation (5)	Final decrees for judicial separation granted (6)	Number of divorces granted (7)	Number of cases of reconciliation (8)
1955	..	20	20	11	5	11	..
1956	19	50	69	65	30	38	1
1957	24	53	77	96	40	32	..
1958	23	59	82	107	50	16	..
1959	18	36	54	73	35	29	..
1960	19	16	35	43	20	11	..
1961	20	23	43	39	10	21	..
1962	7	16	23	42	11	6	..
1963	13	4	17	25	..	3	..

* The information was supplied by the District Judge, Nagpur District.

The priests from both the sides in common consultation fix the day and hour for the auspicious event, and it is the priest belonging to the bride's family who generally officiates with his assistants.

Marriage Ceremonies.

The essential marriage rituals which obtain among high Hindu castes are: *Vāgniścaya, Sīmāntapūjan, Madhupark, Antarpāṭ, Sutraveṣṭane, Pāṇigrahaṇa, Lājāhoma, Saptapadī,* etc., and occasionally *Airaṇipradān.* In interpretation of these *śāstrāic* injunctions from *gṛhyasutras* the following ceremonies are gone through in a popular way:—

Akṣad: When the wedding day is fixed, invitations by way of printed letters are sent round beginning with the house gods. On an auspicious day the relatives of the bride and bridegroom go together in procession to the temples of Gaṇapati and Devī to invite the god and the goddess and offer them coconuts, betel-leaves, *kuṅkum*, etc. The priest accompanying the procession invokes the god to be present at the wedding and ward off all evil. Next, a married pair from each party go round inviting friends and relations.

Akṣad.

Sīmāntapūjan: In the evening previous to the marriage day the ceremony of *Sīmāntapūjan,* or worship of the boundary takes place. The parents of the girl with their relatives go to the bridegroom's house with gifts. There they first worship Gaṇapati (represented by a betel-nut), Varuṇ (represented by a water-pot), a lamp and the earth; and then wash the feet of the bridegroom and offer him a dress. Next, the bride's mother washes the feet of the bridegroom's mother and fills her and her female relations' laps with wheat and pieces of dry coconut kernel. The assembled guests are presented with betel-leaves and betel-nuts, and *Brāhmaṇas* with money gifts.

Simāntapūjan.

Vāgniścaya or the ceremony of oral promise, takes place at night. The bridegroom's parents and their relations go to the bride's house with a dress and ornaments for the bride. The fathers of the bride and bridegroom exchange a coconut and embrace each other. The bridegroom's father presents the bride with the ornaments and dress brought for her. After the distribution of betel-leaves and betel-nuts they disperse.

Vāgniścaya.

Haḷad (turmeric) ceremony: In the morning of the wedding day the girl is rubbed with turmeric paste at her house by some married ladies of both sides, the remaining portion of which is taken to the boy's house where he is rubbed with it alike.

Haḷad.

Dev-pratiṣṭhā or God-installing: Before the ceremony begins, the bride with her parents is bathed in hot water by some unwidowed women. After changing clothes and bowing to the house-gods and elders, the bride's parents begin the ceremony which consists of the worship of planets (represented by betel-nuts), Gaṇapati, Varuṇ and *Avighna-Kalaśa.* The *Avighna Kalaśa* is an earthen jar daubed with white and red colours. It contains turmeric roots, betel-nuts, a copper coin, and sweetmeats, and its mouth is covered with an earthen lid tied to it with a piece of

Dev-pratiṣṭhā.

cotton thread passed round several times. It is prayed to ward off all evil. This ceremony takes place at the bridegroom's house also.

Gauri-pūjan: This is performed only by the bride. She worships in the house the goddess Pārvatī or Gaurī, and sits there till the wedding time, praying the goddess with words, "Gaurī, Gaurī, grant me a happy wifehood and long life to him who is coming to my door."

Gauri-pūjan.

Rukhavat.

Rukhavat: When the time for the wedding draws near, a party from the bride's side takes several dishes of sweetmeats to the bridegroom's house and serves them to the bridegroom and his relations. The bridegroom is worshipped and presented with articles of dress by the bride's father. The priest then asks the bridegroom to bow to the house gods and the elders. The bridegroom, garlanded, dressed in new clothes, with a finger-mark of lamp-black on his either cheek, rides a horse or is seated in a car. He is taken in a procession to the bride's house, the females walking just behind him and the males behind the females.

Maṅgalāṣṭaka.

Maṅgalāṣṭaka: When the procession reaches the bride's house, cooked rice mixed with curds is waved on the bridegroom's face. Next, the bride's mother washes the feet of the bridegroom's mother who returns to her place, as she has not to hear the marriage verses. The bridegroom is then led to the marriage booth, where the priests set two low wooden stools and make the bride and the bridegroom stand on them facing each other. An *antarpāṭ* (curtain) marked with *Swastik* is stretched between the pair so that they may not see each other. They are each given a garland of flowers to hold and are told to look at the lucky cross on the curtain and pray to their family gods. *Maṅgalākṣaṭās* (reddened rice) are distributed among the guests. The priests, standing on either side of the curtain, start chanting *maṅglāṣṭakas* (auspicious verses) and they and the assembled guests and relatives throw the reddened rice at the pair. When the verses end the curtain is withdrawn to the north amidst a noise of clapping and drums and pipes. The eyes of the boy and the girl meet and the bride first puts the garland in her hand round the neck of the groom and then the groom round the bride's. They then throw the mixture of rice grains, etc., over each other's heads. Guests, relations and friends are then entertained. Each is given a flower bouquet, a sprinkle of rose-water, a smear of *attar*, and *pān-supārī*. They are regaled with spiced milk or sweet drinks. Money is distributed among *Brāhmaṇ* priests.

Kanyādān.

Kānyādān: An elaborate rite by which the parents of the bride hand over the bride to the bridegroom's care and request him to treat her well during her lifetime.

Lājāhoma.

Marriage Sacrifice or Lājāhoma: The pair is led to the altar where fire is kindled. The priest asks them to worship the fire and throw parched rice and ghee into it. Next, he asks them to take mutual oaths that they will be each other's partners during their lifetime for weal or woe. These oaths are taken in the presence of the fire, the earth, the priest, and gods.

Saptapadī: Seven small heaps of rice are made on the altar and a betel-nut is placed on each of them. The priest recites *mantras* and the bridegroom lifts the bride's right foot and places it on the heaps in succession. When the seventh heap is crossed the marriage is complete.

Saptapadi.

Sutraveṣṭaṇa and Kaṅkaṇabaṅdhana.

Sutraveṣṭaṇa and *Kaṅkaṇabaṅdhana*: The priest passes cotton thread round the pair twelve times, which is then taken off and divided into two parts. The pair are made to fasten these on each other's wrists.

Sāḍī.

Sāḍī or Robe Ceremony: The bride is presented with a *sāḍī* (robe) and *coḷī* (bodice), and her lap filled with wheat, a coconut, and some fruits by the priest and some unwidowed women.

Sun-mukh.

Sun-mukh: The bridegroom's mother puts on the bride all the ornaments made for her and looks at her face. She presents the daughter-in-law with new clothes and puts sugar in her mouth.

Zāl.

Zāl or Airaṇi-pradān: An *Airṇi* or *Zāl* which is a wicker-work basket containing several gifts such as coconuts, betel-nuts, fruits, cooked food, etc., is presented by the bride's father to the bridegroom's mother and other relatives. The basket is held on the head of the person to be honoured, and while some water is poured on it the priest on behalf of the bride's father says, "We have given you this good-natured daughter, well-nourished and healthy, and request you to treat her kindly".

Varāt.

Varāt: The procession, both of the bridegroom and bride in which the bridegroom takes the bride to his house in a carriage with music and accompanied by males and females from both the sides.

Lakṣmi-pūjan.

Lakṣmī-pūjan: The goddess of wealth is worshipped by the pair at the bridegroom's house.

Naming.

Naming: The maiden name of the bride is changed and she is given a new name by which she is known afterwards in her husband's family. Betel packets and sugar are distributed to the party assembled and money to *Brāhmaṇs*. A ritualistic closure to the marriage ceremony is put with the rites whereby the deities that had been invited before the ceremony began are taken leave of and the marriage booth is dismantled. Socially, exchange of feasts ends the ceremony*.

CHRISTIANS.

The prescribed form of marriage for the Christian community is monogamy, i.e., one husband, one wife, and they may have marital relation only with each other. It will be unnatural for Christians to think in terms of polygamy or polyandry which are strictly prohibited by the Christian Churches. The marital age for the boy and the girl allowed by the Christian Churches is 18 years and 16 years, respectively, except in the Catholic Church where the canonical age for marriage for the boy and the girl is respectively 16 and 14. Even at this age, since they are minors, the parents' consent would be required.

*Peculiarities of Hindu marriage customs according to castes are given in the section on "Castes."

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MARRIAGE AND MORALS.

CHRISTIANS.

Close blood relationship constitutes an impediment to marriage among Christians. Brother and sister, are prohibited from marrying each other, so also uncle and niece or aunt and nephew. As regards consanguinity of lesser degree, marriages between first cousins and even second cousins are generally discouraged, but may be allowed only with a special dispensation of the Church. Christianity holds that caste distinctions are man-made, and Christian Churches, therefore, do not come in the way of inter-caste marriages among Christians. However, it was once quite usual among Christians to marry someone belonging to their own caste, but the custom is fast breaking down.

For the Christians, marriage is a permanent irrevocable contract between man and woman to live together on terms of the deepest human friendship and found a family. This bond of union is further strengthened by the fact that the same contract becomes a sacrament by a ceremony. Since marriage is a contract, its essence naturally lies in the free consent of each party to the contract at the time the contract is entered into, and for that reason, the free consent of the parties is all important and is given the central place in the liturgical celebrations of marriage.

The Catholic Church, therefore, enjoins permanency of the marriage bond which is dissolved only with the death of one of the parties. Divorce is not granted under any circumstances. However, the Church uses its good offices to help the husband and wife to patch up their differences, and if continual ill-treatment or neglect by one of the parties or infidelity is proved, a separation without the right to remarry someone else is granted. In the case of the other Christian Churches divorce is permitted with the right to remarry someone else. The Anglican Church, however, does not allow divorce as a principle, but tolerates it in practice. As the bond of matrimony is held to have dissolved with the death of one of the parties, the living party is then free to remarry.

Since Christian marriage is recognised by the Government of India as per the Christian Marriage Act, the necessity of civil marriage does not arise. The priest officiating at the marriage has to record the details in the Marriage Register which is signed by the bridal couple, and a copy of the record is sent to the Government. However, in cases, especially when there is an impediment in the marriage, the bridal couple goes directly to the magistrate to be legally married.

FEASTS AND FESTIVALS. HINDUS.

Hindu life is replete with celebrations of all kinds. There are holidays and other religious festivals and birthday anniversaries of gods and mythological heroes, which, as a rule, are observed every year. But there are other occasional ceremonies evoking special forms of worship and sacrificial offerings. They include ceremonies to obtain or to avert rain, hail-storms or floods and to prevent epidemics or cattle disease etc.; so also many ceremonies and good works by which *puṇya* (spiritual merit) may be acquired, such as the performance of *Yātrā*, *Homa*, *Rāmlīlā*, *Rāsas*, the

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HINDUS.

construction of temples, the digging of wells or tanks, the planting of mango groves and so forth, while there are many propitiatory ceremonies in which the aid of spirits is solicited for the successful performance of rites of marriage, birth and death.

Every year a Hindu generally goes through the following cycle of feasts and festivals:—

Guḍhī Pāḍvā.

Guḍhī Pāḍvā : The first of *Caitra* is called *Guḍhī-Pāḍvā* it being the New Year day of Hindus observing the Śālivāhana Śaka (era). With this day begins the new season, the spring. It is ushered in by house-holders by setting up in front of the house a *Guḍhī*, i.e., a bamboo pole capped with a small silver or brass pot and a new piece of cloth hanging to it as a flag, and offering it a routine worship. Eating a mixture of *nim* leaves, *gul* and cumin seeds is a special observance for the day. The day is considered auspicious for building or entering a new house, putting a child to school, or starting a business.

Rām Navamī.

Rām Navamī: On the bright ninth of the same month is celebrated the anniversary of the birthday of Rāma, the seventh incarnation of Viṣṇū and the hero of Rāmāyaṇa. People flock in holiday dress to Śrī Rāma's temple where a silk doll is made to represent Rāma and all the ceremonials connected with child-birth are gone through. Exactly at 12 noon the *Haridās* announces the birth by tossing *gulāl* (red powder) and the Babe is then cradled. *Āratī*, distribution of *suṇṭhavaḍā* (mixture of ginger and sugar), *tīrthaprasād*, and *kīrtana* and *bhajana* in praise of Rāma are the usual functions held at the festival.

Hanumān Jayanti.

On the full-moon day of *Caitra* exactly at sunrise a festival is arranged in the temple of Hanumān to celebrate his birth.

Mahā-Ekādaśī.

The *Ekādaśī* (eleventh day) occurring in the bright halves of *Āṣāḍha* and *Kārtika* are considered very sacred. They mark the beginning and the end of *Cāturmās* (four holy months) and are observed as fast and prayer days by a very large section of Hindus. Followers of *Vārkarī* sect make it a point to visit the temple of Viṭhobā of Paṇḍharpūr on those days.

Gokuḷāṣṭamī.

On dark eighth of *Śrāvaṇa* falls the Gokuḷāṣṭamī festival in honour of Śrī Kṛṣṇa's birthday. Exact midnight of this day was the time of birth of Lord Kṛṣṇa and the next day the Babe was taken to Gokuḷ. The way the occasion is celebrated varies from place to place. Usually people fast on the *aṣṭamī* day, worship a clay-image of the Babe at midnight and celebrate the birth with the distribution of *suṇṭhavaḍā*. They break their fast that night with feasting or the strict may postpone it to the next day of *dahikālā* or Gokuḷ-day when a boisterous play-ritual of breaking the *haṇḍī* is celebrated in a temple.

Poḷā.

The principal festival of the *Kuṇbīs* and other agricultural castes is the *Poḷā*, falling at about the middle of rainy season (*Śrāvaṇ Vad* 30), when they have procession of plough-bullocks. An old bullock goes first, and on his horns is tied the *makhar*, a wooden frame with pegs to which torches are affixed. They

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Poḷā.

make a rope of mango-leaves stretched between two posts, and the *makhar* bullock is made to break this and stampede back to the village followed by all the other cattle. It is said the *makhar* bullock will die within three years. Behind him come the bullocks of proprietors and then those of the tenants in the order not so much of their wealth, but of their standing in the village and of the traditional position held by their families. A *Kuṇbī* feels very bitterly if he is not given what he considers to be his proper rank in this procession. Bullock and cart races are also held on the day, the winners receiving salutory prizes.

Gaṇeś Caturthī.

Gaṇeś Caturthī: On the bright fourth of *Bhādrapada* falls the birthday of Gaṇeś, the god of learning. A painted clay figure of the Elephant-headed God is specially purchased for the day from image-vendors and worshipped with offerings of *modak* (sweet balls). A special feature of the festival is that in towns, apart from the function in the family, the worship is celebrated on a community scale by public contribution and with the added attraction of religious and semi-social programmes held each day during the festival. Out of a superstition still current, a person avoids looking at the moon on the *Caturthī*-day lest he might get involved in a baseless theft charge.

Gaurī-pūjan.

Conjoined to the Gaṇapati festival women hold a celebration in honour of Pārvatī or Gaurī the mother of Gaṇeś. The first day is *Gauryāvāhan*, the invitation to Gaurī, second one is *Gaurī-pūjan*, the worship of the goddess and the last day is *Gaurīvisarjan*, the immersion day.

Dasarā.

Dasarā: In the month of *Aśvina* falls the great festival of *Navarātra* (nine nights) culminating in *Dasarā*, so called from *daśa* (ten) and *āhār* (days) it being a ten-day festival in honour of the goddess, Durgā. It is also called by Hindus as *Vijayā Daśmī*, the day of victory gained by Rāma over his enemy Rāvaṇ, the demon king of Laṅkā (Ceylon). It is also the day on which the goddess Kāli vanquished the buffalo-demon Mahiṣāsur, and in some places it was once customary to sacrifice a buffalo on the day. The offering of goats is usual, and those who cannot or will not make any animal sacrifice adopt a substitute in the shape of a white pumpkin supported on four sticks resembling the legs of a goat. The first nine days are known as *Navarātra* (nine nights) on the first day being performed *Ghaṭasthāpanā* or the invocation of the goddess to be present in *ghaṭa* (jar). On the tenth day every householder worships his caste insignia represented by tools and implements. A *Telī* will worship his oil-machine, a *Kāyastha* his inkstand, a blacksmith his anvil and hammer, a *Brāhmaṇ* his holy books and so on. They have sumptuous meals at noon and towards evening they don holiday attire and gather together to worship *Śami* (*presepis specigara*) or in its absence, the *Āpṭā* (*Bauhinia racemosa*) tree. On this day the leaves of *Āpṭā* are supposed to symbolise gold and are exchanged while greeting one another. The *Dasarā* day is considered highly auspicious for the undertaking of any new work or business.

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Divāḷī.

Divāḷī: Twenty days after the *Dasarā* comes *Divāḷī*, when Lakṣmī, the Goddess of wealth is worshipped. She is supposed to pass over the land distributing her gifts of riches; all therefore illuminate their houses and shops in order that they may not be overlooked. The lights are often tastefully and beautifully arranged and the festival is one of the prettiest of the whole year. Two days after *Divāḷī* comes *Yama Dvitīyā* when *Yama* the God of Death was entertained by his sister at the river *Yamunā* (Jamnā) in the Uttar Pradeś. On this day brothers visit their sisters and are entertained by them; in the evening the sisters return the visit, perform the ceremony of *Āratī* and receive a gift.

Holī.

The year closes with *Holī*, the spring Saturnalia, when the demoness Hoḷikā is propitiated. This very popular and gay festival is the occasion for a great deal of mirth, innocent revelry including the splashing of colour. The *Hoḷī Pūjā* is accompanied by bonfires, symbolism of the destruction of evil, amid joyous shouts. At some places the fire is first kindled by a *Mahār*. A coconut is hung from a pole in the middle of the fire and when it falls the people secure the burnt core and eat it and smear themselves with ashes of the fire. Next day follows a period of licence and enjoyment in which people throw mud and coloured water at one another and indulge in obscene songs. There is a brisk buying of '*Battāsā*' garlands, a favourite sweet of the day. Folk songs and group dances in the street express the peoples' joy. Male dancing in female attire is common.

Vratas.

A number of ceremonies of the nature of *Vratas* (Vows) and propitiatory worships mostly restricted to *Brāhmaṇ* women occur throughout the year.

In the month of *Caitra* starting from the bright third and on a convenient day *suvāsinīs* hold in their homes the ceremony of *haḷadī-kuṅkū*. The full-moon day of *Jyeṣṭha* known as *Vaṭa-paurṇimā* is observed by married women as a day of prayer so that their husbands' lives may be prolonged; a banyan tree or its boughs are worshipped, and *vāyan* (special offerings) are distributed to *Brāhmaṇs* and *suvāsinīs*. Some observe a *vrata* (vow) for three days during which they live on fruits, tubers and milk only. During *Cāturmās* (four months of rainy season) some women observe the *Soḷā somavār vrata* (vow observed on sixteen successive Mondays) at the end of which they hold a grand worship of Śiva and Pārvatī and feast seventeen *dāmpatyas* (couples). Similarly, married girls vow to offer *Śivā-Muṭha* (handful of corn) to God Śiva on every Monday of *Śrāvaṇa*: for the first five years of their married life girls worship *Maṅgāḷā Gaurī* on every Tuesday of *Śrāvaṇ*; the Fridays of the same month which go by the name of *Sampad Śukravārs* (prosperous Fridays) are observed by women with a worship of goddess Lakṣmī drawn on a small earthen pot. On the third and the fifth of bright-*Bhādrapada* come *Haritālikā* and *Ṛṣī-pañcamī* which are observed as days of fast by *Brāhmaṇ* women. The first is kept by married women and young girls in honour of *Haratālikā* (goddess Pārvatī) who is said to have

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Vratas.

successfully resisted her father's wish to marry her to god Viṣṇū and married god Śiva whom she loved. The second is observed by elderly women in honour of *Ṛṣis* (Seers) to make amends for sins committed without knowledge. That day they do not eat anything that is grown with the labour of cattle or any other animal, but eat only hand-grown fruits and vegetables. *Vasubāras* which falls on the 12th of dark *Āśvina* are observed by some women who have children; they fast for the day, and at night after worshipping a cow, give in charity a calf. The day previous to *Saṅkrānt* in the month of *Pauṣ* is called *Bhogī* on which a special dish known as *khicaḍī* is offered to gods and eaten. On the *Saṅkrānt* day *sugaḍs* (auspicious jars) are presented to Brāhmaṇs, and the following day known as *Kiṅkrant* is celebrated by newly married girls, with *luṭaṇe*, a free distribution to *suvāsinīs* of auspicious articles.

MUSLIMS.

Muharram.

The principal Muslim festivals are the *Muharram* and the two *Ids*. The month of *Muharram* is the first month of the Muslim year, and the first ten days are devoted to mourning for the death of Hussain and his family. This is observed indifferently by Sunnis and *Śiās*, and the proceedings with the Sunnis as at any rate have now rather the character of a festival than a time of sorrow. Models of the tomb of Hussain, called *tāziā* or *tābūt* are made of bamboo and pasteboard and decorated with tinsel. These are taken in procession and deposited in a river on the last and great day of the *Muharram*. Women who have made vows for the recovery of their children from an illness dress them in green and send them to beg; and men and boys of the lower classes having themselves painted as tigers go about mimicking as a tiger for what they can get from the spectators. At the *Muharram* models of horse-shoes made after the caste shoe of Kāsim's horse* are carried fixed on poles in a procession. Men who feel so impelled and think that they will be possessed by the spirit of Kāsim make these horse-shoes and carry them. Frequently they believe themselves possessed by the spirit, exhibiting the usual symptoms of a kind of frenzy, and women apply to them for children or for having evil spirits cast out.

Ramzān Id.

The *Id-ul-Fitr*, commonly known as *Ramzān Id*, or the breaking of the fast, is held on the first day of the tenth month, *Śvvāl*. Throughout the preceding month of *Ramzān* a general fast is observed. On this day the people assemble dressed in their best clothes and proceed to the *Id-Gāh*, a building erected outside the town. They escort the Kāzī or other Muslim of high position to the *Id-Gāh* who then offers prayers. A sermon in Arabic in praise of the *Id* is read by the Kāzī standing on pulpit, wooden staff in hand in imitation of the Prophet. When the prayers and sermon are over, the people return to their houses and spend the rest of the day in feasting and merriment.

* During the tragedy at Kārbala, Kāsim, a young nephew of Hussain, was married to his little daughter Sakināh, Kāsim being very shortly afterwards killed.

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Bakr-Id.

The *Id-ul-Āzhā* or *Id-ul-Zohā*, the feast of sacrifice, also called the *Bakr-Id*, is held on the tenth day of the last month, *Zil-Hijjāh*. On this day, as on the other *Id*, the people assemble for prayers at the *Id-Gāh*. On returning home the head of the family takes a sheep, cow (or camel) to the entrance of his house and sacrifices it, repeating the formula, "In the name of God", "God is great", as he cuts its throat. The flesh is divided, two-thirds being kept by the family and one-third given to the poor in the name of God. This is the occasion on which Muhammedans offend Hindu feeling by their desire to sacrifice cows, and the sacrifice of a cow has probably more religious merit than that of a sheep or goat. But in many cases they abandon their right to kill a cow in order to avoid stirring up enmity.

HOUSES AND HOUSING.

The patterns of houses and housing have undergone considerable changes particularly in the urban areas. The old type of houses of the rich living in joint families consisted of a front and a back part separated by a small open court on each side of which was a passage, and in the upper storey an open terrace connecting front and back parts of the house. Such a plan of the house was once popular because when children would grow up and sons had families of their own they could share the same house and yet to some extent each family could live apart.

Houses belonging to the old aristocracy were built round a *cauk* quadrangle with stone or burnt brick walls, tiled roofs and verandas. These houses were generally one or two-storeyed; the entrance door which was often spacious and imposing had a small gateway or *diṇḍī*. Inside, surrounding the *cauk*, were broad *osarīs* or verandas with a *devaḍī* watch-room, and an office room. On crossing the *cauk* a few steps lead to the *oṭī* or veranda, for the house was always raised on a *jote* (plinth) two or three feet high. In the veranda strangers were received and children played and women spent their leisurely time. The ground-floor had four to seven rooms, a central hall, and a back veranda opening into the rear yard. There were rooms for sleeping, for keeping clothes and ornaments, a kitchen and a god-room. The storey had four rooms or two halls. In the rear of the house were cattle-shed, a bathing-room and a privy located in a distant corner, flower and plantain trees and a *tulas* (holy basil) planted in a masonry pillar post, and rooms for servants and retainers.

The more modest houses were generally one with walls constructed of dressed or unworked stone, burnt or sun-dried bricks and tiled or flat roofs. They occurred both in towns and villages. A house of this class consisted of *osarī* (front veranda) which was used as an office or place of business, *mājghar* or the central room for dining and sitting, *devghar* or a room for worshipping gods, a kitchen and a room to spare. There was generally a cattle-shed either in the front or at the back, a separate privy and a *nhāṇī* or bathing shed.

HOUSES AND HOUSING.

Houses occupied by husbandmen in villages were built with unburnt brick walls, tiled or *dhābā* (flat earthen) roofs and had two or three rooms. They had also large cattle-sheds. Poorer land-holders, labourers, and *Harijans* often lived in single-roomed houses, with mud and stone or mud-wattled reed walls with *dhābā* or tin or corrugated iron sheet roofs.

Old houses were built with the idea of providing shelter and safety, while modern designs and constructions are particular about the principles of convenience, economy, health and sanitation with the necessary safety. The richer class of people are now having independent cottages and bungalows with accommodation generally consisting of a veranda, a drawing or sitting room, two or three extra rooms to be used as bedrooms, guest room, or study-room, a kitchen, a parlour, pantry or store-room and an independent bath and W.C. There is a small garden around and a garage. The rooms are so arranged as to have an independent access for each. The walls are of stone or brick masonry in lime or cement mortar and plastered in lime or cement mortar. The doors are panelled or glazed and have brass fixtures. Enough windows are there to allow free passage for air and light. The floors are paved with stone or concrete and are free from dampness, drainage and sanitation being carefully looked after. The roof is either covered with Mangalore tiles or terraced in reinforced concrete. The rooms are generally colour-washed or distempered in different shades of light colour. The drawing hall or the sitting room is generally provided with 5 or 6 cane or wooden chairs or sofa and two side-chairs duly upholstered, one or two easy chairs, one big central table, two or three small teapoys and the floor or the part roundabout the table covered with a carpet. The dining hall is equipped with a dining table and chairs and a side table. The bedroom is furnished with one or two wooden or iron bedsteads, a wardrobe or an almirah, and a dressing table with a mirror. Built-in cupboards, shelves, pegs and sanitary fittings are provided where necessary. A cottage has only a ground floor and a bungalow has generally a floor in addition.

After the first World War the upper middle class people felt the necessity of having convenient self-contained blocks or self-owned houses. Flat system was superimposed on houses which were not built for that purpose. As soon as conditions returned to normal and building materials were cheap and available (from 1928 onwards) in abundance many people formed housing societies and purchased sufficient open lands available in the outskirts of the town and divided the area into a number of plots on which members of the societies built cottages or bungalows of modern design with a small out-house for renting. Similar conditions arose even after the Second World War, people facing them with similar measures. In Nāgpūr city, such societies cropped up in Śaṅkar Nagar, Rāmdās Peṭh, Girī Peṭh and Hanumān Nagar.

HOUSES AND HOUSING.

In the patterns of houses in villages there has not been much change. Richer people going in for the use of cement and concrete adopted the models in vogue in towns retaining certain rural features. The poor continue to live in small huts as in the past.

DRESS.
Hindus.

The dress ensemble of the Hindus of the district is a blending of different items of dress shared in common with people all over India. At present many of the articles of dresswear patronised particularly by the educated young urbanites are items after European style. However, many items of dress current among the people in general could be said to have been indigenously evolved.

The sewn garment for the baby is *bāḷut* consisting of a triangular piece of cloth tied round its waist so as to cover the buttocks and the front. This is followed by a *ṭopare* which is a baby cap covering the ears, and *Kuñcī* which is a cap and frock sewn together. *Aṅgī* is a general term indicating a sewn garment for the upper body in which could be included *jhabale* (frock), *baṇḍī* or *peṭī* (jacket) worn by the child. When the child grows two or three years old, a round or a folded cap for the head, *sadarā*, or *pairaṇ* (shirt) for the upper part, *caḍḍī* or short pants for the lower part are sewn for the use of boys, and *parakar* (petticoat), *caḍḍī* (panties), *polkā* (bodice) and *jhagā* (frock) are sewn for the use of girls.

The ordinary dress of the upper class Hindus for a man indoors is a *dhotar* (waistcloth) and a *Sadarā* or a *pairaṇ* (shirt). Out of doors it consists of: First, a head-dress which is a folded cap of cotton, silk or woollen fabric, or a freshly folded turban known as *rumāl, paṭkā* or *pheṭā*. The pre-formed turban known as *pagaḍī* is now rarely to be seen. Second, a waistcoat or jacket known as *baṇḍī* which may be used over a shirt or a *sadarā*. Third, a coat, a short one after European fashion or a long one (*ḍaglā*) after what is known as 'Parsee-fashion'. Fourth, a shoulder-cloth or *uparṇe* specially woven or of a light muslin cloth about three yards long by a yard broad, thrown round the shoulders. The wear of *uparṇe* has gone out of vogue mostly among the urbanites. Fifth, a waistcloth or *dhotar* of fine cotton cloth with borders on both the sides and about 50 inches wide and four or four and a half yards long. Once Nāgpūr hand-made *dhotīs* were famous for their durability. The Marāṭhā Brāhmaṇs known to be very particular about the securing of their *dhotī* which always had to have five tucks, three into the waistband at the two sides and in front, while the loose end were tucked in front and behind. Sixth, country-made *joḍā* or shoes. In towns boots and shoes made in the European fashion at Kānpūr and other centres have now been generally adopted and with these socks are worn, but their use is confined to small number of highly paid Government servants, pleaders and young merchants. For the use of the common people sandals and *cappals* of various patterns are current. Till recently only prostitutes wore shoes in public, and no respectable woman would dare to do so but could use sandals with impunity.

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DRESS.

Hindus.

A well-to-do educated urbanite may use all the items of western dress ensemble including the 'bush-shirt' and 'bush coat' of recent origin. Indoors he may be found using a striped *pyjamā* and a half-shirt or a *pairaṇ*. His outdoor dress varies between three types: (1) A *lengā* (loose trousers or slacks) and a long shirt of the '*Nehru*' type or a pair of short pants and a shirt, the flaps of the shirt either being allowed to hang loose on the shorts or tucked inside them. (2) A pair of trousers in combination with a shirt or a half-shirt, a bush-coat or a bush-shirt; the sleeves of the shirt may be rolled in a band above the elbow. (3) A full western suit including trousers, shirt, perhaps a waist-coat and a necktie. For ceremonial occasions he may prefer to dress after Indian style in a spacious looking long coat, called *ackan*, and *cuḍidara pyjamā* or *survār* slightly gathered at the ankles-end with bracelet-like horizontal folds. A folded woollen or a silk cap and *caḍhāv* or a pump-shoe perfects the ensemble. Among the urbanite young men the use of *dhotar* is practically getting extinct; it is in some evidence among the middle-aged. The *śendī* or scalp-lock is long discarded and they cut their hair short in imitation of the Europeans. Shoes and boots they even keep on indoors and many times prefer to walk bare-headed displaying a well-groomed hair-crop.

The dress of the ordinary cultivator is most common-place and consists only of a *dhotar* (loin-cloth), another cloth thrown over the shoulders and upper part of the body, which except for this is often bare, and a third rough cloth wound loosely round the head as a turban. All these originally white, soon assume a very dingy hue. The every-day attire of a cultivator is thus a 'colourless' one, but the gala dress for holiday may consist of red *pagaḍī* (pre-formed turban) or a *muṇḍāse* or a freshly folded turban, a coloured or white coat, and a white *dhotar* (loin-cloth) with a red silk border if he can afford it. The coat known as *aṅgarkhā* reaching the knee, with flaps folding over the breasts and tied with strings is now out of fashion and the *baṇḍī* or a short coat coming only to the hips is more popular with the cultivators.

In the cold weather the coat is often stuffed with cotton and dyed dark green, or dark blue. A *sadarā* (shirt) may be worn under the coat; but cultivators usually have only one garment, now-a-days often a sleeveless coat with buttons in front. Some prefer to work in the fields with a jacket known as *baṇḍī*, and a *sadarā* may be worn over it.

Artisans who work at home wear only a *dhotar* waistcloth, or a pair of short pants and a vest or a jacket. When they go out they wear the ordinary dress of a middle class Hindu.

Though among Hindus there is no special holiday dress on festivals or on days of family rejoicing, all who can afford it put on richer and better clothes than those ordinarily worn. Except among the higher classes the dress does not vary at different times of the year. In the cold season well-to-do Hindus wear woollen coat instead of cotton one and may wrap shawls over the coat.

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The People.

DRESS.

Hindus.

A well-to-do cultivator or artisan wears a blanket instead of a shawl. Now-a-days many persons wear out of doors a "Nehru shirt" with or without a *Kabjā* (waistcoat) and a "Gandhi cap".

Shoes (*joḍā*) are usually worn in the heat and cotton-growing areas, but are less common in the rice area, where they would continually stick in the mud in the fields. There sandals (*jūte*) are often worn on the road, and laid aside when the cultivator enters his field. Women go bare-footed, but sometimes have sandals.

A Hindu woman's dress is the full *Marāṭhā sāḍī* of nine yards and a short-sleeved *coḷī* covering only about half the length of the back and tied in front just beneath the breasts in the middle by a knot made with the edges of the two panels. The nine yards *sāḍī* is generally worn by elderly ladies and is known as *lugaḍe* or *sāḍī* in *Marāṭhī*. It is forty-five to forty-two inches in width and it has two lengthwise borders *kāṇṭh* or *kinār*, and also two breadthwise borders, *padar*, at the two ends, of which one is more decorated than the other. The mode of wearing the *lugaḍe* by (*Marāṭhā*) *Brāhmaṇs* and other classes is with the hind pleats tucked into the waist at the back-centre and the decorated end (*padar*) thrown over the left shoulder. *Marāṭhā* ladies allow it to hang from the waist down straight and round like a skirt and draw its end which covers the bosom and back over the head. *Sāḍīs* of five or six yards in length have now become fashionable among young ladies in the urban centres. These are worn cylindrically over a *parkar* or *ghāgarā* also called petticoat. The old fashioned *coḷī* is also discarded by them, and the use of brassieres, blouses, *polkās*, and *jumpers* has become quite common. A reversion to new type of *coḷīs* in the form of blouses with low-cut necks and close-fitting sleeves up to the elbow is also noticed among them now-a-days.

Women of the working classes, to allow freedom of movements for both their hands, draw the loose end of the *sāḍī* fluttering on the back from the left shoulder, tightly in front from underneath the right arm and tuck it in the wrap of the *sāḍī* at the waist. They do not also allow the manifold pleats to dangle low at the ankles but tuck them tightly at the back.

ORNAMENTS.

Hindus.

Ornaments are widely regarded particularly in the rural parts, more as means for the safe-keeping of money than for decoration or aids to beauty. People do not like to spend much on the goldsmith's labour or skill which fetches no value on the reconversion of the ornaments into cash. As a result we find that except for the patronage of a few princes of old or rich persons ornaments are but specimens of clumsy form and workmanship. Gold ornaments are simply hammered or punched into shape or rudely engraved, and are practically never cast or moulded. They are often made hollow from thin plate or leaf, the interior being filled with lac. So also is the case with silver which is also rarely cast.

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The People.

ORNAMENTS.

Hindus.

Ornaments differ in type as used by men and women and by boys and girls. They are worn on the head, in the ears, in the nose, on the neck, across the shoulders, on the arms, wrists and fingers, round the waist, on the legs and on the toes. They differ according to the caste and community and also as used by males, females, boys and girls.

With Hindus gold is a very sacred metal; and gold ornaments must not on this account be worn below the waist, as to do so would be considered an indignity to the holy material. *Brāhmaṇ* and *Marāṭhā* women will not have ornaments for the head and arms of any baser metal than gold. Other castes should, if they can afford it, wear only gold on the head. Gold and silver in ornaments is also considered to have a protective magical effect, like that attributed to charms and amulets. In the making of ornaments the recent tendency is to substitute gold, silver and precious stones by alloys, culture pearls and synthetic stones.

Male.

Men now rarely use any ornaments. However, a *Sāvakār* may display a *bhikbāḷī*, a gold ring set with pearls and pendant-emerald, hanging by the upper lobe of his ear. He may also use gold *salakaḍis* or *a poci* on the wrist, and a *goph* or chain-work, with a locket round the neck. If fairly off, a *baniyā's* everyday ornaments may be a silver girdle and a gold armlet worn above the elbow, a pearl ear-ring, a gold or pearl necklace, and finger rings. Well-to-do cultivators have gold rings in the ear, *kaḍas* of solid silver on the wrists, or a *daṇḍkaḍe* of silver worn above the elbow. A silver chain work girdle known as *kargoṭā* is used round the waist by many.

Female.

Fashions in the ornaments of ladies have considerably changed during the last fifty years, the general tendency being to avoid gold ornaments of heavy weight.

Head ornaments of any kind as used by ladies are not much in evidence. However, some hair ornaments such as *mud, agraphūl, ketki-kevḍā, veṇī, rākhāḍī, candra-sūrya nāg-goṇḍe,* and *goṇḍe phule* all made of gold are still to be found in old rich families. *Birdī-bijorā* and *bhāṅg-ṭiḷā,* a decorative ornament for the whole head is to be found among Rajputs and Mārvāḍīs. Flower-shaped ornaments such as *gulābāce-phūl, Cāphe-kaḷī* etc., as braid-ornaments are current.

Ear ornaments such as *caukaḍī kuḍī* preferably of pearls and of precious stones are in vogue. *Bugaḍyā, bālyā, kāp* are in the use of old women. Ear-rings of various types are now getting into fashion.

Nose ornaments: Nose-rings such as *nath* and *besar* as ceremonial ornaments worn by married ladies in the left nostril are current. *Nath* of the rich is studded with pearls and gems, that of the poor is made of gold; *besar* is smaller in size. Other types of nose-rings are *murṇī, mugvat, phulī, kaṇṭā camkī* and *bulāk.*

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ORNAMENTS.

Hindus.

Female.

Necklaces such as *maṅgalsūtras* of various types, the black beads being stringed together by different patterns of gold chain work with gold beads and cups in the middle and used symbolically by married ladies are now-a-days worn by them as an ornament. Other types of necklaces in current use are: *bakuḷīhāra, bormāḷ, candrahār, capalāhār, ekdāṇī, jondhaḷī-pota, Kolhāpurī-sāj, mohanmāḷ, putaḷyācī-māḷ,* and *pohe-hār; sarī, ṭhuśī, vajraṭīk* are getting rare; *peṭyā, pota, laphphā, tanmaṇī* and *peṇḍe* are made of pearls and to be found current among the rich.

Hand ornaments such as *kāṅkaṇe* (bangles) of patterns known as *bilor, diamond, double-diamond, hoḍīghāt, pañca-pailu, tin-pailu* and Calcuttā pattern, Delhi pattern and Madrās pattern are current; *Pāṭlyā* (wristlets) known as *jāḷīcyā, minyācyā, pailucyā, purṇācyā,* and *toḍicyā* all made of gold are current. Costlier bangles studded with pearls, diamonds and precious stones are in the use of rich.

Armlets such as *bājubands* or *vākīs* of the types known as *hatricyā, moḍavākyā, rudragāṭh, tuḷābandi* made of gold or silver are still in wear.

Foot or *leg ornaments* are usually made of silver and as worn by lower classes they are *toḍe, torḍyā, sākhaḷyā* and *vāḷe. Māsoḷyā, joḍvī, phirvī, salle,* are silver toe rings and are used by ladies on marriage day, and continue to be used by lower classes.

Child ornaments such as *bindalyā, managaṭyā, Kaḍītoḍe* which are wristlets, and *goph, hasḷī, sākhaḷī tāitī* which are necklaces are made either of gold or silver. *Sākhaḷī* and *sarpoḷī* are used round the waist and *ghuṅgur-vaḷe* and *vaḷe* are worn on the ankles.

DRESS AND ORNAMENTS.

Muslims.

Poor and ordinary Muhammedans dress much like the Hindus. But the most distinctive feature of the dress of the well-to-do and strict is that the men always wear trousers or *pyjamās* of cotton, silk or chintz cloth, usually white. The commonest is the *survār* or tight trouser. Loose trousers *tumāns* or *gharārās,* though still worn, are fast passing out of fashion in favour of the cut and style of the western pantaloon. The trousers are secured by a string round the waist. A Muslim usually never wears the Hindu dhoti or loin-cloth. He has white, sleeved muslin shirt, usually without a collar, the ends of which hang down outside the trousers. Over these the well-to-do have a waistcoat of velvet, brocade or broadcloth. Those who have imbibed the western habit would wear the English underclothing and the frock-coat; but some whose tastes are not entirely vitiated by western models adopt the flowing skirted coat called the *śervānī* and the *ackan.* In the house he wears a small cap, and on going out puts on a turban or loose headcloth or as was the fashion for a time the small red fez with a tassel. The removal of the shoes either on entering a house or mosque is not prescribed by Muhammedan law though it has become customary in imitation of the Hindus.

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Muslims.

A rich Muhammedan woman had a long shirt of muslin or net in different colours, embroidered on the neck and shoulders with gold lace, and draping down to the ankles. Under it, she wears silk pyjamās, and over it an *aṅgiā* bodice of broad-cloth or of silk, brocade or cloth of gold, bordered with gold and silver lace. On the head she has a shawl or square kerchief bordered with lace. A poor woman has simply a bodice and pyjamās, with a cloth round the waist to cover their ends. Women as a rule wear shoes, even though they do not go out, and they have a profusion of ornaments of much the same character as worn by Hindu women. However, the pronounced tendency is to reject solid gold for pearls and other precious stones. The wearing of heavy ornaments in the nose and ears is becoming less common. The boring of the nostril and cartilage and of the ear-lobes once held imperative is looked on nowadays with disfavour.

DIET.

Hindus.

The *Kuṇbīs* and other cultivating classes eat three times a day, at about eight in the morning, at mid-day and after dark. The morning meal is commonly eaten in the field and the other two at home.* At mid-day the cultivator comes home from work, bathes and takes his meal, having a rest for about two hours in all. After finishing work he again comes home and has his evening meal, and then, after a rest, at about ten o'clock he goes again to the fields, if the crops are on the ground, and sleeps on the *maḷā* or small elevated platform erected in the field to watch and protect the grain from birds and wild animals. Jowar is the staple food of this class, and is eaten both raw and cooked. The tender pods of jowar may be gnawed at in raw condition. It is a common custom among well-to-do tenants and proprietors to invite their friends to a picnic in the fields when the crop is ripe to eat *hurḍā* or the pods of jowar roasted in hot ashes. For cooking purposes jowar is ground in an ordinary handmill and then passed through a sieve, which separates the finer from the coarser particles. The finer flour is made into dough with hot water and baked into thick *bhākarīs* or flat unleavened cakes, weighing more than half a pound each; while the coarse flour is boiled in water like rice. The boiled pulse of *arhar* (*Cajanus indicus*) is commonly eaten with jowar, and the *bhākarīs* are dipped in oil or *ghee*. The sameness of this diet is varied by a number of green vegetables which are usually boiled and then mixed into a salad with groundnut or sesamum oil and flavoured with salt and powdered chillis. Another way of cooking jowar is to boil its granules with butter-milk into a substance resembling porridge; it is seasoned with pepper and vegetable oils. Onion and garlic, are either chopped and boiled, or eaten raw; *caṭṇī* made of crushed onion, salt and chilli may be substituted. To improve the flavour of some dishes, especially those made of pulses and vegetables they are processed with *phoḍaṇī*, a peculiar method of spicing.

* An artisan takes his breakfast at home and carries his lunch along with him where he works.

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DIET.

Hindus.

Except *Brāhmaṇs*,* Jains and Liṅgāyats who are enjoined not to partake of any animal food other caste Hindus may occasionally take animal food except beef.

The dietary of the well-to-do urbanites and higher caste Hindus is much more elaborate and systematised. Besides the usual cereals, pulses, vegetables and oils, a vegetarian includes in his diet dairy products like milk, butter, curds, buttermilk, *ghee* (clarified butter) and *vanaspatī* (hydrogenated oils) on a liberal scale. The morning tea with a light breakfast is followed by two meals, one between nine and eleven in the morning and the other between seven and nine in the evening.

Generally a *Marāṭhā Brāhmaṇ* eats, wearing only a clean *dhotī*. The rule among them is that a special cloth of silk or wool or such 'pure' material should be worn for the purpose of taking food, but this is now going out of fashion, except at festivals and caste feasts. But in orthodox families food is still eaten in the *caukā* or cooking place, spread with cowdung and marked in squares with lines of white powder (*Rāṅgoḷī*). A separate little square is marked for each person. Inside this is placed a little *pāṭ* or wooden seat about 3 inches high, to sit upon. Rice, wheat, jowar, pulse, and vegetables are generally the materials of both meals, wheat and jowar being preferred at the second or evening meal. Curds are always eaten. *Besan* or gram-flour fried with onion, chillies, cloves and other spices, and oil is a favourite dish. With rice is taken some *ghee*, *varaṇ* or liquid split pulse, and a curry or *āmṭī* of split pulse boiled with onions, spices, salt and tamarind. Curds, milk and buttermilk (*tāk*) are indispensable with higher castes, particularly *Brāhmaṇs*. Savouries like *caṭṇīs*, *rāyatas*, *kośiṁbīrs*, *loṇace*, *pāpaḍ* and *sāṇḍage* are the usual adjuncts to a meal among the well-to-do.

The dinner is served in three courses, the first of boiled rice and pulse with a spoonful or two of ghee, the second of *poḷī* or *capātī*, sugar and ghee with salads. The vegetables are served with each course. The plate is not changed during the dinner. In each course the chief dish is served in the centre of the plate, the vegetables and curries (in cups) are arranged on the right, and on the left, the salads, a piece of lemon and some salt.

In the more advanced communities a table-cloth, white or coloured, is spread on the ground and the dishes are placed on it. The people sit round it on stools and take their food from dishes placed on ground. Some well-to-do families from the upper class have now-a-days taken to dining on tables.

* Though *Brāhmaṇs* as a rule should not eat meat and drink intoxicating liquor, it is said that some indulgences in their case have been recognised. "Hindustāni *Brāhmaṇs* eat meat, according to Mr. Joshi, and others are now adopting this custom. The kinds of meat permitted are mutton and venison, scaly, but not scaleless fish, hares, and even the tortoise, wild bear, wild buffalo and rhinoceros. *Brāhmaṇs* are said even to eat domestic fowls, though not openly, and wild fowls are preferred. Mārāṭhā Brāhmaṇs will not eat meat openly. Formerly only the flesh of animals offered in sacrifice could be eaten, but this rule is being disregarded and some Brāhmaṇs buy mutton from the butchers." —Russel R. V., *Tribes and Castes of the Central Provinces* (1961), *Vol. II, p. 384.*

CHAPTER 3.

The People.

STIMULANTS AND NARCOTICS.

The stimulants and narcotics in use in the district in the pre-prohibition* days were fermented and distilled drinks.

Fermented liquor prepared as it was from the juice of the wild date-palm *khajurī* or from the brab palm *tāḍ* could not be much in use in Nāgpūr as there was no extensive plantation of those trees in the district. Intoxicating drinks were distilled from dates and raisins. But the chief alcoholic drink in use was the liquor made from flowers of the *mahuā, Bassia latifolia*, trees. To improve its flavour or its colour different varieties of fruits, flowers or herbs were sometimes added to the simple liquor. Of European wines and spirits, considerable and increasing quantities were imported into Nāgpūr from Bombay. Of this class of liquor the most popular varieties were the coarser kinds of brandy, and cheap ports, champagnes and beers. Liquor was generally drunk in taverns and licensed booths. Except the higher Hindus, all classes drank liquor. They belonged to two classes: the respectable customers who came into the tavern to drink, and the poorer classes who were served liquor as they came in an open space outside. Besides what was drunk publicly in the liquor shops, country-made spirits were taken privately by some persons in their own houses. At public dinners of some low caste Hindus, liquor was served to both men and women towards the close of the entertainment. All classes who drank country-liquor also drank European wines and spirits when they could obtain them.

Three preparations from hemp *bhāṅg* or *ambāḍī*, *Cannabis indica*, that is *bhāṅg*, *yākut* and *gāñjā* were in use. *Bhāṅg* was made from the leaves, flowers and seeds of the plant, first baked over fire and then grounded very fine. The intoxicating power depending to a considerable extent on the fineness of the powder. According to the taste and means of the consumer, dry rose leaves, almonds, cardamoms, pepper and other spices were pounded and mixed with the powder. The whole was again ground with water or with milk, sweetened with sugar, and strained through a cloth and the preparation was ready to be drunk. A few Parsees and Muslims drank *bhāṅg*, but it was chiefly consumed by the higher classes of Hindus who drank no other intoxicating liquor. In the hot season, and throughout the year on holidays and festivals *bhāṅg* was generally drunk but only a few people took it regularly. In small quantities it was cooling and slightly intoxicating causing at the same time a keen feeling of hunger. *Yākuti* or *mājum* was *bhāṅg* boiled in clarified butter and was an expensive article prepared by professionals.

The dried hemp plant which has flowered and from which the resin has not been removed is called *gāñjā*. As a rule *gāñjā* smokes were to be found at shrines or temples, religious mendicants and lower order of *Brāhmaṇs* being the chief

*Total Prohibition was introduced in Nāgpūr district with effect from 1st October 1946, under the C. P. and Berar Prohibition Act, 1938, which was in force in the district till 31st March 1959, and thereafter by the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949 (XXV of 1949) which was extended to Nāgpūr district subsequently.

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addicts. The plant washed four or five times, dried, and mixed with tobacco was smoked in whiffs about every half hour by the addict. Its effects were sudden and strong. Opium used either as a drug or as a narcotic was administered in several ways: it was rolled into a pill and swallowed or dissolved in water and drunk or smoked in a special preparation known as *caṇḍl*. By Rajputs opium was once held in high esteem as the seal of hospitality and the great healer of dispute. It was offered dissolved in water in cups as token of goodwill to guests who drank it in small quantity.

Of the 'non-prohibited' articles, tobacco, betel and areca-nut, tea and coffee and such drinks are extensively indulged in all over the district.

Tobacco is consumed in three ways: it is chewed; it is smoked; or it is taken in the form of snuff. The practice of chewing tobacco either plain or along with betel-leaves and areca-nut is common among Hindus, both men and women; and among Muslims, particularly women. Tobacco is smoked in pipes or in cigarettes or *biḍis*. Two kinds of pipes are in general use, the long-stemmed *hukkā* or hubble-bubble in which smoke is cooled as it is inhaled through water, and the short almost stemless bowl or *cilim*, where the smoke is sucked through a wet cloth wrapped at its bottom. Tobacco to be smoked in the *hukkā* or hubble-bubble is known as for *guḍākhu* which is specially processed with molasses, and water, and is principally used by Garasias or landed proprietors and better class people. Except a few *Brāhmaṇs*, among Hindus men of all classes smoke tobacco. Women seldom smoke a pipe, but many among the labouring and cultivating classes use *biḍis* or cigarettes.

Tea from Āssām, Darjeeling and Nilgirī tea gardens and blends and varieties of black tea known as pekoe, flowery-pekoe, orange-pekoe, broken-pekoe, souchong, etc., and their mixtures are in use.

Tea-drinking has become very common in the middle class families and the artisan classes including mechanics, drivers and other hard manual labourers. It has become almost a habit with the cultivating class or the lower income-group in the village. Tea with milk and sugar is taken early in the morning and sometimes in the afternoon. The elite drink it as a hot brew or infusion poured into a cup from a tea-pot adding milk and sugar to taste. The commoner usually has it as a composite drink, while some have it as a decoction of tea powder mixing pepper and dry ginger or cinnamon in it to cure indigestion. Coffee has not made much headway, its use being confined to a very small percentage of middle class families in the urban areas. It is a more favourite drink of the Muslims and South Indians. Cold drinks or *śarbat* are used very casually and more on the ceremonial occasions among the middle class families. Aerated water is confined to townships, where tea, *lassi* (cold drink of curd) and *śarbat* are the usual drinks served in restaurants and hotels.

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The habit of smoking is spreading particularly among the younger generation, who when they can afford it prefer to puff the fashionable cigarettes instead of *biḍis*. While eating tobacco, the addicts mix it with lime to make it more astringent and stimulating. The custom of taking snuff prevails among men both of the upper and middle classes. Chewing *pān* (leaves of betel-vine) with *supārī*, areca-nut, catechu and lime is very common among all classes. Along with their *pān* and *supārī* the rich chew cardamoms and other spices.

AMUSEMENTS.

Besides the usual yearly festivals Nagpūr City has its special public celebrations such as (1) *Baccokā* (children's) *Poḷā*, (2) *Mārbat*, and (3) *Maskharyā Gaṇapati*. On *Bhādrapada vad* 30, cowherds (*Gaḍis*) and other agricultural communities worship at home their bullocks, give them rest and feed them with sweet dishes, and in the evening decorating them take them out in a procession. In Nāgpūr, children make this '*Poḷā*' day an occasion for taking out at night a procession of decorated toy-bullocks to the temple of Śrī-Kṛṣṇa amidst lights and gala festivities, it being known as Children's Poḷā. The next day the townsfolk take out the *Mārbat* procession, when paper effigies symbolising vices and diseases are driven to a *maidān* amidst tomtomming and loud cheers, and then set fire to. Sometimes, this revelry becomes a big talk of the town, as they say that under the guise of burning *mārbat* effigies, people give vent to their feelings against persons they considered as public enemies.

After the usual Gaṇapati festival is over by the *Anant-caturdaśī* day, it is customary, particularly in Nāgpūr, to set up with due decorum another idol of Gaṇapati known as '*Maskharyā*' Gaṇapati, and make this an occasion for a change over to a programme of purely social entertainment such as dancing, *tamāśās*, singing of *povāḍās* and *lāvaṇīs*, etc. Some may also give an exhibition of *śer* or tiger dance before the deity in fulfilment of a vow.

In the rural areas the villagers sometimes had rude dramatic representations of their own, especially of the conquest of Rāvaṇ, the demon king, by Rāma on *Rāmnavamī* day on the 9th of *Caitra*. Burlesques were enacted at which European and Indian officials were caricatured. At some places, *dhandhar*, a sort of combined dance and dramatic performance was held in the Divāḷī festival; the young men and boys, some of whom were dressed as girls, stood in two lines, holding sticks which they beat against each other as they danced, while in the centre two actors enacted some performance.

Folk-dances.

Holidays and religious festivals are great occasions of social entertainment. Various types of dancing activities generally of the nature of folk-dances are current among the people, the occasion for them usually being the various religious festivals occurring mainly in the months of *Śrāvaṇa*, *Bhādrapada* and *Phālgun*. On the dark night of *Śrāvaṇa* and the day following

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are celebrated the festivals of *Gokuḷāṣṭamī* and *Dahikālā* which are occasions for the display of the spectacular *goph* and *ṭipṛī* and the boisterous *Kālā* and *Govindā* dances. In the same month among *Brāhmaṇs* and other advanced classes at the occasion of the *Maṅgaḷāgaur pūjā* young women dance a variety of folk-dances known *phugaḍis*. On the bright fourth of *Bhādrapada* and after, come the Gaṇeś and Gaurī festivals. In towns, at the public Gaṇapati celebrations are held *meḷā* performances, but in villages, the agricultural classes, enthusiastically observe the *Bharadi Gaurī* festival with singing, dancing and merry-making. In the same month while the sun is in the thirteenth constellation of the zodiac called *Hasta* or the Elephant, girls unmarried or newly married give a typical semi-dance known as *Hadgā* or *Bhoṇḍlā* and sing specially composed *Hadgā* or *Bhuleābāi* songs. *Holi* or *Śimgā* festival declaring the advent of the spring is spent in boisterous activities to include the performance of a *Tamāśā* troupe.

Some dances are danced more out of religious ecstasy and fervour than to give expression to an aesthetic feeling. The *diṇḍi* dance which devotees or *bhajanis* of the *Vārkarī* cult engage in while going to a temple of Viṭhobā or taking part in a religious procession belongs to this kind. Another dance of the ecstatic kind is the Mahālakṣmī dance better known as *ghāgar phuṅkaṇe* perhaps exclusively practised by women of the Citpāvan *Brāhmaṇ* community at the time of *Mahālakṣmī* worship in the bright half of Āśvin.

Goṇḍ Dancing.

Dancing and singing to the dance constituted the social amusement and recreation of the *Goṇḍs* who were known to be passionately fond of it. The principal dance was the *Karma* dance in celebration of the bringing of the leafy branch of a tree from the forest in the rains. Men and women formed two long lines opposite each other, with the musicians in the centre, and advanced and retreated alternately, bringing one foot forward and the other up behind it, with a similar movement in retiring. At a mixed dance, all the time they were dancing, they also sang in unison, the men sometimes singing one line and the women the next or both together. The songs were with a few exceptions of an erotic character.

Folk-songs.

In the rural area there would arise a number of occasions for the cultivating classes to entertain themselves with folk-songs to be sung individually or in a group. Of these, *lāvaṇī* and *povāḍā* songs, replete as they were with humour and common-sense formed a popular source of entertainment of the village-folks. There were professional exponents of the art and a contest between male *lāvaṇī* singers arranged at a *jatrā* (fair) though would attract many, it was the *lāvaṇī* of the female dancer-*cum*-singer at a *Tamāśā* that really delighted the audience. Folk-songs known as *bhaleri* were sometimes sung to encourage reapers working in the field, but at the harvesting time farmers sang special songs to enthuse, as it were, the

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bullocks treading corn. In the repertory of folk-songs of the villager may be included songs set in *ovī metre* which are often sung by women early morning while grinding corn; auspicious songs such as sung by *suvāsinis* at the *haḷad* and *ghāṇa* ceremonies in a marriage; *pāḷaṇe* or lullabies and cradle-songs which are soothing songs sung to put a child to sleep; propitiatory songs sung to appease the wrath of deities like smallpox, plague, etc.; *ārtyā* or songs in praise of gods and goddesses; and *ukhāṇe* which are riddles set in rhymes and also ditties composed for the use of woman to utter her husband's name in an involved way.

Bhajan, *Bhāruḍ*, *Gondhaḷ*, *Kirtan*, *Laḷita*, *Tumbaḍī* singing and *Tamaśā* are the other forms of community entertainments based on folk-songs found current in the district. Of these, *Bhajan*-singing, which aims at a religious communion to be achieved by chanting devotional songs in chorus, is widely popular. Occasionally, *Bhajan-saptāhas* or non-stop sessions of *bhajan*-singing for seven days, are held in celebrated temples. In *Bhāruḍs* is delineated in songs, delightfully spiced with humour, the traditional topic of 'spiritual uplift' of man. *Gondhaḷ* is a semi-musical performance given by a professional *Gondhaḷī* and his troupe in praise of gods and goddesses such as Malhārī, Bhavānī, Rām and other legendary heroes. A *kīrtan* is a musical discourse given by a *kīrtankār* in which God and religion are described and expounded in poetry and prose. A tendency is seen now-a-days to use *kīrtan* institution as a vehicle for spreading cultural and social ideas instead of purely religious ones. *Laḷita* as the probable precursor of Marāṭhī drama, is a form of crude theatrical which has for its plot an incident from the *purāṇas*. *Tumbaḍis* are musical satires on social problems. *Tamāśā* which is perhaps the most popular and alluring recreational activity in the rural areas consists of a *bārī* of five to seven artistes of histrionic talent and musical skill. The *nācyā* (dancer) in an amateur *tamāśā* troupe is generally a boy dressed as a girl; in a professional *tamāśā* a female dancer and singer is the centre of attraction. *Gaṇa*, *gavaḷan* and *vag* are the principal components of a *tamāśā*, and the ruling sentiment maintained throughout by means of dialogues and *lāvaṇīs* is usually crude and sensuous humour leaning to the erotic.

Games.

Among the educated classes Western games are rapidly being adopted by those who can afford them. In Nāgpūr city the "Indian Gymkhana", established in 1921, admits members from all classes and professions and provides them with facilities for playing cricket, tennis, billiards, table-tennis, and badminton, and indoor games such as cards, chess, carom, etc. The game of hockey is fostered by the Nāgpūr District Hockey Association and the Madhya Pradeś Women's Hockey Association. The Modi Cricket Club (est. 1892) besides cricket has also now included games such as football and hockey. Apart from these there are a number of other specialised associations to promote games such as badminton, football, table-tennis and volley-ball.

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There are also a number of clubs and associations to foster games, sports and athletics after Indian style. The *Madhya Pradeś Krīḍā Maṇḍaḷ* was established in 1934 to promote Indian games and systems of exercise such as *kho-kho*, *hututū*, *kabaḍḍī*, *malkhāmb* and *Yogāsanas*, and there are several other *vyāyām-śāḷās* (gymnasiums) and organisations with similar aims. But the traditional Indian institution to foster wrestling after Indian style and other supporting types of exercises is the *Ākhāḍā* or *tālim*. Many a village in the district have an *Ākhāḍā* or wrestling pit, at which boys and young men are trained in Indian wrestling and *deśī kasarat* or indigenous system of exercise under the guidance of a master or *ustād*. The Nāgpūr City *Ākhāḍā Saṅghaṭaṇ* (organisation) has associates to represent 78 *ākhāḍās* in the city. Organised wrestling competitions are held mostly in the monsoon the main days being the festivals of *Nāg-Pañcamī*, *Janmāṣṭamī* and *Nāraḷī Paurṇimā*. Bouts are also arranged at many of the village fairs. Much feeling is sometimes aroused at wrestling matches between the partisans of different champions, and the meetings sometimes end in a disturbance.

Cattle-racing in light carts, goading the animals to speed by all possible means, is a popular amusement of the cultivating classes in the district. Cattle-races are held on the festival of *Tīḷ-saṅkrānt*, at which two pairs of bullocks, yoked to a light *chakḍā* or cart, race against each other for a distance of half a mile or so, while the owners bet on the result. Such contests are also held at different fairs and a number of frantic cartmen long for the day when they could take part in the cart-racing. With the same spirit of contest villagers enjoy fights between rams, cocks and buffaloes specially trained for the purpose. But the entertainment to the taste of the city-dweller has to be of a more cultural type. Theatrical and circus companies as also professional troupes of acrobats, dancers and snake-charmers frequently visit Nāgpūr. Besides these, organised efforts to cater to the cultural needs of the people are made by several bodies. In the city there are some 19 associations with names such as Dramatic Club, *Kalā-mandir*, *Kalā-kendra*, *Raṅga-bhūmi*, *Nāṭya-Niketan*, etc. set up as they are for promoting the cause of dramatic art. However, the more popular type of entertainment availed of by the urbanites is at the talkies and cinema-houses which now number about 20 in Nāgpūr. There are also a number of libraries and reading-rooms, about 41 in Nāgpūr, which are much frequented in the evening by the reading public. In the city are published 7 dailies: 2 in English, 2 in Hindi and 3 in Marāṭhī; 1 bi-weekly in Hindi; 10 weeklies: 1 in English, 2 in Hindi, 1 in Hindi-Marāṭhī: 5 in Marāṭhī and 1 in Sanskṛt; 7 fortnightlies: 1 in English, 1 in Hindi, 4 in Marāṭhī and 1 in Hindi-Marāṭhī; 28 Monthlies: 9 in English, 7 in Hindi, 10 in Marāṭhī, 1 in Urdu and 1 in Hindi-Marāṭhī, and 4 quarterlies and bi-annuals: 1 in Hindi, 1 in Sindhi and 2 in multilanguages. They are also a number of associations, institutions and organisations to look after the wider cultural

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needs of the people in the field of music, dancing, painting and literature. There are about 22 institutions devoted to the service of Fine Arts—14 for music, 3 for dancing and 5 for painting. Classical Indian music, both vocal and instrumental is taught in the music schools and also instructions and training in different systems of classical Indian dancing are imparted at the *nṛtya-mandirs* or dancing schools.

Concerts are often held at music halls or in private houses where people may congregate to enjoy the performance of maestro or a *ustād* in singing or in instrumental music played on *sitār*, harmonium, *sāraṅgi*, *dilrubā*, flute, *tablā*, etc.

Many a house in the city is equipped with a harmonium or a *tablā*; a gramophone or a radio set, to help the inmates to pass off the ennui of their leisure hours. The radioset is usually set on more for film songs or news than for the educative talks.

Recreational activities and games popular among children of the district have parallels perhaps with such activities all the world over. Dolls are made of clay and cloth, and occasionally their marriages are celebrated with feasts and fireworks. Tag and chase games such as *āndhaḷī-kośimbir*, *lapaṇḍav* are popular among boys of all ages. Games such as *gup-cup-toba*, *surpā-rambī*, *vāgh-bakrī* are played in a team spirit. Games of *goṭyā* (marbles) and *bhomrā* (top) are played with keen sense of contest by boys; *bhatukli* (house-keeping), *gajge* or *sagargoṭe*, *phugḍyā* are essentially games played by girls. Games played in the primary and secondary schools and colleges in the district are practically the same as in any other district. Of these the well-known major Indian games are: *āṭyā-pāṭyā*, *kabaḍḍī*, *kho-kho*, *laṅgaḍī*, *lagoryā* and *viṭi-dāṇḍu*.

Swimming and walking on stilts are the pastimes of the month of *Śrāvaṇa*. Kite-flying is a favourite amusement with old and young in the open season, and the game of *pataṅg-laḍhaṇe* which consists in trying to cut the strings of each other's kites is played. When the string of a kite is cut and it falls to the ground, it becomes the property of the first person who can pick it up. For the purpose special kite-thread rubbed with paste mixed with glass-dust to make it hard and sharp is used.

CHAPTER 4—AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

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AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

AGRICULTURE IS THE MAINSTAY OF THE PEOPLE IN THE DISTRICT. Details regarding persons engaged in agriculture and in other allied occupations as given in the 1951 census are furnished in the following two tables:—

TABLE No. 1

POPULATION ENGAGED IN AGRICULTURE, IN NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1951.

—	Self-supporting persons		Earning Dependants		Non-earning Dependants		Persons following other professions as their main occupation but deriving secondary income from agriculture	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants.	68,722	4,729	17,170	62,181	62,607	83,559	9,765	4,804
2. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependants.	8,282	192	2,288	8,932	6,208	7,050	7,284	560
3. Cultivating labourers and their dependants	53,593	9,533	12,182	47,536.	26,476	30,199	31,760	1,37,240
4. Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants.	3,883	2,439	1,043	3,049	3,841	5,291	8,290	1,203
Total ..	1,34,480	16,893	32,683	1,21,698	99,132	1,26,099	57,099	1,43,807

TABLE No. 2

POPULATION ENGAGED IN ALLIED AGRICULTURAL OCCUPATIONS, IN NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1951.

Agricultural occupations	Employers		Employees		Independent workers		Total	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1. Stock raising	32	5	2,059	46	768	54	2,859	105
2. Rearing of small animals and insects	2	..	53	..	37	..	92	..
3. Plantation Industries	26	1	313	7	90	1	429	9
4. Forestry and collection of products	64	..	564	17	624	50	1,252	67
Total—All Classes	124	6	2,989	70	1,519	105	4,632	181

Agriculture was the main source of livelihood of 5,30,685 persons, including self-supporting persons and their dependents—both earning and non-earning. Besides, it provided subsidiary occupation to 2,94,228 persons. In the above two tables (No. 1 and No. 2) are included persons engaged in agricultural cultivation; landowners—cultivating and non-cultivating, farm labourers, garden cultivators, labourers working in forests and persons engaged in rearing, breeding of and dealing in live-stock. The majority of workers on land were cultivating owners who numbered 2,98,968. This included 73,451 self-supporting persons who worked on their own farms; 79,351 earning dependents who also worked on the farms but whose income was not sufficient to maintain them and 1,46,166 non-earning dependents, i.e., those who did not earn any income either in cash or in kind. Agricultural labourers, who worked on the farms belonging to others for wages in cash or in kind numbered 1,79,519 and formed the next numerous class. This included 63,126 self-supporting persons, 59,718 earning dependents and 56,675 non-earning dependents.

It will be seen from table No. 2 that only 92 persons were engaged in rearing of small animals and insects and 438 in plantation industries. Forestry and collection of products provided employment to 1,319 persons whereas the maximum employment was provided by stock-raising which engaged 2,964 persons. Persons engaged in live-stock business usually keep good quality cattle, buffaloes and transport animals, breed them and meet the local requirements of live-stock. Besides, they also keep poultry.

The basis of classification of agricultural population in the Census of 1961 was different. In 1961, 2,24,947 persons in Nagpur district were returned to be cultivators, of whom 14,362 were in the urban areas and 2,10,585 in the rural areas. Of the total number of cultivators 1,18,362 were men and 1,06,585 women. Agricultural labourers numbered 1,52,823, of whom 12,698 were in the urban areas and 1,40,125 in rural areas. The number of men and women among the agricultural labourers was 65,074 and 87,749, respectively.

Besides agricultural population proper, a number of allied agricultural occupations provided a source of livelihood to a large number of people. The following statement gives the number of people engaged in such occupations as given in the census returns of 1961.

TABLE No. 3

POPULATION ENGAGED IN ALLIED AGRICULTURAL OCCUPATIONS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT.

Allied Agricultural occupations	Employers		Employees		Independent workers		Total	
	Males	Fe-males	Males	Fe-males	Males	Fe-males	Males	Fe-males
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1. Field produce and Plantation crops.	20	5	615	40	86	40	721	85
2. Forestry and Logging.	40	..	376	10	518	108	934	118
3. Fishing	2	..	45	..	2,538	150	2,585	150
4. Live-Stock and Hunting.	87	17	4,071	59	5,834	567	9,992	643

Among the allied agricultural occupations live-stock and hunting provided a means of livelihood to a large number of people. Forestry and logging is also a relatively important occupation confined mainly to the eastern and northern sectors of the district.

RAINFALL.

Apart from the importance of rainfall as a controlling factor in tropical climates, the paramount importance of precipitation on plant life and economic development can hardly be exaggerated. Rainfall determines the nature of crops to be taken as well as the timing of various agricultural operations. The following table gives the average of rainfall for 50 years (1904-05 to 1954-55) together with average number of rainy days recorded at seven raingauge stations in the district:—

TABLE No. 4

RAINFALL RETURNS, NAGPUR DISTRICT.

(Average of rainfall in millimetres[1] for 50 years from 1904-05 to 1954-55)

Stations	Pre-monsoon		Monsoon		Post-monsoon		Winter		Total	
	1st April to 31st May		1st June to 30th September		1st October to 30th November		1st December to 31st March			
	Number of rainy days	Rainfall	Number of rainy days	Rainfall	Number of rainy days	Rainfall	Number of rainy days	Rainfall	Number of rainy days	Rainfall
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1. Khindsi*	1.95	12.192 (0.48)	58.05	886.714 (34.91)	3.35	39.370 (1.55)	6.05	52.832 (2.08)	69.45	991.103 (39.02)
2. Saoner*	3.45	22.860 (0.90)	53.75	789.178 (31.07)	3.85	136.652 (5.38)	5.85	50.800 (2.00)	66.50	999.490 (39.35)
3. Tharsa*	3.60	29.718 (1.17)	55.35	1,139.190 (44.85)	4.15	62.738 (2.47)	6.70	59.182 (2.33)	69.80	1,290.828 (50.82)
4. Nagpur	2.30	39.878 (1.57)	39.20	978.662 (38.53)	3.32	66.802 (2.63)	3.72	65.786 (2.59)	49.54	1,151.128 (45.32)
5. Ramtek	2.16	32.766 (1.29)	40.02	961.390 (37.85)	3.22	61.468 (2.42)	4.06	52.578 (2.07)	49.46	1,108.202 (43.63)
6. Katol	2.56	27.686 (1.09)	36.36	809.752 (31.88)	2.80	56.134 (2.21)	3.64	51.054 (2.01)	45.36	944.626 (37.19)
7. Umrer	2.26	36.830 (1.45)	41.26	1,055.370 (41.56)	3.34	63.246 (2.49)	2.10	56.134 (2.21)	48.96	1,236.980 (48.70)

*The data pertaining to rainy days and rainfall at these raingauge stations relates to a period of 20 years from 1934-35 to 1954-55.

[1]Figures of rainfall given in brackets are in inches

The district gets its rains from south-west monsoons originating from the Arabian seas. The average annual rainfall throughout the district amounts to 1016 mm. (40″). However, it ranges from 762 mm. (30″) to 1143 mm. (45″) in different parts. It is usually lightest in the west and increases gradually in the eastern parts. Ramtek and Umrer tahsils receive maximum rainfall, between 1016 mm. (40″) and 1143 mm. (45″), perhaps due to the hills and forest tracts in these areas. The rainfall in other tahsils is less and varies between 762 mm. (30″) and 1016 mm. (40″). Rainy season usually starts in early June and lasts up to October. Occasional showers in other seasons, such as winter or summer, are also not uncommon. The showers between January and March are sometimes accompanied by hail storms. In the hot season, the light showers are sometimes followed by severe dust storms. The yearly maximum and minimum temperature of the district is 47.2°C (117° F.) and 5.0°C (41° F.), respectively.

The most critical period of the year is the quarter from September to November. The climatic conditions of this period make or mar the autumn harvest and exert great influence on the success of spring crops. Considerable rainfall coupled with intermittent breaks of clear weather is essential in September, particularly in its last week. The cold weather rains as a rule are advantageous to the spring crops, provided they are light and well-distributed.

AGRICULTURAL SEASONS.

In Nagpur district all cultivable land comes under one of the three main categories, namely, *jirayat* (dry crop land), *bagayat* (watered or garden land) and *bhat* lands (rice lands). Dry crop lands because of their dependence on the monsoon are further divided into *kharif* (early monsoon) and *rabi* (late monsoon) lands.

The *kharif* season which commences from the middle of June and terminates by middle of October draws its rainfall chiefly from the south-west monsoons and from the occasional ante-monsoon showers in April-May and first half of June. An average rainfall of 1016 mm. (40″) is received during this season. The main *kharif* crops of the district are cotton, jowar, paddy, groundnut, *tur*, *kulthi*, *udid*, *mug*, *chavali*, *til*, castor seed, *ambadi*, chillis, brinjals, *bhendi*, cucurbits and leafy vegetables. The sowing operations of the *kharif* crops start from the middle of June and terminate by the middle of July. The sowing and reaping of these crops roughly coincide with the commencement and termination of the monsoon. These crops are generally harvested between October and December. *Kharif* crops except paddy are mainly grown in Katol and Saoner tahsils and western parts of Nagpur and Ramtek tahsils. Paddy is abundantly cultivated in eastern parts of Ramtek and Umrer tahsils.

The *rabi* season commences from the middle of October and terminates by the middle of February. The *rabi* crops are more important in the central part of the district comprising the southern part of Ramtek tahsil, eastern parts of Nagpur and

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Umrer tahsils where south-west monsoons are scanty and uncertain. The rainfall it receives is chiefly from the north-east monsoon. On an average it amounts to 50.8 mm. (2″). The *rabi* crops are brought to maturity by these rains and the moisture retained by the land during *kharif* season. Sowing of *rabi* crops is done in the months of October and November while they come to maturity between the end of January and March. The main crops taken during the *rabi* season are, wheat, gram, jowar, linseed, *lakhori*, peas, *val*, garlic, sweet potato, onion, carrot, brinjals, chillis, etc.

The hot season is practically neglected by the cultivators and hence it is unimportant. But preparatory tillage is undertaken during its latter part.

SOILS.

Climate, geology, vegetation, topography and time are five factors which influence the formation of soils. However, topography appears to have the predominant effect in the development of the soils of Nagpur district. The geology of the district is transitional with predominant trap rock in the western portion and sandstones and shales in the eastern portion. Due to the undulating topography of the district, soil erosion has also played an important part in the formation of soils. The soils with varying depths in the same catchment are, therefore, to be found in all the tahsils of the district.

The soils in the district may broadly be divided into following six classes: (1) *Kali*, (2) *Morand*, (3) *Khardi*, (4) *Bardi*, (5) *Kachhar* and (6) *Wardi*. The area in acres under the principal soil types in the district may be stated as under:—

Type of Soil	Area	
	Hectares	Acres
(1) Kali	21,083·490	(52,058)
(2) Morand	3,97,309·455	(9,81,011)
(3) Khardi and Bardi	2,23,006·365	(5,50,633)
(4) Kachhar	4,860·000	(12,000)

Black Soil.

Black cotton soil containing a small percentage of lime in a very powdered state is known as *kali*. In different places *kali* soil bears different names such as *chikni* meaning sticky soil, *gaohari*, wheat soil, etc. Black soil is also known as medium and deep soil. It is the richest soil in the district which is fine-grained and retentive of moisture. This is not much in use for *kharif* crops except in drier parts of the district like Katol tahsil and in the years of scanty rainfall. The soil hardens into large clods and when wet can be broken by hand into laminae. Black soil contains less lime nodules than *morand* soil. It is deep black in colour with its depth varying between 0·915 and 6·100 metres (three feet and twenty feet) or even more. It is clayey in texture, the clay content being about 60 per cent. It contains sand to the extent of about 10 per cent. Its PH value, i.e., the degree of acidity or alkalinity in solution is around eight per cent. This soil is found, roundabout Kalameshwar and Saoner in the

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Morand Soil.

Wardha river valley and in Nagpur-Kamptee plains covering less than two per cent of the total cultivated area in the district. Crops chiefly taken in these soils include among others, cotton, groundnut, jowar (*kharif*) and wheat.

When there is a higher percentage of lime than in the *kali* soil, present in the form of nodules about as large as peas, the black cotton soil is known as *morand*. It is the most predominant and the most common soil inasmuch as it occupies about 66 per cent of the cultivated area in the district. It is black and grey or dark to light brown in colour, its depth varying between 0.915 and 1·220 metres (3-4 feet) and 2·440 to 3·050 metres (8-10 feet). It is clayey in texture, the clay content being about 56 per cent. Its sand content (about 16 per cent) is much more than that of black soil. Its PH value is around eight per cent. This soil is easily culturable and is eminently suited to cotton and jowar. It makes excellent rice land when embanked requiring but little irrigation if the rainfall is normal. A second crop can also be taken in this soil. Hence, both *kharif* and *rabi* crops are taken in this soil. Chief crops grown comprise cotton, jowar, groundnut, wheat, linseed, and most of the pulses. The *bagayat* land in the district largely falls under *morand* land.

Khardi Soil.

This is the soil of hills. The term is applied to shallow soil mixed with sand and having grey colour. It is also applied to the sandy soil formed from crystalline rock which constitutes the regular rice land. Its PH value is about seven per cent. It is clay loam in texture, the clay content being about 36 per cent. This soil contains sand to the extent of nearly 23 per cent. It is dark brown in colour and blocky in structure. Due to shallow depth, the soils are only suitable for light *kharif* crops. In drier parts of Katol, Saoner and Nagpur tahsils *kharif* pulses and groundnut are grown. In wet parts of Ramtek and Umrer tahsils paddy followed by some pulses as a second crop is taken. *Khardi* soil and *bardi* soil (whose account follows) are alike in many respects except that the former is somewhat more fertile than the latter.

Bardi Soil.

This refers to the red gravel covered with boulders found on the summits and slopes of the trap hills. *Bardi* soil covers about five and a half per cent of the total cultivated area of the district, occurring principally in Katol tahsil. Though *bardi* field is often in surface a mass of stones, no portion of it is left fallow and good crops can be taken if manuring and cultivation of the crops are done carefully. Jowar (*kharif*), sesame and pulses (*kharif*) like *udid*, *mug*, *tur*, etc., are profusely grown in these soils. Wherever the soil is levelled, cotton is also cultivated.

Kachhar Soil.

This category includes alluvial lands fertilized by the deposit of silt found in the river beds. This land is chiefly found in Nagpur district on the banks of Kanhan river. Its depth varies between 0.915 and 1.220 metres (three and four feet) and 2.440 to 3·050 metres (eight to ten feet). It contains silt to the extent of about 48 per cent, organic matter a little over three per cent, sand 25 per cent and clay 21·5 per cent. It is loamy in texture and has PH value of about eight per cent. On account of its

alluvial silt and crops including cotton and garden crops can be grown abundantly in it. In a year of flood the land receives a fresh layer of silt which makes for bumper crops for the next few years.

Wardi Soil.

This is a red soil, containing a little over 60 per cent of sand. It is shallow in depth and sandy clay loam in texture. Its PH value is nearly seven per cent and clay content about 23 per cent. The term *Wardi* originates in Chanda district. This soil is found in paddy growing tracts in Ramtek and Umrer tahsils.

Retari and Tambhari.

In addition to the types of soil described above, two other minor types *retari* and *tambhari* are also observed. *Retari* or sandy soil of the non-rice producing parts of the district which varies in quality and depth as per the underlying rock. *Tambhari* is the copper coloured soil, found in patches mainly in Umrer tahsil. It is capable of retaining moisture and varies considerably in quality from place to place.

The following table reveals the analysis of soils in Nagpur district in 1959:—

TABLE No. 5

ANALYSIS OF SOILS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT—1959.

rial o. 1)	(2)	Kali* (3)	Morand* (4)	Khardi and Bardi* (5)	Wardi* (6)	Kachhar* (7)
1	Colour ..	Deep Black ..	Black and Grey ..	Greyish or Reddish ..	Red ..	Grey.
2	Depth ..	Variable 0.610—0.915 metres to 4.575—6.100 metres. (2-3 ft. to 15—20 ft. or more).	Variable 0.915—1.220 to 72.440—3.050 metres. (3-4 to 8—10 ft.)	Shallow ..	Shallow ..	Variable 0.915—1.220 to 2.440—3.050 metres. (3-4 ft. to 8—10 ft.)
3	Moisture ..	11.04 per cent ..	7.53 per cent ..	5.54 per cent ..	0.21 per cent ..	6.23 per cent.
4	Drainage ..	Slow ..	Moderate ..	Moderately rapid to rapid.	Rapid ..	Moderate.
5	Slope ..	Nearly level ..	Nearly level to gently undulating.	Gently rolling to rolling	Gently rolling ..	Nearly level.
			(Per cent on oven dry basis)			
6	Organic matter ..	1.78	1.087	0.843	2.003	3.11
7	Calcium Carbonate ..	0.35	6.02	0.19	0.21	0.07
8	Sand ..	10.04	16.13	22.87	62.66	24.76
9	Clay ..	61.12	56.30	35.90	23.45	21.54
10	Silt ..	28.00	20.20	40.29	11.40	47.80
11	Textural class ..	Clay soil ..	Clay soil ..	Clay loam ..	Sandy clay loam ..	Loam
12	Organic Carbon ..	1.036	0.632	0.489	1.16	1.81
13	Nitrogen ..	0.083	0.0549	0.0437	0.107	0.15
14	PH Value ..	7.9	7.8	7.1	6.8	7.9
15	PO_{25} ..	0.095	0.08	0.05	0.048	0.087
16	KO_2 ..	0.62	0.52	0.47	0.51	0.63
17	Exchangeable Calcium	51.60	(Milli. equivalents for 100 gm. soil) 44.20	15.04	10.05	..
18	Exchangeable Magnesium.	11.13	9.05	3.09	3.17	..
19	Exchangeable Sodium and Potassium.	2.13	0.87	0.85	0.92	..
	Total Bases ..	65.9	54.40	20.12	14.7	..

*These are local names of the various types of soils.

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LAND UTILISATION.

The data regarding classification of the total area of the region according to various heads of land utilisation, not only reflect the extent of development of agricultural activities in the district but also represent to some extent the cultivation potential of the area.

The following table presents the classification of total geographical area under different categories:—

TABLE No. 6

LAND UTILISATION (TAHSIL-WISE) IN NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1958-59.

(Area in Hectares)*

Serial No.	—	Nagpur	Ramtek	Umrer	Katol	Saoner	District total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1	Total geographical area by village papers ..	1,93,856·895 (4,78,659)	172,974·285 (4,27,097)	2,32,314·075 (5,73,615)	1,45,726·695 (3,59,819)	1,11,716·415 (2,75,843)	8,56,588·365 (21,15,033)
2	Forests	9,482·265 (23,413)	10,929·330 (26,986)	24,710·265 (61,013)	4,269·915 (10,543)	1,799·415 (4,443)	51,187·140 (1,26,388)
3	Barren and unculturable land	2,765·745 (6,829)	4,097·790 (10,118)	2,950·920 (7,284)	4,003·425 (9,885)	3,065·850 (7,570)	16,882·830 (41,686)
4	Land put to non-agricultural uses	15,515·955 (38,311)	12,203·865 (30,133)	13,415·625 (33,125)	8,291·160 (20,472)	7,817·310 (19,302)	57,243·915 (1,41,343)
5	Culturable waste	9,861.345 (24,349)	14,405·850 (35,570)	13,867·605 (34,241)	8,120·655 (20,051)	2,676·645 (6,609)	48,932·100 (1,20,820)
6	Permanent pastures and other grazing lands ..	29,996·730 (74,066)	18,442·080 (45,536)	38,842·335 (95,907)	17,593·605 (43,441)	13,622·175 (33,635)	1,18,496·925 (2,92,585)
7	Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in area sown.	688·905 (1,701)	1,774·305 (4,381)	2,462·805 (6·081)	765·450 (1,890)	63·180 (156)	5,754·645 (14,209)
8	Other fallows	5,333·445 (13,169)	4,958·010 (12,242)	2,737·395 (6,759)	2,207·250 (5,450)	2,101·950 (5,190)	17,338·050 (42,810)
9	Net area sown	1,17,425·700 (2,89,940)	1,03,919·760 (2,56,592)	1,32,242·220 (3,26,524)	98,523·540 (2,43,268)	79,211·925 (1,95,585)	5,31,323·145 (18,11,909)
10	Area sown more than once	839·970 (2,074)	2,129·895 (5,259)	2,853·225 (7,045)	1,997·865 (4,933)	520·830 (1,286)	8,341·785 (20,597)
11	Total cropped (i.e., gross cropped) area.. ..	1,18,265·670 (2,92,014)	1,06,049·655 (2,61,851)	1,35,095·445 (3,33,569)	1,00,521·405 (2,48,201)	79,732·755 (1,96,871)	5,39,664·930 (13,32,506)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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The gross cropped area of 539664·930 hectares (13,32,506 acres) in 1958-59 comprised 531323·154 hectares (13,11,909 acres) of net area sown and 8341·785 hectares (20,597 acres) of area sown more than once, distributed into food crops and non-food crops as shown in the following table:—

TABLE No. 7

DISTRIBUTION OF CROPPED AREA 1958-59.

(Area in hectares)*

Tahsil (1)	Food crops (2)	Non-food crops (3)	Total (4)
Nagpur	90,157·455 (2,22,611)	28,108·215 (69,403)	1,18,265·670 (2,92,014)
Ramtek	93,836·070 (2,31,694)	12,213·585 (30,157)	1,06,049·655 (2,61,851)
Umrer	1,11,648·375 (2,75,675)	25,447·070 (57,894)	1,35,095·445 (3,33,569)
Katol	70,680·600 (1,74,520)	29,840·805 (73,681)	1,00,521·405 (2,48,201)
Saoner	61,960·140 (1,52,988)	17,772·615 (43,883)	79,732·755 (1,96,871)
District Total ..	4,28,282·640 (10,57,488)	1,11,382·290 (2,75,018)	5,39,664·930 (13,32,506)

*Figures in brackets are in acres.

The table reveals that the area under food crops was nearly four times that under non-food crops. Umrer tahsil claimed the largest area under food crops, *viz.*, 111648.375 hectares (2,75,675 acres) while Katol tahsil accounted for the largest area under non-food crops, *viz.*, 29840.805 hectares (73,681 acres). However, taking into account food crops and non-food crops it was Umrer tahsil which accounted again for 137525.445 hectares (3,33,569 acres) or approximately one-fourth of the cropped area in the district in 1958-59. Tahsil-wise area under different crops is set out in the table below:—

TABLE No. 8

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS, 1958-59 (TAHSIL-WISE).

(Area in hectares)*

Crops (1)	Nagpur (2)	Ramtek (3)	Umrer (4)	Katol (5)	Saoner (6)	District Total (7)
Cereals	70,262·640 (1,73,488)	73,123·560 (1,80,552)	80,271·810 (1,98,202)	54,857·655 (1,35,451)	45,983·700 (1,13,540)	32,449·365 (8,01,233)
Pulses	14,624·550 (36,110)	17,002·710 (41,982)	17,623·575 (43,515)	11,416·950 (28,190)	12,354·525 (30,505)	73,022·310 (1,80,302)
Oil-seeds	7,131·240 (17,608)	9,997·830 (24,686)	18,092·970 (44,674)	6,668·325 (16,465)	1,658·070 (4,094)	43,548·435 (1,07,527)
Drugs and Narcotics ..	16·605 (41)	16·605 (41)	..	1·620 (4)	67·230 (166)	102·060 (252)
Condiments and spices ..	2,314·980 (5,716)	2,108·430 (5,206)	12,683·385 (31,317)	652·455 (1,611)	673·110 (1,662)	18,432·360 (45,512)
Fibres	20,836·440 (51,448)	2,185·785 (5,397)	5,339·520 (13,184)	23,117·805 (57,081)	16,033·950 (39,590)	67,513·500 (1,66,700)
Fruits and Vegetables ..	2,913·570 (7,194)	1,543·050 (3,810)	941·625 (2,325)	3,731·670 (9,214)	2,928·555 (7,231)	12,058·470 (29,774)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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LAND UTILISATION.

Cropped Area.

area under cereals, pulses, oil-seeds and condiments and spices. The figures of area under important crops falling under categories of cereals, pulses, oil-seeds, fibres, etc., are given in the table below:—

The following table gives area under important crops:—

TABLE No. 9

AREA UNDER IMPORTANT CROPS, 1958-59 (TAHSIL-WISE)

(Area in hectares)*

Crop (1)	Nagpur (2)	Ramtek (3)	Umrer (4)	Katol (5)	Saoner (6)	District Total (7)
Rice	492·075 (1,215)	10,730·070 (26,494)	7,895·070 (19,494)	729·405 (1,801)	111·375 (275)	19,957·995 (49,279)
Wheat	16,163·955 (39,911)	19,362·240 (47,808)	24,843·105 (61,341)	3,894·885 (9,617)	2,568·915 (6,343)	66,833·100 (1,65,020)
Jowar	53,575·425 (1,32,285)	42,671·205 (1,05,361)	47,532·420 (1,17,364)	49,866·840 (1,23,128)	43,282·755 (1,06,871)	2,36,928·645 (5,85,009)
Gram	1,249·830 (3,086)	2,118·555 (5,231)	2,177·685 (5,377)	2,434·050 (6,010)	649·620 (1,604)	8,629·740 (21,308)
Tur (Arhar)	11,122·515 (27,463)	11,399·940 (28,148)	6,572·745 (16,229)	7,922·610 (19,562)	11,044·350 (27,270)	48,062·160 (1,18,672)
Chillis	1,998·675 (4,935)	1,882·845 (4,649)	12,487·365 (30,833)	583·200 (1,440)	348·300 (860)	17,300·385 (42,717)
Cotton	20,678·085 (51,057)	1,995·435 (4,927)	5,098·140 (12,588)	22,861·845 (56,449)	15,945·660 (39,372)	66,579·165 (1,64,393)
Sesame	2,251·800 (5,560)	3,073·545 (7,589)	6,871·230 (16,966)	377·055 (931)	446·310 (1,102)	13,019·940 (32,148)
Linseed	4,831·245 (11·929)	6,878·925 (16,985)	11,132·640 (27,488)	217·890 (538)	565·380 (1,396)	23,626·080 (58,336)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

LAND UTILISATION.

Forest Area.

The area under reserved forests and protected forests in Nagpur district was 132738·750 hectares (3,27,750 acres) and 147290·400 hectares (3,63,680 acres), respectively, in the year 1959-60. The range-wise classification of reserved and protected forests as also the distribution of area under forests into that in charge of Forest Department and in charge of Revenue Department is given in the table below :—

TABLE No. 10

STATEMENT SHOWING TAHSIL-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF FOREST AREA (IN HECTARES)* IN NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1959-60.

Range	Tahsils (whole or part) included in the Range	Forest in charge of Forest Department		Forest in charge of Revenue Department		Reserve [cols. (3) & (5)]	Protected [cols. (4) & (6)]
		Reserved	Protected	Reserved	Protected		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1. Kondhali	Katol	25,208·791 (62,243·93)	96,103·228 (2,37,292·07)	N	51,187·140 (1,26,388)	25,208·791 (62,243·93)	1,47,290·428 (3,63,680·07)
	Nagpur (part)						
	Saoner (part)						
2. South Umrer	Umrer (part)	15,305·355 (37,791·00)				15,305·355 (37,791·00)	
3. North Umrer	Umrer (part)	3,782·700 (9,340·00)				3,782·700 (9,340·00)	
	Nagpur (part)						
4. Ramtek	Ramtek (part)	27,475·200 (67,840·00)				27,475·200 (67,840·00)	
5. Deolapar	Ramtek (part)	30,569·602 (75,480·50)				30,569·602 (75,480·50)	
6. West Pench	Ramtek (part)	30,397·275 (75,055·00)				30,397·275 (75,055·00)	
	Saoner (part)						
	Total ..	1,32,738·924 (3,27,750·43)	96,103·228 (2,37,292·07)	Nil	51,187·140 (1,26,388)	1,32,738·924 (3,27,750·43)	1,47,290·428 (3,63,680·07)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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Forest Area.

LAND UTILISATION.

Forest Area.

Major forest produce of this district comprises timber and firewood. The outturn of timber amounted to 16462.320 cubic metres (587·94 thousand cubic feet) valued at Rs. 23,86,894 while that of firewood amounted to 88532·080 cubic metres (3,161.86 thousand cubic feet) valued at Rs. 15,46,945 in 1959-60. Minor produce comprised 1,06,128 bamboos valued at Rs. 3,092 ; 62821875.600 Kilograms (5,61,110 *pallas*) of fodder and grazing grass valued at Rs. 1,12,222 and 31,620 *pallas* of thatching grass valued at Rs. 6,324 in 1959-60. Other minor products realised Rs. 2,44,843. The total value of major forest produce thus amounted to Rs. 39,33,839 as against that of Rs. 3,66,481 of minor forest produce. The forests in this Division meet major part of the fuel requirements of this district which is co-terminous with the Division However, if shortage is felt during any particular year, some fuel has to be imported. Besides major and minor forest produce referred to above, mention may be made of the fact that there are a number of saw mills in Nagpur district and a substantial quantity of sawn teak timber is sent to Calcutta and Bombay markets.

HOLDINGS.

The size of agricultural holding is very important in the context of productivity of agriculture. A big size of holding facilitates the use of scientific methods of cultivation and optimum production. Uneconomic holdings increase the unit cost of production and the total yield as well. They are one of the greatest obstacles in the way of mechanisation of agriculture. With the rapid increase in population, aided by the age-old laws of inheritance and succession, the size of personal holding is becoming smaller and smaller.

It may however be mentioned that the average size of land holding in Nagpur district is much bigger than that in many other districts of Maharashtra. Though the number of optimum holdings is less the magnitude of the problem of small holdings is not big. The average size of holding,* is shown in the following table:—

Tahsil	Average size of holding	
	Hectares	Acres
Nagpur	5·17 590	12·78
Katol	3·19 545	7·89
Saoner	3·40 200	8·40
Ramtek	2·81 475	6·95
Umrer	5·25 690	12·98

The average size is the biggest in Umrer taluka and the smallest in Ramtek.

The following table gives an idea of the land holdings in the various magnitude groups.

*The average size of holding means the acreage of land held by an average landholder. The average is determined by dividing the total acreage of land by the number of holders in the tahsil.

HOLDINGS.

TABLE No. 11

STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN NAGPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1962-63.

(Area in hectares)*

Tahsil	Up to 5 acres		Over 5 and up to 15 acres		Over 15 and up to 25 acres	
	Landholders	Area	Landholders	Area	Landholders	Area
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Nagpur	7,337	8,481·42495 (20,941·79)	10,411	39251·15010 (96,916·42)	4,077	30,809·99430 (76,074·06)
Katol	16,999	17,296·19730 (42,706·66)	13,616	44699·70420 (1,10,369·64)	3,259	23,085·0050 (57,0,0·00)
Saoner	12,752	13,907·53800 (34,379·00)	10,626	37027·84590 (91,426·78)	2,593	18,755·44875 (46,309·75)
Ramtek	11,044	11,541·19185 (28,496·77)	11,711	21,572·14680 (53,264·56)	2,844	15,959·20725 (39,405·45)
Umrer	11,983	13,850·03610 (34,197·62)	12,132	46495·66455 (1,14,804·11)	4,263	39630·36780 (97,852·76)
District Total ..	60,115	65,056·13820 (160,632·44)	58,496	189046·51155 (4,66,781·51)	17,037	12,819·06810 (31,652·02)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

HOLDINGS.

TABLE No. 11

STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN NAGPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1962-63—contd.

(Area in hectares)*

Tahsil	Over 25 and up to 50 acres		Over 50 and up to 100 acres		Over 100 and up to 500 acres		Over 500 acres	
	Land-holders	Area	Land-holders	Area	Land-holders	Area	Land-holders	Area
(1)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
Nagpur	2,543	32904·13590 (81,244·78)	704	13,111·82640 (32,374·88)	98	5510·43405 (13,606·01)	1	223·82730 (552·66)
Katol	1,486	18647·41905 (46,043·01)	357	8,400·76920 (20,742·64)	58	2128·43700 (5,255·40)	..	..
Saoner	1,440	19,902·08475 (49,140·95)	179	2,492·82360 (6,155·12)	56	2001·46950 (4,941·90)	..	..
Ramtek	2,197†	26,519·67945† (65,480·69)	..	..	59	2867·37570 (7079·94)	..	..
Umrer	3,312†	60,775·48665† (1,50,062·93)	..	..	125	6225·19830 (15,370·96)	1	262·17675 (647·85)
District Total ..	10,978	185748·80580 (3,91,972·36)	1,240	24,005·41920 (59,272·64)	396	18632·91455 (46,254·11)	2	486·20655 (1,200·51)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

†These figures include the number of landholders and the area to be given under the column of "over 50 and up to 100 acres".

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HOLDINGS.

The largest number of landholders and the highest acreage in the district is covered under the two magnitude groups, viz., (1) up to 2.025 hectares (5 acres), and (2) over 2.025 hectares (5 acres) and up to 6.075 hectares (15 acres). It thus appears that a considerable number of landholders in the district possessed less than 2.025 hectares (5 acres). However a large number of holders possess more than 6.075 hectares (15 acres) of land. Persons holding more than 40.500 but less than 202.500 hectares (100 but less than 500 acres), are also an important class. Their number is highest in Umrer taluka, viz., 125. One person in Nagpur possesses 223.82730 hectares (552.66 acres) whereas another holder in Umrer holds 262.37925 hectares (647.85 acres).

Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings.

One of the factors leading to low agricultural productivity is fragmentation and the small size of holdings. The growing pressure of population on land and the customary laws of inheritance are mainly responsible for the sub-division of holdings. The sub-divided holdings are not only small in size but are scattered. This makes agriculture uneconomic, and deprives the cultivator of the advantages of large-scale cultivation. It was, therefore, felt necessary by the Government that consolidation of fragmented lands should be fostered through legal enactment. It was also decided that further sub-division of holdings into uneconomic patches should be prevented. The State Government passed an enactment, viz., "Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947", to deal effectively with the situation.

The Act provides for prevention of fragmentation and consolidation of holdings. For this purpose it provides for determination of local standard areas, minimum size of an individual fragment, procedure for consolidation and with actual consolidation of holdings. It also prevents further sub-division of farms which are of less than the standard size. A standard area in respect of any class of land means the area which the Government may from time to time determine as the minimum area necessary for remunerative cultivation in the district.

The Act prescribes that fragments must be entered in the Record of Rights and other village records and notices must be given to the concerned parties. After the issue of such notices transfer of the fragments is prohibited except in case of its merger in a contiguous survey number or piece of land. Though the owner or his heirs can cultivate it, the fragment cannot be leased or sold to any other person except the owner of the contiguous land. No land can be partitioned so as to create a fragment. Any breach of these provisions makes a person liable to pay a fine up to Rs. 250.

The Act also provides for consolidation of fragments. The basic principle implied in the scheme is that redistribution of land is made within the existing proprietary rights and that in the process of exchange everybody should get land of the same value and of equal productivity.

The Act was made applicable to Nagpur district recently.

In the beginning of the present century, co-operative societies were formed for purposes such as lift-irrigation, improvement of land of private owners, reclamation and improvement of Government waste lands granted to individuals and protection of crops against damage from wild pigs, thieves, etc. Propaganda for the adoption of better methods of cultivation was carried on by Divisional and District Agricultural Associations and Taluka Development Associations. Government provided the necessary incentive by grant of State-aid on a liberal scale. The Government's intention behind all these measures was to intensify the Grow More Food Campaign through formation of a large number of lift-irrigation societies and co-operative farming societies.

The proverbial poverty of agriculturists and traditional methods of agriculture account for the low agricultural yield. In this context co-operative farming is likely to play a significant role inasmuch as the agriculturist can readily increase the size of the unit of cultivation and derive all the advantages accruing from large-scale farming. For instance the farmer would be able to strengthen his source of credit, purchase and use of modern machinery and costly farm equipment, effect efficient division of labour, provide irrigation, undertake measures for permanent development of land and finally to sell his produce advantageously, which it would be beyond the capacity of an individual farmer to achieve. The cultivator derives these benefits by becoming a member of the co-operative farming society which gives financial and other assistance and caters to the needs of its members with a view to ensuring their well-being and over-all progress of the co-operative society itself.

In Nagpur district there are four co-operative joint farming societies as indicated below:—

(1) Suwardara Co-operative Joint Farming Society Ltd., Suwardara, Tahsil Ramtek.
(2) Premier Co-operative Joint Farming Society Ltd., Khandala, Tahsil Ramtek.
(3) Sri Renuka Sahakari Krishi Vikas Society Ltd., Saongi, Tahsil Nagpur.
(4) Sri Deenbandhu Co-operative Joint Farming Society Ltd., Waranga, Tahsil Nagpur.

Of these, the first is dormant since its inception in 1950. The second was registered in 1956, while the remaining came into existence during 1959-60. In other words, the co-operative farming societies are in an infant stage. The general body is the supreme authority which determines and controls the general policy of a co-operative society. However, the day-to-day management is vested in the managing committee which consists of seven members elected every year at the time of the general meeting. Besides, there is also a board of supervision consisting of five members including one representative each, of the departments of Agriculture and Co-operation.

The following table gives details regarding their membership, share capital, etc.:—

TABLE No. 12

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1959-60

Name	Membership		Land pooled for joint cultivation (in hectares)*	Share Capital		Reserve Fund
	Land-owners	Others		Govt.	Other	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
				Rs.	Rs.	
(1) Premier Co-operative Joint Farming Society Ltd., Khandala.	14	3	248 (100·362)	4,000	450	..
(2) Deenbandhu Co-operative Joint Farming Society Ltd., Waranga.	12	4	133 (53·823)	4,000	400	..
(3) Shri Renuka Krishi Vikas Society Ltd., Saongi.	9	4	486 (196·677)	4,000	1,200	..

Co-operative farming implies pooling together of small plots of land and their joint management. All the four societies obtaining in this district are joint farming societies whereas co-operative better farming societies, tenant farming societies and collective farming societies have not been formed. Efforts are being made to organise collective farming societies on Government land. Three such proposals were under consideration in 1959-60. As will be observed from the above table, all the three societies received a sum of Rs. 4,000 each from the Government as its contribution towards the share capital. This has enhanced the capacity of the societies to raise funds. The societies are also eligible for getting free services of a manager or subsidy of Rs. 1,200 per year if the manager is appointed with the approval of the Department of Co-operation.

Premier Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Khandala, has been selected under the scheme of intensive development and received a loan of Rs. 24,000 from the Government in 1957-58 for the following purposes:—

Particulars	Rs.
(1) Construction and repairs to wells ...	2,500
(2) Installation of pumping sets ...	7,200
(3) Purchase of implements, accessories, bullocks, etc.	6,800
(4) Construction of cattle-sheds and godowns.	5,000
(5) Bunding and levelling ...	2,500
Total ...	24,000

*Figures in brackets are in hectares and those outside in acres.

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CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

The Central Financing Agency of Nagpur district also extended financial assistance to three societies as shown below:—

Particulars	Rs.
(1) Sri Renuka Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Saongi.	16,400
(2) Sri Deenbandhu Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Waranga.	8,700
(3) Premier Co-operative Joint Farming Society, Ltd., Khandala.	5,000
Total ...	30,100

As the societies have begun to function very recently, it is not possible to assess precisely the benefits that have accrued to the people of the district. Of the three societies, the one at Khandala was able to effect major land improvements like digging of wells, bunding and levelling, installation of pumping sets, construction of sheds for cattle, etc. In view of the extensive propaganda undertaken by the official agencies and the expected popular support, it is hoped that the movement will gain ground in the near future.

CEREALS.

Bhat or Dhan.

Bhat or *Dhan* (rice) is a staple food crop of the district, especially of Ramtek and Umrer tahsils. It occupied an area of 19998.495 hectares (49,379 acres) during 1958-59. Paddy is sown in June and harvested from about the middle of September onwards. The average yield of *dhan* per acre amounts to 679.500 kilograms (1,500 lbs.). In March and April every year, the land is ploughed, harrowed twice and, if possible, is manured by farm-yard manure. Green-manuring is followed in irrigated lands. Seen nurseries are sown some time in June after fair showers of the monsoon. Raised seedbeds are prepared and nurseries of paddy crop are raised. The transplanting is done in the fields by hands, usually in the last week of July. However, the cultivators find transplanting expensive and laborious. Paddy fields called *bandhies* are formed generally by embanking the field on all four sides by earthen bunds so as to allow the field to hold sufficient water. The supply of water is controlled by these bunds. The yield of paddy depends upon a constant supply of fresh water and of manures at the proper time. After transplanting is over, the water is kept standing in the field up to the desired level till the crop ripens. The crop is harvested from the middle of September onwards by means of sickle (*khurpa*). The stalks with earheads are stacked near the threshing-floor. Recently, some improved early, medium and late maturing varieties of rice have been introduced in the district, *viz.*, Nasik 27, E.B. 17, Red *machai*, *Sultu*, *Gurmitia*, *Chhatri*, *Badshabhog*, *Chinnor*; Burma XXX, X_1, X_2, X_5, X_{116}, X_{22} and *Banisar*.

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CEREALS.

Bhat or Dhan.

Japanese method of paddy cultivation.

Recently, the Japanese method of paddy cultivation has attracted the attention of farmers. Farm demonstrations and publicity programmes are organised by the Department of Agriculture to popularise this method. In 1960-61, an area of nearly 3523.500 hectares (8,700 acres) under paddy was cultivated according to this method. The main features of this method may briefly be mentioned as under—

(1) raised bed nurseries for seedlings,

(2) low seed rate for nurseries,

(3) heavy manuring of the crop both in nurseries and in the field,

(4) transplanting of fewer seedlings per bunch, and

(5) adequate interculturing and proper weeding.

The rich yield of paddy depends as much upon the plentiful and constant supply of water as upon the character of the soil. With a view to accelerating the adoption of this method by farmers, a new scheme entitled, 'Paddy Pilot Scheme' was introduced in 1960 in Ramtek and Umrer tahsils, particularly in Ramtek, Mouda, Kuhi and Bhiwapur blocks of this district. Under the scheme, loans are advanced to the cultivators through the District Central Co-operative Bank and seeds and fertilisers are made easily available through co-operative societies. Special staff is also appointed to demonstrate the method in each village included in the block. It is hoped that this will serve the twin object of bringing sufficient acreage under this method and of increasing the yield of *dhan* per acre.

Jvari

Jvari (jowar) the staple food crop of the district occupied 236928.645 hectares (5,85,009 acres) during 1958-59. It is taken as a *kharif* as well as a *rabi* crop. However, the former season is predominant as is evidenced by the fact that 192719.250 hectares (4,75,850 acres) of land was under *kharif* jowar in 1958-59. Katol, Saoner and Nagpur are the chief *kharif* jowar producing tahsils while the *rabi* crop is mainly taken in Ramtek and Umrer tahsils. Katol and Saoner tahsils have been in the forefront in so far as improvements in the methods of cultivation of this crop are concerned. In 1961-62 two jowar pilot blocks were separately allotted for Katol and Kalmeshwar National Extension Service Blocks with a target of 202.500 hectares (500 acres) each. The method of drilling the seed is being replaced by the dibbling method. It has resulted in increasing the yield of jowar to the extent of 50 per cent or more over its normal yield.

There are numerous varieties some of which belong to the early and others to the late maturing varieties. Early maturing varieties are sown in light soils while late varieties are sown in deep black or irrigated lands. *Kharif* jowar is sown in June-July and harvested from November onwards whereas *rabi* jowar is sown in September-October and harvested in February-March. The average yield of *kharif* jowar per acre is 271.800 kilograms (600 lbs.). The chief *kharif* varieties grown are *Bhisnoory Dukri*, *Saoner*

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CEREALS.

Jvari.

Lambkani and *Satpani*. The improved varieties are mainly Saoner and NJ 156. The local *rabi* variety *Ringni* is being rapidly replaced by an improved variety Sholapur M 35-1 per acre yield of which is 90-136 kilograms (200—300 lbs.). The fodder of *rabi* jowar is of better quality as compared to *kharif* jowar and fetches good price in the market. Jowar bread is most commonly consumed in the district. A special variety of jowar known as *wani* is suited for parching. The parched grain (*lahi*) is relished by the people. The comparative figures of area under *kharif* and *rabi* jowar for a period of three years are given below:—

(Area in hectares)*

Year	Kharif	Rabi	Total
1956-57	1,73,190·555 (4,27,631)	45,900·270 (1,13,334)	2,19,090·825 (5,40,965)
1957-58	1,79,680·680 (4,43,656)	41,642·100 (1,02,820)	2,21,322·780 (5,46,476)
1958-59	1,92,719·250 (4,75,850)	44,209·395 (1,09,159)	2,36,928·645 (5,85,009)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

Bajri.

Bajri is not an important crop of the district. It occupied an area of 387·180 hectares (956 acres) in 1958-59 of which 338·985 hectares (837 acres) were in Katol tahsil. This crop was not produced in Umrer tahsil. It is a finer grain than jowar and grows on light types of soil. No special preparatory tillage is given. It is usually sown in July and harvested in October. After sowing, interculturing is carried on by means of a hoe. Fair rains in August are favourable for its growth. No irrigation is given to the crop though occasionally it is manured with farm-yard manure. It thrives when the climate is moderately dry. *Bajri* is usually taken as a mixed crop with pulses and with *kharif* jowar in parts of Katol tahsil. The yield per acre averages 135·900 kilograms (300 lbs.). Its stalks form a poor cattle feed and hence are often mixed with *kadbi* (jowar fodder) when served to cattle. The comparative figures of area under *bajri* are given below:—

Year	Area	
	Hectares	Acres
1956-57 ...	246·645	609
1957-58 ...	336·150	830
1958-59 ...	387·180	956

Gahu.

Wheat (*gahu*) is produced as a cold weather *rabi* crop in the district. It occupied in 1958-59 an area of 66833·100 hectares (1,65,020 acres), of which nearly two-thirds was accounted for by Umrer, 24843.105 hectares (61,341 acres) and Ramtek, 19362.240 hectares (47,808 acres) tahsils taken together. Wheat is sown in the months of October-November and harvested in February-March. Land is ploughed twice, harrowed and manured, if possible, with farm-yard manure. Sowing is also done by a three coultered drill (*tifan*) with a distance of 152.4 mm. (6″) in-between.

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CEREALS.

Gahu.

The cultivators of Mouda National Extension Service Block in Ramtek tahsil have undertaken intensive cultivation of wheat on a large scale. In 1960-61, the scheme of wheat pilot block was launched there with a target of 1012·500 hectares (2,500 acres) whereas the area brought under wheat amounted to 1120.230 hectares (2,766 acres). In the pilot block, particular attention was paid in the adoption of—

(i) lesser seed rate,

(ii) use of improved rust resistant wheat seed,

(iii) irrigation, and

(iv) use of fertilizers.

In the wheat pilot block, Hy 65-4 rust resistant variety which thrives well if irrigated and manured, is used on a wide scale. Mouda gets its supply of irrigation water from Khindsi tank. Two or three irrigations are generally given. Howrah is a common local variety. Improved varieties are Hy 65-4, Hy-11 and Vijay 81. The average outturn per acre varies between 271.800 kilograms (600 lbs.) and 543.600 kilograms (1,200 lbs.). The comparative figures of area under wheat for a period of three years are given below:—

Year	Area	
	Hectares	Acres
1956-57 ...	83135·970	2,05,274
1957-58 ...	74360·835	1,83,607
1958-59 ...	66833·100	1,65,020

Area under cereals.

The table below indicates taluka-wise area under cereals in 1958-59. The table reveals that area under all the cereal crops except rice, wheat, bajri and jowar was negligible.

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CEREALS.

Area under cereals.

TABLE No. 13

AREA UNDER CEREALS, 1958-59 (TAHSIL-WISE).

(In hectares)*

(1)	Nagpur (2)	Ramtek (3)	Umrer (4)	Katol (5)	Saoner (6)	District Total (7)
1. Rice	492·075 (1,215)	10,770·570 (26,594)	7,895·070 (19,494)	729·405 (1,801)	111·375 (275)	19,998·495 (49,379)
2. Wheat	16,163·955 (39,911)	19,362·240 (47,808)	24,843·105 (61,341)	3,894·885 (9,617)	2,568·915 (6,343)	66,833·100 (1,65,020)
3. Jowar (kharif and rabi) ..	53,575·425 (1,32,285)	42,671·205 (1,05,361)	47,532·420 (1,17,364)	49,866·840 (1,23,128)	43,282·755 (1,06,871)	2,36,928·645 (5,85,009)
4. Bajri	6·075 (15)	31·995 (79)	..	338·985 (837)	10·125 (25)	387·180 (956)
5. Maize	22·680 (56)	177·795 (439)	0·810 (2)	6·480 (16)	4·050 (10)	211·815 (523)
6. Ragi	..	1·215 (3)	..	..	..	1·215 (3)
7. Italian Millets	..	0·405 (1)	..	1·620 (4)	..	2·025 (5)
8. Kodra	..	70·470 (174)	..	..	..	70·470 (174)
9. Barley	..	..	..	0·405 (1)	..	0·405 (1)
10. Little Millets (Kutki) ..	..	32·400 (80)	..	..	0·405 (1)	32·805 (81)
11. Common Millets (Rajgira) ..	0·810 (2)	1·215 (3)	0·405 (1)	9·315 (23)	5·265 (13)	17·010 (42)
12. Sava	..	3·645 (8)	..	0·405 (1)	..	3·645 (9)
13. Other Cereals	1·620 (4)	0·810 (2)	..	9·315 (23)	0·810 (2)	12·555 (31)
Total ..	70,262·640 (1,73,488)	73,123·560 (1,80,552)	80,271·810 (1,98,202)	54,857·655 (1,35,451)	45,983·700 (1,13,540)	3,24,499·365 (8,01,233)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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PULSES.

Tur.

Tur (pigeon pea) is the most important pulse crop of the district and occupied an area of 48062·160 hectares (1,18,672 acres) in 1958-59. Its cultivation was not concentrated in a particular tahsil or tahsils and was produced extensively throughout the district. It is sown in June-July and harvested in January-February. Usually it is produced on the bunds of rice fields. Generally, the sowing is done by the dibbling method. Flowering and fruiting continues for over two months, thus allowing several pickings of ripe pods. The normal yield per acre amounts to 181·200 kilograms (400 lbs.). The improved varieties of *tur* are EB_3, EB_{38} and Hyderabad. The green pods are eaten as a vegetable while ripe *tur* is split into *dal* and consumed in a variety of ways. The comparative figures of area under *tur* are as under:—

Year	Area: Hectares	Area: Acres
1956-57 ...	42103·395	1,03,959
1957-58 ...	45504·585	1,12,357
1958-59 ...	48062·160	1,18,672

Harbhara.

Harbhara (gram) is another important pulse crop taken in the district. In 1958-59, it occupied an area of 8629·740 hectares (21,308 acres), of which more than two-thirds, *viz.*, 2434.050 hectares (6,010 acres) was in Katol tahsil, 2177.685 hectares (5,377 acres) in Umrer and 2118.555 hectares (5,231 acres) in Ramtek tahsil. It is grown throughout the district, particularly as a second crop after rice. It is sown in October-November and harvested in February. The average yield per acre amounts to 149.490 kilograms (330 lbs.) under dry conditions and about 453.000 kilograms (1,000 lbs.) under irrigation. It is a common practice to pluck off the tops of shoots before flowering to render them strong and bushy. This also helps to increase the yield. The tender leaf of this crop is used as a vegetable. Gram is eaten green and when ripe it is turned into *dal*. Gram is a staple food of horses. The plants yield a kind of vinegar known as *amb*. The vinegar gathers on the plants at night and is collected by laying a cloth over the plants. This is used as a medicine for stomach-ache. The prominent varieties grown in the district are *Deshi* and *Gulabi*. The figures of area under gram are given below:—

Year	Area: Hectares	Area: Acres
1956-57 ...	11005·065	27,173
1957-58 ...	9376·155	23,151
1958-59 ...	8629·740	21,308

Kulith.

Kulith or *kulthi* (horse gram) is grown throughout the district but among all the tahsils Umrer accounted for the highest acreage between 1956-57 and 1958-59. In 1958-59, *kulith* occupied an area of 1083·375 hectares (2,675 acres) of which little over 60 per cent was claimed by Umrer taluka. It is sown in June-July and harvested in December. It is either taken as a single crop or as

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PULSES.

Kulith.

a mixed crop with Jowar. The yield per acre amounts to 90·600 kilograms (200 lbs.) and 45·300 kilograms (100 lbs.), respectively. The pulse is consumed by the people in the forms of soup and porridge. It is also given to cattle after keeping it in water for one night. Following are the comparative figures of area under horse-gram:—

Year	Area	
	Hectares	Acres
1956-57 ...	783·675	1,935
1957-58 ...	1133·595	2,799
1958-59 ...	1083·375	2,675

Udid.

Udid (black gram) is grown all over the district and occupied 852·525 hectares (2,105 acres) of land in 1958-59. It is sown in June-July as a mixed crop with *kharif* jowar and harvested in November. The average outturn per acre amounts to 135·900 kilograms (300 lbs.). The ripe pulse is split and consumed. It is ground to be made into *papads*. The figures of area under *udid* are as under:—

Year	Area	
	Hectares	Acres
1956-57 ...	523·665	1,293
1957-58 ...	608·715	1,503
1958-59 ...	852·525	2,105

Mug.

Mug (green gram) is a minor pulse crop and occupied an area of 575·910 hectares (1,422 acres) in 1958-59. It is mainly grown in Katol, Nagpur and Saoner tahsils. It is shown in June-July as a mixed crop with jowar and harvested in September. Improved variety, viz., Kopargaon is very common. Normal yield per acre is 90·600 kilograms (200 lbs.).

Lakhori.

Lakhori is a crop sown after paddy and occupied an area of 11235·915 hectares (27,743 acres) in 1958-59. It is an important pulse crop next to *tur*. It is mainly grown in Nagpur, Ramtek and Umrer tahsils. Seeds are harvested in the moist heavy soil in October-November when paddy crop is standing in the field, ready for harvest. Lakhori crop is harvested in January-February. Its leaves and stalks when green are used as fodder for cattle in the paddy tract. The yield per acre amounts to 45·300 kilograms (100 lbs.). The pulse is eaten both whole or split, cooked in various ways. The figures of area under *lakhori* are as under:—

Year	Area	
	Hectares	Acres
1956-57 ...	12209·130	30,146
1957-58 ...	11525·895	28,459
1958-59 ...	11235·915	27,743

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PULSES.

Watana.

Watana (field pea) is a very favourite pulse crop grown all over the district. It occupied an area of 548·775 hectares (1,355 acres) in 1958-59. It is invariably taken after the harvest of the rice crop in areas having sufficient moisture in the soil. It is grown as a dry crop. Seeds are sown in November in the furrows through a tube attached to the plough. The crop is harvested in January-February. The yield per acre amounts to 113 kilograms (250 lbs.). Green pods are used as vegetable. The pulse is used either whole or split. The improved variety, Khaparkheda, is being used by the cultivators. The following are the figures of area under *watana* in the district:—

Year	Area	
	Hectares	Acres
1956-57 ...	728.595	1,799
1957-58 ...	561·735	1,387
1958-59 ...	548.775	1,355

Chavli.

Chavli is a minor pulse crop taken as a mixed crop with jowar. It is grown in June-July and harvested in October. It occupied an area of 59·130 hectares (146 acres) in 1958-59 of which nearly 50 per cent 29.160 hectares or (73 acres) was accounted for by Ramtek tahsil. The green pods of *chavli* are 152.40 millimetres (five to six inches) long and are used as a vegetable in a tender stage. They are eaten raw or cooked. The ripe grain is used as a pulse and is eaten boiled. The figures of area under *chavli* are as under:—

Year	Area	
	Hectares	Acres
1956-57 ...	173·745	429
1957-58 ...	228·420	564
1958-59 ...	59·130	146

Table on page 230 gives the tahsil-wise area under pulses in Nagpur district in 1958-59:—

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PULSES.

TABLE No. 14

AREA UNDER PULSES, 1958-59 (TAHSIL-WISE).

(In hectares)*

—	Nagpur	Ramtek	Katol	Umrer	Saoner	District Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1. Gram	1,249.830 (3,086)	2,118.555 (5,231)	2,177.685 (5,377)	2,434.050 (6,010)	649.620 (1,604)	8,629.740 (21,308)
2. Green gram (Mug)	194.805 (481)	8.505 (21)	20.655 (51)	328.050 (810)	23.895 (59)	575.910 (1,422)
3. Tur (Arhar)	11,122.515 (27,463)	11,399.940 (28,148)	6,572.745 (16,229)	7,922.610 (19,562)	11,044.350 (27,270)	48,062.160 (1,18,672)
4. Black gram (Udid)	21.870 (54)	50.625 (125)	548.370 (1,354)	167.265 (413)	64.395 (159)	852.525 (2,105)
5. Horse gram (Kulith)	111.780 (276)	236.520 (584)	653.670 (1,614)	63.990 (158)	17.415 (43)	1,083.375 (2,675)
6. Masur	10.935 (27)	15.795 (39)	189.945 (469)	33.615 (83)	3.670 (14)	253.960 (632)
7. Math	159.975 (395)	3.645 (9)	21.870 (54)	219.105 (541)	339.390 (838)	743.985 (1,837)
8. Val	40.905 (101)	45.360 (112)	13.770 (34)	42.120 (104)	11.340 (28)	153.495 (379)
9. Chavli	21.060 (52)	29.160 (72)	7.290 (18)	..	1.620 (4)	59.130 (146)
10. Watana	172.125 (425)	116.640 (288)	205.740 (508)	37.665 (93)	16.605 (41)	548.775 (1,355)
11. Lakh (Lakhori)	1,415.070 (3,494)	2,735.370 (6,754)	7,047.405 (17,401)	16.200 (40)	21.870 (54)	11,235.915 (27,743)
12. Other Pulses	103.680 (256)	242.595 (599)	164.430 (406)	152.280 (376)	158.855 (391)	821.340 (2,028)
Total ..	14,624.550 (36,110)	17,002.710 (41,982)	17,623.575 (43,515)	11,416.950 (28,190)	12,354.525 (30,505)	73,022.310 (1,80,302)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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SUGARCANE.

Sugarcane is a minor crop of the district and occupied only 53·055 hectares (131 acres) in 1958-59. The corresponding figures for the preceding two years were 63·180 hectares (156 acres) and 52·245 hectares (129 acres), respectively.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

Tobacco is the only crop cultivated from amongst the group of drugs and narcotics. It occupied 102.060 hectares (252 acres) in 1958-59 of which 67.230 hectares (166 acres) were in Saoner tahsil. The corresponding figures for the preceding two years were 136.485 hectares (337 acres) and 477.495 hectares (1,179 acres), respectively.

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

Chillis, turmeric, coriander and garlic are important crops comprising the group condiments and spices which occupied 18432·360 hectares (45,512 acres) in 1958-59. The corresponding figures for the preceding two years were 17457·525 hectares (43,105 acres) and 15070·050 hectares (37,210 acres), respectively.

Mirachi.

Chillis (*mirachi*) occupied 17300·385 hectares (42,717 acres) or 93·8 per cent of the acreage under condiments and spices in 1958-59. It was chiefly grown in Umrer (12487.365 hectares or 30,833 acres), Nagpur (1998.675 hectares or 4,935 acres) and Ramtek (1882.845 hectares or 4,649 acres) tahsils in that order of importance. Seedlings are raised in seed-beds by the end of May and transplanted after a month. The distance between the two rows and the two plants varies generally between .66 and .68 metres (two and three feet), depending upon the quality of the soil. The plants begin to bear fruit after about two months. The irrigated crop continues to yield fruit for five or six months. *Rabi* crop is specially taken in Umrer and Ramtek tahsils. Chillis constitute an essential ingredient in the diet of the people and are used extensively in *chutneys* and pickles.

Halad.

Turmeric (*halad*) is grown mainly in Umrer and Katol tahsils. It occupied 69·660 hectares (172 acres) in 1958-59 as against 86·670 hectares (214 acres) in 1957-58 and 61.560 hectares (152 acres) in 1956-57. It is planted in the month of May before the monsoon sets in, on both sides of the furrows about 0·610 metres (two feet) apart. It is harvested in December-January. Farm yard manure is supplied at the rate of 30 to 40 cartloads per 0.405 hectare of land (one acre). Turmeric rhizomes are universally used as a condiment, being the staple curry powder.

Kothimbir.

Coriander (*Kothimbir*) is grown in the district as a garden crop throughout the year. It occupied 858·195 hectares (2,119 acres) in 1958-59. The corresponding figures for the preceding two years were 887·355 hectares (2,191 acres) and 1509·030 hectares (3,726 acres), respectively. It is cultivated both for its small seed and green leaves. The green leaves are ready for use in about three weeks and the seed in about two months. The leaves and tender stems are used as a vegetable as well as for flavouring many dishes. The coriander seed is a condiment. It also contains some medicinal properties.

Las .

Garlic (*lasun*) is grown in small areas throughout the district. It occupied 9·720 hectares (24 acres) in 1958-59, of which 4·050 hectares (ten acres) and 2·835 hectares (seven acres) were in Katol and Nagpur tahsils, respectively. It is taken with onion on the

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

borders of the field. It is planted in November and harvested in February-March. It is extensively used as a condiment or as a spice in *chutneys*. It is also used in curries and for seasoning vegetables. Besides, it is valued for its medicinal properties.

Others.

Other condiments and spices grown in the district include fenugreek (*methi*: 191.565 hectares or 473 acres), ginger (*ale*: 2.025 hectares or 5 acres), etc.

FIBRES.

The total area under fibre plants amounted to 67513.500 hectares (1,66,700 acres) in 1958-59 as against 67490.415 hectares (1,66,643 acres) in 1957-58 and 68293.935 hectares (168,627 acres) in 1956-57. Cotton and sann-hemp (*ambadi*) were the two main crops comprising the class of fibres.

Kapashi.

Cotton (*kapashi*) occupied 66579.165 hectares (1,64,393 acres) or 98.6 per cent of the area under total fibres. The corresponding figures for the preceding two years were 66837.960 hectares (165,032 acres) and 66776.805 hectares (164,881 acres), respectively. It was cultivated throughout the district. However, its cultivation was more prominent in Katol 22861.845 hectares (56,449 acres), Nagpur 20678.085 hectares (51,057 acres) and Saoner 15945.660 hectares (39,372 acres) tahsils.

Ambadi.

Sann-hemp (*ambadi*) occupied 928.665 hectares (2,293 acres) in 1958-59. It is cultivated throughout the district. However, Katol (255.960 hectares or 632 acres) and Umrer (241.380 hectares or 596 acres) tahsils may be mentioned as important centres of its cultivation.

The following table gives area under sugarcane, drugs and narcotics, condiments and spices and fibres in 1958-59:—

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

TABLE No. 15

AREA UNDER SUGARCANE, DRUGS AND NARCOTICS, CONDIMENTS AND SPICES AND FIBRES. (1958-59).

(In hectares)*

—	Nagpur	Ramtek	Umrer	Katol	Saoner	District Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1. Sugarcane	14.580 (36)	2.430 (6)	2.835 (7)	20.655 (51)	12.555 (31)	53.055 (131)
2. Drugs and Narcotics-tobacco ..	16.605 (41)	16.605 (41)	.. ..	1.620 (4)	67.230 (166)	102.060 (252)
3. Condiments and Spices—						
(a) Chillis	1,998.675 (4,935)	1,882.845 (4,649)	12,487.365 (30,833)	583.200 (1,440)	348.300 (860)	17,300.383 (42,717)
(b) Turmeric	..	..	44.145 (109)	21.060 (52)	4.455 (11)	69.660 (172)
(c) Coriander	211.410 (522)	170.100 (420)	131.220 (324)	36.450 (90)	309.015 (763)	858.195 (2,119)
(d) Garlic	2.835 (7)	0.810 (2)	1.215 (3)	4.050 (10)	0.810 (2)	9.720 (24)
4. Fibres—						
(a) Cotton	20,678.085 (51,057)	1,995.435 (4,927)	5,098.140 (12,588)	22,861.845 (56,449)	15,945.660 (39,372)	66,579.165 (1,64,393)
(b) Sann-hemp	156.330 (386)	189.135 (467)	241.380 (596)	255.960 (632)	85.860 (212)	928.665 (2,293)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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OIL-SEEDS.

TABLE No. 16

AREA UNDER EDIBLE AND NON-EDIBLE OIL-SEEDS IN THE DISTRICT, 1958-59.

(Area in hectares)*

Name of the tahsil	Groundnut	Sesame	Safflower	Total edible oil-seeds	Linseed	Castor	Niger seed	Total non-edible oil-seeds	Total oil-seeds
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Nagpur	27·945 (69)	2,251·800 (5,560)	1·215 (3)	2,280·960 (5,632)	4,831·245 (11,929)	18·630 (46)	0·405 (1)	4,850·280 (11,976)	7,131·240 (17,608)
Ramtek	10·530 (26)	3,073·545 (7,589)	..	3,084·075 (7,615)	6,878·925 (16,985)	21·870 (54)	12·960 (32)	6,913·755 (17,071)	9,997·830 (24,686)
Katol	3·645 (9)	6,871·230 (16,966)	1·125 (3)	6,876·090 (16,978)	11,132·640 (27,488)	84·240 (208)	..	11,216·880 (27,696)	18,092·970 (44,674)
Umrer	6,056·370 (14,954)	377·055 (931)	0·810 (2)	6,434·235 (15,887)	217·890 (538)	7·290 (18)	8·910 (22)	234·090 (578)	6,668·325 (16,465)
Saoner	629·775 (1,555)	446·310 (1,102)	0·405 (1)	1,076·490 (2,658)	565·380 (1,396)	15·390 (38)	0·810 (2)	581·580 (1,436)	1,658·070 (4,094)
District Total ..	6,728·265 (16,613)	13,019·940 (32,148)	3·645 (9)	19,751·850 (48,770)	23,626·080 (58,336)	147·420 (364)	23·085 (57)	23,796·585 (58,757)	43,548·435 (1,07,527)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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The table reveals that 19751·850 hectares (48,770 acres) of land was under edible oil-seeds, *viz.*, sesame, groundnut and safflower, whereas non-edible oil-seeds accounted for 23796·585 hectares (58,757 acres) bringing the total under oil-seeds to 43548·435 hectares (1,07,527 acres). Linseed was the most predominant crop among non-edible oil-seeds grown in the district. Among edible oil-seeds sesame and groundnut were the only two important crops, safflower accounting for only 3.645 hectares (nine acres).

Edible Oil-seeds.

Til.

Til occupied an area of 13019·940 hectares (32,148 acres) in the district in 1958-59. The corresponding figures for 1956-57 and 1957-58 were 8478.675 hectares (20,935 acres) and 8576.280 hectares (21,176 acres), respectively. The crop showed an appreciable increase in area in 1958-59 than in the two preceding years. It occupied nearly two-thirds of the area under edible oil-seeds and about 30 per cent of that under all oil-seeds. It is grown as a *kharif* as well as a *rabi* crop. It is either produced as a single crop or as mixed crop. *Kharif* crop is sown in June-July and harvested in November-December whereas *rabi* crop is sown in October-November and harvested in January-February. The normal yield per hectare is around 90.600 kilograms (200 lbs. per acre).

Bhuimug.

Groundnut or *bhuimug* is the next important oil-seed crop grown in the district. It occupied an area of 6728·265 hectares (16,613 acres) in 1958-59. The corresponding figures for the preceding two years were 4298·265 hectares (10,613 acres) and 6015·465 hectares (14,853 acres), respectively. Area under the crop in 1958-59 represented an increase over that in the two previous years. In 1958-59 it occupied little over one-third of the area under edible oil-seeds and 15·5 per cent of that under all oil-seeds. It was chiefly grown in Katol tahsil which accounted for 6056·370 hectares (14,954 acres) out of 6728·265 hectares (16,613 acres) under the crop in 1958-59. The method of hand-dibbling is followed throughout the district. The seed is sown in June-July. Recently, sowing is done only by means of *argada* (coultered drill) to which are attached *sartas* (seed distributing pipes made of bamboo). The crop is ready for harvest in October-November. Farm-yard manure is given when available. The normal yield per hectare amounts to 543·600 kilograms (1,200 lbs. per acre). AK 12-24 is an improved variety taken up by the cultivators.

Kardai.

Safflower was grown on an insignificant scale and it occupied only 3·645 hectares (nine acres) of land in the district in 1958-59 as against 2·025 hectares (five acres) in the preceding year.

Non-Edible Oil-seeds.

Linseed.

Linseed was the major non-edible oiled crops which occupied 23626·080 hectares (58,336 acres) in 1958-59. Thus it occupied 99.3 per cent of the area under non-edible oilseeds and 54.3 per cent of that under all oil-seeds. The area under linseed in 1956-57 and 1957-58 was 32721.165 and 33753.510 hectares (80,793 and 83,342 acres), respectively. It is chiefly grown in Umrer and Ramtek tahsils of the district. It is sown in October-November and harvested in January-February. Improved variety of linseed No. 55 is becoming popular. The average outturn amounted generally to 135.900 kilograms (300 lbs. per acre) per 0.405 hectare.

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Castor-seed and niger-seed were the other two non-edible oil-seeds which were taken on a negligible scale. They were of minor importance.

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

Fruits and vegetables occupied an area of 8101·620 hectares (20,004 acres) and 3956·850 hectares (9,770 acres), respectively, in 1958-59. Fruit gardens of oranges, bananas and guavas are mainly to be found in Katol, Nagpur and Saoner tahsils. Orange is the most common fruit of the district.

Citrus fruits.

The varieties grown are oranges (*santri*), lime (*kagadi limbu*) and Italian lemon. Nagpur orange is very popular throughout the country on account of its special flavour. Vidarbha region has nearly 12150.000 hectares (30,000 acres) under orange cultivation of which Nagpur district claims about 57 per cent. Cultivation of oranges is concentrated in Katol tahsil followed by Saoner and Nagpur tahsils as will be seen from the following statement:—

Name of the tahsil (1)	Area (1958-59) (2)	
	Hectares	Acres
Katol	3123.765	7,713
Saoner	1888.515	4,663
Nagpur	1377.000	3,400
Ramtek	657.720	1,624
Umrer	168.480	416
District Total ..	7215.480	17,816

Orange trees are usually planted in medium black or light loamy soil. Seedlings of Jamburi are raised for about a year in the nursery beds. The budded plants are transplanted in orchards during monsoon. The distance maintained between the two plants depends upon the variety. The orchard is watered at an interval of 10 to 15 days depending upon the season. Orange plants get three blossoms (*bahars*), *ambya*, *mrig*, and *hatti* or *hasta*. Since the plants do not bear during *hasta bahar* it is not of commercial importance. The plantations are, therefore, treated either for *ambya* or *mirg bahar* through treatment of special fertilizers. The fruit of *ambya* crop is available between September and January while that of *mrig* crop, between February and May. The yield of *mrig bahar* is commercially important since it constitutes 60 per cent of the total annual outturn. The average annual production of oranges is placed at about 101600·0 metric tons (one lakh tons) valued at Rs. 3 crores. Roughly it is estimated that the crop provides an annual gross return of Rs. 2,000 per 0.405 of hectares (one acre).

Bahar.

Kele.

Banana (*kele*) is grown on a small scale and occupied an area of 129·600 hectares (320 acres) in the district in 1958-59. Of this little more than 50 per cent, 72·090 hectares (178 acres) was accounted for by Ramtek tahsil and nearly 30 per cent, 38.475 hectares (95 acres) by Katol tahsil. Banana is grown on medium black soil or on good garden land which is at least 0.610 metres

(two feet) deep. It is propagated by suckers planted in June-July. After the rainy season, plants are irrigated at an interval of 10 to 12 days, having regard to the moisture retentivity of the soil. In the hot season, however, they are required to be irrigated at an interval of one week. The plants are manured at the rate of one or two baskets-ful of farm-yard manure per plant. The varieties grown include *Sonkeli* and *Basrai* or *Bhusawal*.

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Fruits.

Amba.

Amba (mango), cultivated throughout the district as a fruit crop on waste land, occupied 210·195 hectares (519 acres) in 1958-59. Its cultivation was more pronounced in three tahsils, Ramtek 78·165 hectares (193 acres), Umrer 66·015 hectares (163 acres) and Nagpur 35.640 hectares (88 acres), which together accounted for nearly 86 per cent of the land under mango cultivation in the district. Mango plants generally bear fruit after ten years. It is propagated from mango stone. After five years it is propagated by grafting. Watering the plants is essential for the first three years for their good growth. Regular manuring is equally necessary. Flowering commences by the beginning of December and ends by January. The fruit is ready for harvest from the end of March onwards.

Peru.

Peru (guava) is grown throughout the district. It occupied 176.175 hectares (435 acres) in 1958-59. Of this, the largest area was claimed by Ramtek tahsil, 83.025 hectares (205 acres) followed by Umrer 38·475 hectares (95 acres) and Nagpur 29·970 hectares (74 acres). Guava tree begins to bear when about four years old. There are two flowering seasons. The fruit of the first season ripens in August-September and that of the second in November-December. There is no special variety except the local one which is very common throughout the district.

Papaya.

Papaya occupied 37·260 hectares (92 acres) in 1958-59 in the district. Of this, little more than two-thirds was accounted for by Nagpur tahsil [16.200 hectares (40 acres)] and Katol [11.340 hectares (28 acres)] tahsil. It is cultivated as a mixed crop along with banana. It is planted either along the borders or in-between the two rows of banana plants. *Papaya* is propagated by seedlings raised on seed beds. Seedlings are transplanted in September-October. It is customary to plant two seedlings at one place because about 50 per cent of the plants turn out to be males. These male plants are of no use except as suppliers of pollen. Hence only few male plants are retained in the orchard. The plants begin to flower, about six to eight months after planting whereas fruiting begins after about a year. The average life of plant is three years. The ripe fruit is used as a dessert while the unripe fruit is used as a vegetable.

Kalingad.

Kalingad (watermelon) is the fruit of a creeper. It is sown in hot season and requires irrigation. The plants are manured when they are six weeks old. The fruit ripens in the third or fourth month. The fruit is smooth, round, striped or plain and dark green or light green in colour. Inside, the fruit is very soft, watery and pink in colour. It contains black or white seeds. It is generally eaten raw.

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Fruits.

Miscellaneous fruits.

Besides fruits described above, other fruits like pineapple, *ramphal*, *sitaphal*, *chiku* and grapes are also grown in the district on a very small scale. Some of them are grown by persons who follow fruit gardening as a hobby. *Ananas* (pineapple) is grown on a negligible scale since it thrives well only in hot moist climate. *Ramphal* (bullocks heart) is mainly grown on garden lands as a border crop. *Sitaphal* (custard apple) is also taken as a border crop. It has only one season between August and December. *Drakshas* (grapes) do not thrive well though attempts are being made to grow this fruit in the district.

The following table shows tahsil-wise area under fresh fruits and vegetables in the district in 1958-59:—

TABLE No. 17

AREA UNDER FRESH FRUITS AND VEGETABLES (1958-59).

(In hectares)*

Tahsil	Area under		Total
	Fresh Fruits	Vegetables	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Nagpur	1,531·305 (3,781)	1,382·265 (3,413)	2,913·570 (7,194)
Ramtek	931·500 (2,300)	611·550 (1,510)	1,543·050 (3,810)
Umrer	282·285 (697)	659·340 (1,628)	941·625 (2,325)
Katoi	3,344·895 (8,259)	385·775 (955)	3,731·670 (9,214)
Saoner	2,011·635 (4,967)	916·920 (2,264)	2,928·555 (7,231)
District Total ..	8,101·620 (20,004)	3,956·850 (9,770)	12,058·470 (29,774)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

Vegetables.

Vegetables occupied only 3956·850 hectares (9,770 acres) of land in 1958-59. Nagpur district is not self-sufficient in respect of vegetables. Short-fall in the supply from within the district is made good to a large extent through imports from Betul and Chhindwada districts of Madhya Pradesh and from Amravati.

Roots and Tubers.

The following root and tuber vegetables are grown in the district:—

Ratale (sweet potato), the most important root vegetable grown in the district, occupied 196·425 hectares (485 acres) of land in 1958-59. Of the two varieties, red and white, the latter is more popular. Cuttings from vines of the previous year are used for propagation. The crop needs heavy manuring and constant irrigation. The crop is ready for harvest in six months after planting.

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Vegetables.

The root is eaten green, boiled or roasted on fasting days. The leaves are used as green fodder for cattle. *Ratale* is also imported on a large scale from the neighbouring district of Chhindwada.

Kanda (onion) is grown in good black soils of the district. In 1958-59, it occupied 419·580 hectares (1,036 acres) of land of which 44·550 hectares (110 acres) were under *rabi* cultivation. Of the two varieties, *viz.*, red and white, the latter is more popular. Onion seed is sown on raised seed-beds for raising seedlings which get ready for transplantation in about a month. They are transplanted on the slopes of furrows. At the time of transplanting, there is standing water in the plot. After transplantation is over in November-December, the field is watered every week. In three to four months, the crop is ready for harvest. Onion is consumed by all classes, both raw and mixed with various dishes. Its tender leaves are eaten as a pot herb.

Batata (potato) is taken as an irrigated crop on a very small scale. In 1958-59, it occupied 37·260 hectares (92 acres) of land. It requires heavy manuring. Potato sets are planted in October-November. The crop is ready between January and February It is watered from time to time. Two varieties, red (Patna) and white are grown in the district. Potato is also imported from Chhindwada district to meet the demand.

Gajar (carrot) is grown on a small scale in good black soil in the district. It occupied 56·700 hectares (140 acres) of land in 1958-59. The crop needs watering and manuring. It is grown in garden lands in *rabi* season when it gets ready for use in about three months. The root is fed to milch and plough cattle.

Mula (radish) is grown on a negligibly small scale. It occupied 22·275 hectares (55 acres) of land in 1958-59. It is grown throughout the year as a mixed crop, particularly in garden land. It is harvested in about two months. If harvesting is delayed, the plant begins to bear pods called *dingris*. The roots, leaves and pods are used as vegetables.

Vange (brinjal) is the most important vegetable grown on a fairly large scale as compared to other vegetables in 1958-59. *Vange* occupied 1076·085 hectares (2,657 acres) little over 27 per cent of the total area under vegetables. It is grown in *rabi* season after the flood water recedes in rich soil, often on the river banks. It is grown throughout the year in garden lands. It is an irrigated crop which requires considerable manuring. Seedlings are prepared in seed-beds and are transplanted after about six weeks. The crop gets ready after two months and harvesting continues for two months thereafter. It is a very common vegetable widely consumed in the district throughout the year. There are three main varieties grown in the district, *viz.*, (1) green round small sized brinjal; (2) large-sized entirely green brinjal and (3) purple.

Bhedre (tomato) is grown as a field crop. It requires heavy manuring, irrigation and constant care. Seedlings are prepared on raised seed-beds. When about four weeks old, they are transplanted in October-November in the lands laid out in ridges and

furrows. It is also grown in hot season if adequate irrigation facilities are available. It is one of the most favourite vegetables. The raw fruit is used as a vegetable while the ripe one is eaten like a fruit. Next to brinjal, tomato occupied the highest area, *viz.*, 680.805 hectares (1,681 acres) or little over 17 per cent of the total area under vegetables.

Kobi (cabbage) is a much valued cold season vegetable grown in the district. It occupied 252.315 hectares (623 acres) of land in 1958-59 and thus ranked third (the first two being brinjal and tomato, respectively) in order of importance. This vegetable is becoming increasingly popular. Cabbage leaves are fed to cattle while the heads are used as a vegetable. Green salad is also prepared from cabbage and is much relished by the people.

Dodka (ridge gourd) is grown in the district on the borders of garden crops. It is rarely grown as a single crop. It can be grown in garden lands throughout the year. In dry crop lands, it is grown in June-July. The plant begins to bear fruit in two-three months. The fruit appears dark green in colour with sharp ridges from one end to the other. It varies in length from 152.4 to 457.2 millimetres (6″ to 18″). The rinds and ridges are used in preparing *chutneys*.

Dudhya bhopla (bottle gourd) is a creeping plant grown in garden lands round the edges of the crop. Under irrigation, it is also grown as an entire crop mixed with cucumbers. It begins to bear fruit in two-three months. The fruit is yellowish green in appearance and is soft white inside It varies in length from 304.8 to 762.00 millimetres (12″ to 30″). It is one of the most commonly consumed vegetables in the district.

Karle (bitter gourd) is a small fruit, grown and used like *dodka*. The surface of the fruit is roughened with knobs and the entire cross section of the fruit is filled with seeds. The fruit is used as a vegetable.

Kartoli, though a wild gourd is a favourite vegetable of the people. It is grown in the western hilly tracts of the district.

Kakadi or *walku* (cucumber) is grown as a border crop in garden lands. It is sown in June-July. The fruit is generally green and varies in length from 203.2 to 508.00 millimetres (8″ to 20″). The variety grown in *rabi* season is dark green in colour with longitudinal white stripes. It is generally eaten as a raw fruit though it is also used in cookery.

Kashiphal or *kashi bhopla* is grown in gardens and in back-yards. The fruit is like *dudhya bhopla* except for the fact that it is round, thick and large in size. It is cheaper than other vegetables and hence is consumed in appreciable quantities by the poor.

Tondli (little gourd), a wild creeper is grown as a field crop. It is a perennial crop. *Tondli* creeper grows vigorously and yields crop for about five years. *Tondli* fruit is most commonly used as a vegetable.

The following five pod vegetables were grown in the district in 1958-59:—

Abai, a creeping plant needs little water or manure for its growth. It is grown in the backyards of homesteads or on the edges of garden lands. It begins to bear fruits three months after sowing. In good soil, it continues to yield for three or four years. The tender pods are used as a vegetable.

Bhendi (lady's finger) is grown in this district as a cash crop in garden lands. It occupied an area of 173.475 hectares (429 acres) in 1958-59 as against 156 hectares (386 acres) in 1957-58. The variety grown is a local one having four edges and a length varying between 15 cm. and 25 cm. (six inches and ten inches). Another small-sized variety of *bhendi* is also grown in the district on a very small scale. The green pods are used as a vegetable either boiled or fried. The ripe seeds of *bhendi* are used in curry and in *chutney*. Water steeped with green *bhendi* plants is used in *gul* making on a large scale with a view to removing the scum.

Gavari is grown in gardens throughout the year. During the rainy season it is produced as a border crop along with chillis. It begins to bear pods in three months and if watered occasionally, continues to bear pods for some months. The plant grows about .915 metres (3′) high with a single fibrous stem from which the pods grow in bunches. The pod is used as a vegetable.

Ghevda is grown in June-July on the edges of dry crops. It begins to bear fruit in about three and a half months, and continues to yield till January. It is also produced as an irrigated crop, when it is grown around garden crops or in the backyards of houses.

Shravan ghevda (French beans) is grown in the district both for seeds and vegetables. When grown as a vegetable, it is sown as a catch crop in garden crops. When it is grown for seed purposes, it is sown as a mixed crop with dry crops, in June-July. The green pods when tender are used as a vegetable.

Leafy Vegetables.

About a dozen leafy vegetables are grown in Nagpur district which are quite favourite with all classes of people. Brief account of each one of them is given below:—

Ambadi is grown in garden lands for vegetable purposes. It can be taken during any part of the year. Six weeks after planting, tender leaves grow in abundance. These are plucked and used as vegetable.

Chandanbatva like *ambadi* can be grown during any part of the year. It is an erect succulent annual tinged with red or purple leaves at the apical portion. It is usually cultivated in garden lands. The leaves and tender stems are used as a pot herb.

Chavli is grown in garden lands at any time of the year. It closely resembles *tandulja* (a leafy vegetable) but seldom grows more than 152.40 mm. (6″) in height.

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Vegetables.

Leafy Vegetables.

Chuka (bladder-dock) is grown in garden land during any part of the year. After sowing it is ready for use in about a month. The tender leaves are eaten as a pot herb.

Math is grown in garden lands at any time of the year. The varieties, red and green, produced in the district are ready for use within about six weeks after sowing. Between the two varieties red and green the latter is smaller whereas the former grows to a height of to .915 to 1.525 metres (3′ to 5′) and has thick stem, a small central plume as well as side flowers. The leaves and especially the stem have a red tinge. The leaves and the shoots are eaten boiled. The wild variety known as *kate-math* grows naturally and is consumed by poor people.

Methi (fenugreek) is grown throughout the district in gardens all round the year. It is always an irrigated and manured crop. It gets ready for use as a vegetable in three weeks. If allowed to grow beyond this period, the crop bears pods which mature in two and a half months. Seed in the pods is an essential ingredient in spices used in cookery. It also contains medicinal properties.

Rajgira is of two varieties, red and green. It is grown in garden lands as a mixed crop alongwith turmeric. When tender, its leaves are used as a pot herb. It grows to a height of 0.915 to 1.525 metres (three to five feet) and has a heavy overhanging central plume. It is also valued for its seeds which are exceedingly small. The seeds are popped and are consumed on fasting days.

Fodder Crops.

Fodder crops are grown on a very negligible scale in the district. The total area under fodder crops was 166.860 hectares (412 acres) in 1958-59 as against 138.915 hectares (343 acres) in 1957-58. Grass and babul trees accounted for 118.260 hectares (292 acres) or nearly 71 per cent of the total area under forests in 1958-59. Out of 118.260 hectares (292 acres) under grass and babul trees, Nagpur and Katol tahsils accounted for the highest area, namely, 45.360 hectares (112 acres) and 46.170 hectares (114 acres), respectively. These figures speak for concentration of area under grass and babul trees in these two tahsils. Grass is grown throughout the district in the *mali* lands. *Shevari* trees are also planted, on a large scale, in these lands and serve a two-fold purpose. In the first instance they serve as a fodder and secondly they help sedimentation during floods.

Agricultural Implements.

Ploughs, harrows, levellers, clod crushers, seed drills and hoes are the main implements used during various phases of cultivation. Besides these, several hand tools are also used for sundry work on the farm. Field tools and implements, traditionally old and of indigenous type, are yielding place to more improved ones. Tractor drawn ploughs and disc harrows are being gradually introduced in large-scale farming. Lately, pumps worked by electric motors and oil engines are brought into use in certain parts of the district.

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AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

Ploughs.

The plough, mainly old and of indigenous type, is prepared by the local blacksmiths and carpenters from iron and locally available wood. Usually, share is the only part made of iron. Ploughs are of two types—*nari*, the light plough and *nangar*, the heavy plough. Barring their weight, the constructional design of both is similar. The length of iron share of *nari* plough used in rice tract is, however, shorter. The indigenous plough consists of four parts, namely, the body (*khod*), the beam (*dandi*), the plough share (*kushya*) and the handle (*rumane*). The body is the central part to which all other parts are attached. It gives weight for the penetrating action of the plough share. The bullocks are hitched to the beam by means of a yoke (*joo*). The centre of the yoke is tied to the beam by means of rope, known as *warti*, made of leather. The plough share penetrates into the soil and opens up furrows. The handle helps in guiding and handling of the plough. The body and the shoe (*haris*) are made from one piece of wood which appears elbow-shaped. The head is thicker while the shoe tapers to a point. The shoe is flat at the top and triangular at the bottom. The share made of steel is laid on the shoe and fixed to it by means of staples. The share projects a little outside the shoe. The handle is a separate piece fixed on the back end of the beam, behind the body head. A small grip (*pachar*) is fixed on the handle. The beam comprises one piece about 3.050 metres (10′) in length.

The light as well as heavy ploughs are usually made of *babul* wood. The heavy plough requires about three men and two or three pairs of bullocks to operate it and works to a depth of 152.4 to 228.6 mm. (6″ to 9″). In a day about half an acre of land could be ploughed with it. The light plough worked by a labourer and a pair of bullocks works to a depth of 101.6 to 127.0 millimetres (four to five inches). About 0.405 hectare (an acre) of land can be ploughed in a day.

Most of the cultivators possess light wooden ploughs. There are few who possess iron ploughs, made of higher grade iron and modelled on ploughs imported from abroad. A few rich farmers have purchased tractors and tractor driven ploughs.

Clod crushers.

The local clod crusher (*patha*) is a plank scooped out from below. It is 304.8 mm. (12″) long, 609.6 mm. (2″) broad and 228.6 mm. (9″) thick. The implement is hitched to the yoke by means of a thick rope tied to shoe, yoke and the plank. It is prepared by local carpenters and is priced around Rs. 50. A labourer and a pair of bullocks are required to operate it. The scooped surface of the plank draws over big clods and crushes them. In paddy tract, it is also used for levelling the mud (*chikhal*) before transplantation.

The Department of Agriculture has introduced Norwegian harrow. However due to its prohibitive cost and limited use, it has not found favour with the cultivators.

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Harrows.

Bakhar is the indigenous harrow of this district. It comprises five parts, *viz.*, the body (*khod*), the prongs (*jankud*), the blade (*phas*), the handle (*rumane*) and the beam (*dandi*). The blade which scarifies the soil forms the most important part. It is held in position by the prongs fitted into the body. The body adds weight to the blade which is secured to the prongs by means of rings (*widi*). The beam is used for hitching the yoke. The team of a labourer and a pair of bullocks covers an area of about 1.620 hectares (four acres) in a day. The indigenous harrow is a multipurpose implement. It is put to many other uses on the farm, *viz.*, removal of stubbles, interculturing in broad-spaced crops, mixing of manures and levelling. This coupled with its moderate price (between Rs. 15 and Rs. 20) has made indigenous harrow very popular among cultivators as compared to the imported ones. Disc harrows on account of their prohibitive cost are popular with few cultivators. Tractor driven disc harrows are maintained by those well-to-do cultivators who own tractors.

Seed drills.

Seed drills are used for dropping the seed into soil at a certain depth and in rows. *Argada*, local seed drill, is made of wood by carpenters. It is a three tined implement to which hollow bamboo tubes known as *sartas*, are tied by means of strings. Usually the worker who operates this implement drops seed through the *sartas*. The cost of *argada* is around Rs. 40. In some parts iron blade (*phas*) is fixed on the tines of *argada*, when it is called *yeli*. This blade uproots the weeds when sowing is simultaneously in progress.

Tifan, the indigenous seed drill consists of six parts: (1) the body (*khod*); (2) the coulters (*jamkhud*); (3) the tubes (*nalya*); (4) the bowl (*chade*); (5) the beam (*dandi*); and (6) the handle (*rumane*). Body is the central part to which all other parts are attached. At the bottom, coulters are fitted inside the body while the handle is fixed at the top. Coulters open furrows and support tubes, brought together and held in a seed bowl. The tubes and the seed bowl are secured firmly to the body by means of a thin string. The seeds dropped in the seed bowl travel down the tubes and are dropped in furrows through holes in the coulters.

There are two types of *tifan*, *kharif* and *rabi*. The latter is heavier than the former. Its cost varies between Rs. 45 and Rs. 60. It is worked by a team of three workers (one of whom is usually a female) and two pairs of bullocks. The Department of Agriculture tried to introduce an improved variety of seed drill. However, on account of its high cost, the conservative attitude of the cultivator and absence of repairing and servicing facilities, it did not gain much popularity.

Interculturing implements.

Implements used for interculturing are miniature harrows known as *dawra* and *dundiya*. *Dawra* is a smaller harrow (*bhakar*) whose blade is 152.4 millimetres (six inches) long. It costs around Rs. 15. *Dundiya* may be described as a lighter

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Interculturing implements.

dawra. Two *dawras* or *dundiyas* are worked at a time in each crop. They are controlled jointly by a pair of bullocks and separately by two men, each attending on a *dawra* or *dundiya*. They are used in interculturing cotton, groundnut, jowar and other like crops. However, the cultivators do not interculture paddy crop with indigenous implement. With the introduction of the Japanese method of paddy cultivation, the Department of Agriculture has introduced *touchi gurma* which has much appealed to paddy cultivators. *Touchi gurma* is an iron spindle with curved iron tines fitted on all over its parts. The spindle rests on the ground with the help of an iron seat. The spindle is controlled by a man with the help of a long handle. It costs about Rs. 20. The Department of Agriculture has also introduced improved interculturing implements for jowar and groundnut. They are locally known as Akola hoe and Guntakka hoe, respectively. The cost of these implements varies from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 each.

Harvesting implements.

The principal tool for harvesting is a sickle (*vila*) with an entire cutting edge. It is used for cutting stems. It costs about Rs. 3. The *kudli* is used for digging various root-crops. A heavy sharp knife or hatchet is also used for harvesting sugarcane.

Threshing implements.

Threshing is usually done by bullocks unaided by any appliances. Threshing material is stirred by a wooden rake (*datar*) which consists of five or six wooden teeth fitted on a small body with a long handle. It costs a rupee and is used for threshing jowar, wheat, gram and other similar crops. *Akodi* instead of *datar* is used for threshing paddy. It is a curved pointed long tooth, fixed on a long wooden handle. *Tur*, *mung*, *udid*, etc., are beaten by a stick to separate the grain from the chaff.

A bamboo basket (*tople*) is used for winnowing. Further cleaning of the grain is done by means of bamboo scoop (*soop*). The grain is then sieved through bamboo or iron sieves (*chalani*) and stored in big bamboo baskets (*dholi*) or in granaries (*pev* and *bakhari*). In some parts, artificial wind is produced by using a winnowing fan designed by the Department of Agriculture. Some winnowers are introduced by the Department of Agriculture which are being taken up by rich cultivators.

Processing implements.

Sugarcane is crushed in an indigenous crusher called *kolhu*. It costs approximately Rs. 100 and is worked by two men and a pair of bullocks. The Department of Agriculture has introduced improved iron crushers which have replaced wooden ones. Open pans made of iron sheets are used for boiling sugarcane juice while moulds for preparing gur blocks are made from galvanised sheets. Iron buckets are also used for this purpose. In big factories cotton is usually ginned by ginning machines. Groundnut pods are generally shelled by hand process. Some improved iron shellers are introduced by the Department of Agriculture and are gradually becoming popular.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

Hand tools.

Besides agricultural implements worked with the help of bullocks, there are a few hand tools frequently used in agricultural operations. They include among others axe, *tikas*, *kudli*, *phavada*, *ghamela*, *sabbal*, etc. These are usually made by the village carpenter and blacksmith and are purchased in the local weekly markets.

Water lifts.

The water lifts used on wells in this district for the purpose of irrigating the fields are mostly made of iron or leather. Leather *mots* are manufactured by local cobblers and are worked on wells with the help of bullocks. *Rahats* are also worked at many places with the help of bullocks. Recently, oil engines or electrically operated pumps have been fitted at various wells.

Bullock carts.

Even today, the bullock cart locally known as *bandi*, is used as the most common means of transportation. It costs about Rs. 350. The life of a cart varies between eight and ten years. The frame of the bullock cart of this district is long and narrow. Holes are provided in the longer sides of the frame for insertion of wooden sticks (*ubali*) according to the kind of produce to be loaded. Long ropes are used for tying loads of *kadabi*. The bullock cart has narrow iron bands which are found more suitable in the fields and on the *kutcha* uneven roads.

Mechanical implements.

Recently tractors are being used by well-to-do cultivators, a few of whom possess tractors of their own. The Government tractor station unit functioning in this district ploughs on an average about 4050.000 hectares (10.000 acres) of land per year.

LIVE-STOCK.

Cattle continues to play an important role in the agricultural economy of Nagpur district. Since it forms a valuable asset to the farmer, live-stock occupies an indispensable place in the rural economy of the district. The live-stock can be broadly classified into bovine, ovine and poultry. Bovine includes cattle and buffaloes, ovine covers sheep and goats while poultry comprises ducks and fowls. Horses, mules and asses form another important class of agricultural live-stock of the district. A farmer usually keeps a pair of bullocks, a few cows and a little poultry. A slightly better class of farmers is found to keep buffaloes. Communities such as the *beldars* and the *vadars* have horses and mules but more commonly asses. In fact a *beldar* or a *vadari* without an ass is an uncommon sight. Thus live-stock has been a part and parcel of rural life. Cows are maintained for production of good draught bullocks; cows and buffaloes for milk and milk products; whereas bullocks and he-buffaloes are kept as draught or as breeding animals. Horses, mules and asses serve as pack animals. Sheep are reared for meat, manure and wool while goats are used for milk and mutton. The live-stock of the district numbered over ten lakhs of heads according to the live-stock census of 1955-56. The following two tables give tahsil-wise distribution of live-stock and bovine population in 1951, 1956 and 1961, respectively.

TABLE No. 18

DISTRIBUTION OF LIVE-STOCK IN NAGPUR DISTRICT (TAHSIL-WISE), 1961.

Name of Tahsil	Bovines over 3 years											
	For work		For breeding			For other purpose		Milch Cattle in Milk		Dry		
	Oxen	He-buffaloes	Bulls	Buffalo bulls	Oxen	He-buffaloes	Cows	She-buffaloes	Cows	She-buffaloes
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Nagpur Tahsil ..	878 N C†.	49 N C.	293 U. C. B†.	24 U. C. B. W.	1,242 N. U. B. W†.	13	17,095	7,748	22,613	3,888
	39,589 C†.	20 C.	239 B†.	303 B.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ramtek Tahsil ..	924 N C.	57 N C.	2,370 U. C. B.	111 U. C. B. W.	1,416 N. U. B. W.	11	16,122	2,325	19,345	1,665
	44,169 C.	189 C.	305 B.	168 B.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Katol Tahsil ..	697 N C.	23 N C.	57 U. C. B.	29 U. C. B. W.	410 N. U. B. W.	17	9,490	3,306	22,370	2,832
	31,296 C.	9 C.	227 B.	228 B.	..	..	..	..	..	..

†N. C. =not castrated.
C. =castrated.
U. C. B. =uncastrated not used for breeding.
B. =used for breeding.
N. U. B. W. =not used for breeding or work.
U. C. B. W. =uncastrated, used for breeding or work.

TABLE No. 18

DISTRIBUTION OF LIVE-STOCK IN NAGPUR DISTRICT (TAHSIL-WISE), 1961—*contd.*

Name of Tahsil	Other				Total	Young Stock			Other
	Cows	She-Buffaloes	Cow calves	Buffalo calves		Horses	Sheep	Goats	Camels
(1)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)
Nagpur Tahsil	*3,410	*862	43,556	2,839	148,964	355	1,840	36,049	2
Ramtek Tahsil	2,877	448	39,920	1,859	136,302	158	8,089	26,643	26
Katol Tahsil	4,974	1,021	32,171	2,818	114,421	844	3,760	17,181	..

*(Not calved).

DISTRIBUTION OF LIVE-STOCK IN NAGPUR DISTRICT (TAHSIL-WISE), 1961—*contd.*

Name of Tahsil	Bovines over 3 years									
	For work		For breeding		For other purposes		Milch Cattle in Milk		Dry	
	Oxen	He-buffaloes	Bulls	Buffalo bulls	Oxen	He-buffaloes	Cows	She-buffaloes	Cows	She-buffaloes
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)		(10)	(11)
Jmrer Tahsil ..	1,052 N C.	39 N C.	1,146 U. C. B.	36 U. C. B. W.	2,504 N. U. B. W.	29	14,792	1,882	26,897	2,070
	57,085 C.	40 C.	415 B.	136 B.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Saoner Tahsil ..	375 N C.	18 N C.	292 U. C. B.	10 U. C. B. W.	320 N. U. B. W.	13	7,763	1,873	20,243	2,105
	25,313 C.	1 C.	147 B	120 B.	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	3,926 N C.	186 NC.	4,158 U. C. B.	210 U. C. B. W.	..	83	65,262	17,134	111,468	12,560
	197,452 C.	259 C.	1,333 B.	955 B.	5,892	..	..	..	..	..

N. C.=not castrated.
C.=castrated.
U. C. B.=uncastrated, not used for breeding.
B.=used for breeding.
N. U. B. W.=not used for breeding or work.
U. C. B. W.=uncastrated, used for breeding work.

TABLE No. 18

DISTRIBUTION OF LIVE-STOCK IN NAGPUR DISTRICT (TAHSIL-WISE), 1961—*contd.*

Name of Tahsil	Other				Total	Young Stock			Other
	Cows	She-buffaloes	Cow calves	Buffalo calves		Horses	Sheep	Goats	Camels
(1)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)
Umrer Tahsil	4,283	482	44,065	1,958	161,399	337	6,176	28,125	..
Saoner Tahsil	2,819	666	14,847	1,769	93,710	31	2,278	18,366	6
Total ..	18,363	3,479	174,559	11,243	654,796	2,025	22,143	126,364	34

TABLE No. 19

BOVINE POPULATION IN NAGPUR DISTRICT 1951, 1956 AND 1961.

Classification of Cattle	Cow Class			Buffalo Class		
	(1951)	(1956)	(1961)	(1951)	(1956)	(1961)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
A.—Males (Over 3 years)—						
(1) Breeding bulls	2,316	2,875	1,333	760	977	955
(2) Working bullocks	1,80,329	1,92,561	2,05,536	665	576	655
(3) Other bulls		13,802	5,902	..	148	83
Total ..	1,82,645	2,09,238	2,12,771	1,425	1,701	1,693
B.—Females (Over 3 years)—						
	..	69,419	65,262	..	..	..
(1) In Milk	1,90,556	1,03,977	1,11,468	32,180	19,116	17,144
(2) Dry	..	22,492	18,363	..	12,992	12,560
(3) Not calved	..	1,331	1,565	..	3,390	3,479
(4) For work	..	..	..	..	..	..
(5) Others	568	..	..	168	484	318
Total ..	1,91,224	1,97,219	1,96,658	32,348	35,982	33,501

TABLE No. 19—*contd.*

BOVINE POPULATION IN NAGPUR DISTRICT 1951, 1956 AND 1961—*contd.*

Classification of Cattle	Cow Class			Buffalo Class		
	(1951)	(1956)	(1961)	(1951)	(1956)	(1961)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
C.—Young Stock—						
(1) Under 1 year—						
(Males)	1,67,951	36,061	41,355	17,278	3,170	3,629
(Females)		35,683	42,836		7,006	7,335
		71,744	84,191		10,176	10,964
(2) 2 to 3 years—						
(Males)		45,057	46,313		2,194	2,349
(Females)		49,182	57,605		8,541	8,894
	1,67,951	94,239	1,03,918	7,278	10,735	11,243
D.—Grand Total (*A, B and C*)	5,41,820	5,72,440	5,97,538	51,051	58,594	57,401

Bovines.

Bullocks and he-buffaloes are mainly used for heavier agricultural operations on the farm while cows and she-buffaloes are kept mainly for milk production. Bullocks are most commonly in use for farm work and their large number bears sufficient testimony thereof. They also bear the brunt of rural transportation. Poorer farmers do not own draught animals and have hence to hire them out from big landlords. Most of the animals are of non-descript variety. Bullocks are not imported. *Gaolao* breed is most common in the district. *Gaolao* and *Malvi* bullocks are maintained by the farmers. As for buffaloes, a few milch buffaloes of *Murrah* breed are imported whereas a great majority of them belong to *Nagpuri* and *Purna Thadi* varieties. Hardly any buffaloes are exported from the district. However, a large number of bull-calves are purchased by the local dealers and exported outside the district.

Cows in the villages do not yield much milk. However, the calf is allowed to suckle *ad lib* with a view to developing the healthy progeny. But mostly the cattle, except work bullocks and milch buffaloes are generally neglected with the result that the condition of cattle in general is very poor.

Ovines.

In addition to bovines, the district has ovine animals usually kept for wool, hair, skins and mutton. It has been the usual practice of farmers in almost all the districts to keep a few goats and sheep along with cattle on the farm for the purpose of droppings which serve as a good manure for any crop. However, there are a few shepherds who maintain sheep. Hence a small quantity of rough wool is obtained from which coarse blankets required for the use of the farmers of the tract are prepared.

Horses, Mules and Asses.

Horses are not bred in the district to any extent worth mentioning. Asses and mules numbered 1,123 and 3,042, respectively. Horses, mules and asses are not used for agricultural operations, although they are found to be very useful in drawing transport vehicles and as pack animals. Naturally, the farmers are rarely seen to keep these animals. Asses are kept by members of *beldar* and *vadar* communities who are engaged in stone cutting and other similar operations. Usually they have to work in the hot sun and find these animals well suited for the purpose.

Poultry.

Poultry comprises fowls and ducks which are valued for their flesh and eggs. Most of the birds are non-descript and belong to *deshi* variety. Poultry farming has been an important cottage industry in rural areas. However, till recently farmers in Nagpur district did not look upon poultry farming as a subsidiary source of livelihood with the result that poultry farming is not practised on scientific lines and not much headway has been made in this direction. There are a few farmers who take to development of poultry and maintain birds of improved varieties such as Leghorn. People are now practising mixed farming methods and it is expected that cultivators in this district will make progress in the field of poultry improvement by availing themselves of numerous facilities extended by the Government.

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Live-stock Products.

The following two tables indicate the live-stock products together with their estimated value and live-stock prices in Nagpur district in 1961, respectively:—

TABLE No. 20

LIVE-STOCK PRODUCTS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1961.

Product	Average output (per head) per annum (In Kilograms)	Total Product	Estimated value (in rupees)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Cow milk ..	203·850 (450 lbs.)	4,354·576 metric tons. (4,286 tons)	35,36,200
2. Buffalo milk ..	385·050 (850 lbs.)		
3. Eggs	65	1,78,35,730	18,68,262
4. Manure			
Bovine ..	5·0 cart-loads.	2,90,300 cart-loads.	14,51,500
Ovine	0·3 cart-load.	24,493 cart-loads.	5,36,420
5. Hides of cattle ..	..	58,060	5,80,600
6. Skins of ovines ..	..	24,497	24,497
7. Wool	0·679 (1·50 lbs.)	12,114·126 Kgs. (26,742 lbs.)	53,484

Live-stock Prices.

TABLE No. 21

LIVE-STOCK PRICES IN NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1961.

Category (1)	Prices (in rupees) (2)
I.—Pure Breed Cattle—	
(*a*) Gaolao Breeding Bulls (over 2 years) ..	800 to 1,000 each.
(*b*) Gaolao Bulls (below 2 years)	400 to 600 each.
(*c*) Gaolao Cows	150 to 250 each.
II.—Other Cattle—	
(*a*) Country Bullocks	400 to 500 per pair.
(*b*) Country Cows	100 to 150 per pair.
(*c*) Country Buffaloes	300 to 500 each.
(*d*) Country She-Buffaloes	300 to 350 each.
III.—Poultry Stock—	
(*a*) Pure Breed	6 to 8 per bird.
(*b*) Country Fowl	3 to 4 per bird.
(*c*) Eggs	0·10 to 0·12 per egg.

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Sources of Supply.

Fodder-supply.

The most common source of supply of cattle is the weekly markets which are held throughout the district.

The district is self-sufficient in respect of fodder for cattle. There are a number of forest grass lands in the district from which green grass and hay is supplied. Besides, cultivators produce fodder in their farms, mostly *kadbi* which they get from jowar. They also get *kutar* (chaff) from cereals and pulses. Progressive cultivators serve green jowar fodder to the milch and work cattle as it is very nutritious.

Animal Husbandry, Veterinary, and Breeding Facilities.

"A cattle-breeding farm for the production of bulls to be used in improving the agricultural stock of the southern districts was established at Telinkheri in 1902, being stocked with a herd of 34 cows, 12 calves and a bull. The cows and calves were all purchased from the famous *Jaitapur* herd of *Gaolao* cattle, which is considered to be the best breed in the Nagpur country"*. This farm was established with the object of supplying milk to Nagpur city as also to produce pedigreed stock for location in rural areas. A bull depot established for rearing bull calves is also attached to this farm. These superior breeding bulls on maturity are supplied to institutions and villages for improving the breed of cattle in the district.

A Live-stock Research Station was established at Nagpur (June 1961). The Live-stock Research Station will have two prominent wings, *viz.*, Nutrition and Genetics. The Cattle Breeding Farm, Telinkheri, and Poultry Farms at Telinkheri, will also be attached to this station in course of time. The research station will undertake experiments on problems pertaining to feeding and breeding of live-stock and will also constitute a centre for post-graduate studies. It may also be stated that a disease research laboratory had been started at Nagpur to carry on research on animal diseases.

Though the majority of the animals in the district are non-descript, they are contiguous with the *Gaolao* tract and as such the rural cattle is being graded to *Gaolao* bulls. This breed is getting deteriorated due to continuous neglect. Efforts are being made to improve their condition. An artificial insemination centre is established at Nagpur. Similarly, artificial insemination sub-centres are being opened, one in each National Extension Service Block. Out of 13 National Extension Service Blocks, artificial insemination sub-centres were opened in six of them up to June 1961. There is a full-fledged veterinary dispensary at the headquarters of each taluka and at each National Extension Service Block. Attached to each veterinary dispensary are two veterinary aid centres. Veterinary dispensary is

*For details please see page 159-60 of Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Nagpur District, Volume A, published in 1908.

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Animal Husbandry, Veterinary and Breeding facilities.

manned by a veterinary doctor and the aid-centre by a stockman. Two stockmen are also assigned to each National Extension Service Block. They render free veterinary aid at all places visited by them while on tour. Following is the list of veterinary and animal husbandry institutions in the district:—

(i) District veterinary hospital with diagnostic centre ...	1
(ii) Taluka veterinary dispensaries ...	4
(iii) National extension service block veterinary dispensaries ...	7
(iv) Veterinary aid centres ...	15
(v) Stockmen's veterinary first-aid centres ...	6
(vi) Artificial insemination centres ...	6
(vii) Artificial insemination sub-centre ...	1
(viii) District premium bull centres ...	8
(ix) Cattle breeding farm and bull depot ...	1
(x) Key village centres ...	3
(xi) Goshala helped under the Goshala Development Scheme ...	1

Cattle Improvement Scheme.

State pattern key village scheme was sponsored by the Old Madhya Pradesh State, in 1951. Then the entire Vidarbha region was divided into different zones and different breed was assigned to each of them. *Gaolao* breed was prescribed for Nagpur district. However, within a radius of 16.090 kilometres (ten miles) of Nagpur city, *Sahiwal* breed was also recommended for urban dairies. The same policy is continued even to this day with the result that while *Sahiwal* bulls are located round-about Nagpur city, *Gaolao* bulls are located in the villages for grading cattle.

The main feature of the State pattern key village centre was that in a group of about 10 villages, Village Co-operative Live-stock Improvement Society was organised. The veterinary officer of the locality acted as its President and the stockman its Secretary. The Vice-president and the cashier used to be non-officials. Members of the executive body were drawn from the village populace. With the consent of villagers, a bull of the prescribed breed was located in each village with the bull-keeper who was approved by the villagers. The villagers collected fodder and concentrates for maintaining the bull. The breeding services of the bull were free of charge. A stockman was attached to each centre.

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Animal Husbandry, Veterinary and Breeding facilities.

District Premium Bull Scheme, most commonly to be found in almost all the districts of the former Bombay State, is gradually being introduced in the district. Under the scheme bulls of *Gaolao* breed are located with the farmers. A farmer, who purchases an approved bull is either paid in lump sum a subsidy of Rs. 350 or a sum of Rs. 12 per month tenable for three years towards the maintenance of the bull. This scheme is proving popular and there is a considerable demand for such bulls from National Extension Service Block authorities. The bulls are located in a contiguous group of five or ten villages each.

Though there is some progress noticed in livestock improvement at centres established under different schemes, much more is required to be done. The Grampanchayats in the villages are expected to play a very significant role in livestock improvement work. Increased Government aid will help speedier progress.

Educational facilities.

Prior to the reorganisation of States, there was no college for veterinary education in Nagpur district. After the reorganisation of States, however, the paucity of technical personnel in veterinary field was keenly felt and to remedy the situation the veterinary college was started at Nagpur in 1958. Further, with a view to strengthening veterinary services in rural areas stockmen are being trained at training centre at Nagpur. Fifty students are admitted to the course every year. A reference has already been made to the establishment of the Livestock Research Station at Nagpur.

Poultry Development Scheme.

The Central Poultry Farm situated at Nagpur plays an important role in the development of poultry activities in the district through demonstration and propaganda of poultry farming. There are two Poultry Demonstration Centres set up in 1960-61 under Government of India Scheme at Kalmeshwar in Saoner tahsil and Mauda in Ramtek tahsil for the distribution of two to five month old chicks to the interested poultry breeders. A large number of cultivators visit these centres for obtaining treatment to ailing birds or for seeking advice on poultry problems. Charts, maps, etc., are also displayed to serve as a medium of demonstration. The Central Poultry Farm fulfils the demand for birds and eggs all over the State and also meets the requirements of Demonstration Centres referred to above. It also supplies hatching eggs and breeding birds to individuals.

There is a Poultry Club at Nagpur which arranges poultry shows and carries out poultry extension work. Breeders, incubators and other equipment are exhibited at the poultry shows in which private poultry owners participate. Owners of the best birds are awarded prizes. Publicity campaigns are also undertaken to arouse and sustain interest among the villagers.

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Animal Husbandry and Breeding facilities.

Chick Rearing Centre, Nagpur.—There is a chick rearing centre attached to the Central Poultry Farm at Nagpur where a day old chicks are received and reared up to three or four months. Later these are supplied to poultry demonstration centres in the region. Through these demonstration centres, reared chicks are sold to needy cultivators. With a view to encouraging poultry breeding by cultivators, a total amount of Rs. 15,000 was distributed through Saoner, Kuhi and Nagpur development blocks in 1960-61. Each development block extended financial assistance to the interested and needy poultry breeders to the tune of Rs. 500 each to enable them to purchase pedigreed birds, wire nettings, water troughs, feeds, etc.

Poultry Education.—The Regional Poultry Training Centre has been functioning from 5th May 1960 at Nagpur. The training comprises one session spread over a period of three months. A few deserving students are given stipend of Rs. 30 per month. The object of training is to impart scientific knowledge about breeding, feeding and management of poultry. At a time a batch of 30 candidates coming from different Development Block areas is selected for training.

Dairy Conditions.

Keeping milch animals as a subsidiary occupation to crop farming is the common practice in the district. The geographical area of the district admeasures 858448·125 hectares (2,119,625 acres) of which 116697·915 hectares (288,143 acres) comprise grazing lands. The district is self-sufficient in respect of fodder, which satisfies the basic requirement of the dairy industry. Besides, there are grass lands belonging to the Forest Department and Malguzari lands which are auctioned every year either for grazing the animals or for cutting the grass. There is a luxuriant growth of grass in these reserve pastures and varieties such as Sheda, Kunda, Marvel, Kusali, etc., are commonly found in them.

Though the number of cows in milk exceeds that of buffaloes in milk, the supply of buffalo-milk is more than that of cow-milk, the reason being the superior milk yield of the buffaloes. Though keeping of dairy animals is a major subsidiary occupation of the farmers, the production of milk is mostly concentrated in the areas nearabout towns. Greater demand for milk, better marketing facilities and high prices for milk obtaining in cities and towns explain this phenomenon. Milk produced in villages and in the interior parts of the district is usually used for preparing milk products such as *khawa, ghee,* butter and curds. These are later on marketed locally and in towns and cities. Milk produced around Nagpur, Ramtek and Saoner is mostly consumed by the hotels in these cities. Areas in the vicinity of Katol, Kondhali, Bazargaon afford quite a good scope for the production of milk and the development of dairy industry. The price of milk varies from 0-62 paise to Rs. 1-12 per litre, of *Khawa* from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per kilo and of butter from Rs. 3-50 to Rs. 6-50 per kilo, depending upon the season and the quality of the product. The Government have undertaken a milk supply scheme at Nagpur. The main features of the scheme are briefly detailed in the following paragraphs.

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Nagpur Milk Scheme.

The special milk survey of Nagpur, carried out for planning the reorganisation of the milk supply of the entire city, revealed that out of 43,968.00 litres (1,200 maunds) of milk consumed daily about 23816.000 litres (650 maunds) were produced within the corporation limits while the rest was supplied from villages by about 1,200 middlemen. The consumption of milk per head per day was 79.556 cubic centimetres (2.8 ounces) in the liquid form and about 17.047 cubic centimetres (0.6 ounces) in the form of milk products such as butter, ghee, etc. The Nagpur milk scheme, aims at reorganising the milk industry and the supply of milk on sound and proper footing and making it a profitable subsidiary industry to the agriculturists. It was launched on 8th August 1958. In the beginning only 842.720 litres (23 maunds) of milk was produced from Government Dairy Farm, Telankheri; Agricultural College Dairy, Nagpur; Telankheri Co-operative Dairy Society; Shivangaon Co-operative Dairy Society and Central Co-operative Dairy Society located within Nagpur Corporation limits.

The implementation of the scheme has so far benefited not only the farmers in general but also the consumers who obtain their daily quota of pure milk at reasonable rates. On realising the benefits which farmers get in supplying milk to Government Milk Scheme, most of the orange growers who used to maintain dry animals for manure have now switched over to milch animals. The farmers have also responded to the scheme by forming co-operative societies. By August 1961, 14 milk collection centres were established on three major routes leading to Nagpur city. Each milk collection centre covered most of the villages within a radius of 3·29 to 6·437 kilometres (two to three miles). These centres collected 3664.000 litres (100 maunds) of cow and buffalo milk. The milk thus collected was put to adequate tests and checks, weighed and packed in cans with ice chambers meant for maintaining temperature at the desired level and for its preservation. The milk collection target of 3664.000 litres (100 maunds) per day was increased to 5862.400 litres (160 maunds) with a view to meeting increased demand. Milk was distributed through retail centres on cash sale, home delivery by coupons and bulk delivery to Government and private institutions. A programme for ambitious expansion of the scheme was contemplated and was included in the Second Five-Year Plan. It is expected to achieve the target of 43968.00 litres (1,200 maunds) per day by the end of the Third Plan.*

The achievements of the scheme are enumerated below:—

(1) It has helped maintain the price of milk to the consumers at reasonable and moderate level. It has also ensured the quality of milk supplied.

(2) The cost of keeping animals outside the town proper is low. Therefore, encouraging maintenance of animals outside city limits will improve the sanitation of the city.

*Maharashtra State—Schemes in the Third Five-Year Plan, P. 85.

(3) It has made milk industry remunerative and profitable and will make farmers, farm labourers and *adivasis* better off by securing to them increased monthly gross income.

(4) It provides ready market for milk supplied by farmers in the interior.

(5) Farmers are gaining knowledge in clean milk production method and other technical matters.

The scheme also aims at implementing certain long-term measures intended to improve and to give impetus to dairy industry. These measures may be briefly outlined as under:—

(1) Government grass lands in charge of Revenue and Forest Departments should be allotted to co-operative dairy societies of milk producers on long-term basis at nominal rent. At present these lands are auctioned to middlemen who make enormous profit by selling the produce in urban areas.

(2) Co-ordinating artificial insemination, key village scheme and Cattle improvement scheme of the Animal Husbandry department in concentrated blocks in milk zones of the milk supply scheme.

(3) Supply of nutritious cattle feed at cheap rates through co-operative marketing societies.

(4) Making available the supply of water from the tanks, rivers, etc., for growing green fodder and encouraging mixed farming and avenues with fodder trees.

(5) Construction of approach roads and repairs to main roads in areas of milk zone for ensuring quick and easy transport of milk.

(6) Afforestation of barren hills and grass lands with fodder trees like *Anjan*, etc., for ensuring supply of green fodder throughout the year.

(7) Providing milk suppliers in off season of farming with employment in small-scale and cottage industries.

(8) Organising distribution of concentrates, chaffed fodder, improved seeds, agricultural and dairy machinery, pumping plants and equipment through the federation of milk producers societies and dairy societies.

A separate scheme known as the cattle colonisation scheme is also in operation in Nagpur. The object of the scheme is to remove the insanitary stables from Nagpur city and to provide a colony with hygienic cattle sheds for housing the cattle.*

IRRIGATION.

Irrigation has always attracted considerable attention because it helps to alleviate hardships caused by the irregularity and uneven distribution of the monsoon. Besides, it helps to increase the double-cropped area as also the yield of crops. There were no *bandharas* and co-operative lift irrigation or dam construction societies in the district. The main sources of water-supply for the purposes of irrigation are Government canals, wells and tanks. The following table indicates the sources of water-supply as distributed among the five tahsils of the district and the net area irrigated by them.

*Maharashtra State—Schemes in the Third Five-Year Plan, P. 89.

TABLE No. 22

SOURCES OF WATER SUPPLY AND NET AREA IRRIGATED, 1958-59.

Tahsil	Government canal	Canal Mileage	Wells used for irrigation only				Number of wells used for domestic purposes only	Number of wells not in use	Tube wells		No. of oil engines
			Government		Private				Government	Private	
			Masonry	Non-masonry	Masonry	Non-masonry					
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1. Nagpur	..	..	24	4	2,624	1,162	1,198	4,641	..	7	352
2. Ramtek	..	25	15	6	1,110	635	940	1,660	4	15	81
3. Umrer	1	..	5	4	665	141	1,089	1,699	1	5	40
4. Katol	..	..	13	3	1,377	6,974	4,143	4,270	..	..	360
5. Saoner	..	..	2	1	1,382	3,919	1,447	3,462	..	2	167
District Total	1	25	59	18	7,158	12,831	8,817	15,732	5	29	1,000

Tahsil	Tanks		Net area (in hectares) irrigated by		
			Government Canals	Tanks	
	with ayacut 40·468 hectares (100 acres) or more	with ayacut less than 40·468 hectares (100 acres)			
(1)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
1. Nagpur	..	(26) 10·530	..	(64)	25·920
2. Ramtek	..	(634) 256·770	(10,829) 4,385·745	(5,313)	2,151·765
3. Umrer	*(5)	(729) 295·245	..	(8,953)	3,625·965
4. Katol	(13) 3·645	..	..	..	..
5. Saoner	(4) 1·620	(7) 2·835	..	(11)	4·455
District Total	(26) 10·530	(1,396) 565·380	(10,829) 4,385·745	(14,341)	5,808·105

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

TABLE No. 22

SOURCES OF WATER SUPPLY AND NET AREA IRRIGATED, 1958-59—*contd.*

Tahsil (1)	Net area (in hectares) irrigated by: Wells (17)	Net area (in hectares) irrigated by: Other sources (18)	Total (19)	Percentage of net area irrigated to net area sown (20)
1. Nagpur	(7,385)* 2,990·925	(687) 278·235	(8,136) 3,295·080	2·8
2. Ramtek	(2,747) 1,112·535	(1,396) 565·380	(2,085) 344·425	7·9
3. Umrer	(1,427) 577·935	(1,681) 680·805	(1,206) 488·430	3·7
4. Katol	(13,299) 5,386·095	(9) 3·645	(13,308) 5,389·740	5·5
5. Saoner	(8,233) 3,334·365	(69) 27·945	(8,313) 3,366·765	4·2
District Total ..	(33,091) 13,401·855	(3,842) 1,556·010	(33,048) 13,384·440	4·8

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

It will be seen from the above table that there was only one Government canal in Ramtek tahsil which was 40.233 km. (25 miles) in length and the net area irrigated by it amounted to 4385.745 hectares (10,829 acres) in 1958-59. There were 34 tube wells of which 19 were in Ramtek tahsil. There were 7,247 masonry wells and 12,849 non-masonry ones which together irrigated 13401.855 hectares (33,091 acres) of land. Nagpur tahsil accounted for 2,624 private masonry wells or more than one-third of the total, whereas Katol tahsil accounted for more than 50 per cent or 6,974 private non-masonry wells. Wells used for domestic purposes were 8,817 while wells not in use numbered 15,732. The district had 1,000 oil engines, Nagpur and Katol tahsils each accounting for a little more than one-third. There were 26 tanks with ayacut* 40.500 hectares (100 acres) or more and 1,396 with ayacut less than 40.500 hectares (100 acres) which together irrigated a net area of 5808.105 hectares (14,341 acres). Net area irrigated by other sources amounted to 1556.010 hectares (3,842 acres) thus bringing the net area irrigated by various sources of water-supply to 25151.715 hectares (62,103 acres), which formed 4.8 per cent of the net area sown, *viz.*, 5,31,323.145 hectares (13,11,909 acres). The table below shows the area of food crops and non-food crops irrigated in Nagpur district in 1958-59:—

*The area which the tank can irrigate,when holding capacity water.

TABLE No. 23

AREA OF CROPS IRRIGATED, 1958-59.

FOOD-CROPS

(In hectares)*

—	Nagpur		Ramtek		Umrer		Katol		Saoner		District Total	
(1)	(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)		(6)		(7)	
I—Food Crops												
1. Rice ..	(45)	18·225	(15,397)	6,235·785	(10,520)	4,260·600	(2)	0·810	(16)	6·480	(25,980)	10,521·900
2. Wheat ..	(664)	268·920	(1,786)	723·330	(188)	76·140	(963)	390·015	(586)	237·330	(4,187)	1,695·735
3. Jowar ..	(12)	4·860	(7)	2·835	(3)	1·215	..	..	..	..	(22)	8·910
4. Barley ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	(1)	0·405	..	..	(1)	0·405
5. Maize ..	(4)	1·620	..	..	..	..	(1)	0·405	(1)	0·405	(6)	2·430
6. Common millets.	(1)	0·405	..	..	..	..	(8)	3·240	(7)	2·835	(16)	6·480
7. Gram ..	(174)	70·470	(53)	21·465	(5)	2·025	(1,234)	499·770	(464)	187·920	(1,930)	781·650
8. Mug (Green gram).	..	..	..	..	..	..	(2)	0·810	(2)	0·810	(4)	1·620
9. Tur (Arhar)	(15)	6·075	..	..	..	..	(23)	9·315	(12)	4·860	(50)	20·250
10. Udid (Black gram).	..	..	..	..	..	..	8)	3·240	..	..	(8)	3·240
11. Horse gram	(1)	0·405	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	(1)	0·405
12. Masur ..	(1)	0·405	..	..	..	..	(1)	0·405	..	..	(2)	0·810
13. Sugarcane	(35)	14·175	(5)	2·025	(8)	3·240	(50)	20·250	(30)	12·150	(128)	51·840
14. Chillis ..	(945)	382·725	(247)	100·035	(257)	104·085	(1,376)	557·280	(720)	291·600	(3,545)	1,435·725
15. Ginger ..	..	..	(4)	1·620	..	..	..	..	..	..	(4)	1·620
16. Turmeric..	..	..	..	..	(88)	35·640	(52)	21·060	(11)	4·455	(151)	61·155
17. Potato ..	(10)	4·050	(46)	18·630	(3)	1·215	(16)	6·480	(15)	6·075	(90)	36·450
18. Miscellaneous food-crops.	(5,682)	2,301·210	(2,613)	1,058·265	(957)	387·585	(8,897)	3,603·285	(6,146)	2,489·130	(24,295)	9,839·475
19. Total food-crops.	(7,589)	3,073·545	(20,158)	8,163·990	(12,029)	4,871·745	(12,634)	5,116·770	(8,010)	3,244·050	(60,420)	24,470·100

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

NON-FOOD CROPS.

(In hectares)*

—	Nagpur		Ramtek		Umrer		Katol		Saoner		District Total	
(1)	(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)		(6)		(7)	
II—Non-food Crops.												
1. Cotton	(142)	57·510	(1)	0·405	(3)	1·215	(524)	212·220	(223)	90·315	(893)	361·665
2 Hemp ..	(53)	21·465	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	(53)	21·465
3 Groundnut	(1)	0·405	..	..	..	..	(4)	1·620	..	..	(5)	2·025
4· Linseed ..	..	..	(1)	0·405	..	..	(4)	1·620	..	..	(5)	2·025
5. Castor ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	(7)	2·835	(1)	0·405	(8)	3·240
6. Tobacco ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	(1)	0·405	..	..	(1)	0·405
7. Fodder crops	(101)	40·905	(1)	0·405	..	..	(6)	2·430	(12)	4·860	(120)	48·600
8. Miscellaneous non-food crops.	(250)	101·250	(124)	50·220	(32)	12·960	(124)	50·220	(66)	26·730	(596)	241·380
9. Total non-food crops.	(547)	221·535	(127)	51·435	(35)	14·175	(670)	271·350	(302)	122·310	(1,681)	680·805
Total area under irrigated crops (I + II).	(8,136)	3,295·080	(20,285)	8,215·425	(12,064)	4,885·920	(13,304)	5,388·120	(8,312)	3,366·360	(62,101)	25,150·905

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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The table reveals that the total area of food-crops irrigated in 1958-59 in the district was 24470·910 hectares (60,422 acres). Rice was the prominent food-crop irrigated in Nagpur tahsil which claimed 10481·400 hectares (25,880 acres) followed by miscellaneous food-crops, 9840·285 hectares (24,297 acres); wheat, 1695·735 hectares (4,187 acres); chillis 1435·725 hectares (3,545 acres) and gram, 781·650 hectares (1,930 acres). Irrigated area under turmeric, sugarcane and potato amounted to 61·155 hectares (151 acres), 51.840 hectares (128 acres) and 36.450 hectares (90 acres), respectively. Nearly the whole of irrigated area under rice was concentrated in Ramtek 6235·785 hectares (15,397 acres) and Umrer 4260·600 hectares (10,520 acres) tahsils. Of the irrigated area under wheat, Ramtek tahsil claimed about 43 per cent or 723·330 hectares (1,786 acres) while in respect of chilli crop Katol tahsil was in the forefront with 557·280 hectares (1,376 acres) followed by Nagpur (382.725 hectares or 945 acres) and Saoner (291.600 hectares or 720 acres). Katol tahsil also claimed 499·770 hectares (1,234 acres) or nearly two-thirds of the irrigated area under gram. Of the irrigated area under miscellaneous food crops, more than one-third or 3604·095 hectares (8,899 acres) was to be found in Katol tahsil. Irrigated area under jowar, maize, common millets, ***mug, tur, udid, masur*** and ginger was negligible.

The total area of non-food crops irrigated in 1958-59 in the district was 680·805 hectares (1,681 acres) of which little over one half or 361·665 hectares (893 acres) was under cotton followed by miscellaneous non-food crops, with an area of 241.380 hectares (596 acres); fodder crops, 48.600 hectares (120 acres) and hemp, 21.465 hectares (53 acres). Area under irrigated crops of groundnut, linseed, castor seed and tobacco was insignificant.

Irrigation Projects under Five-Year Plans.

Following is an account of irrigation works completed before and during the First Five-Year Plan, the Second Five-Year Plan and the schemes proposed to be taken up during the Third Five-Year Plan.

(1) *Ramtek (Khindsi) Tank*: This is situated about 6.828 km. (4 miles) from Ramtek town. It lies midway between Ramtek tahsil of Nagpur district and Bhandara tahsil of Bhandara district, where the area under irrigation in 1959-60 was 4260.600 hectares (10,520 acres) and 3596.805 hectares (8,881 acres), respectively. The tank was constructed between 1906 and 1914 at a cost of Rs. 29.12 lakhs with projected irrigation of 9720.000 hectares (24,000 acres) of *kharif* crop, 607.500 hectares (1,500 acres) of *rabi* crop and 202.343 hectares (500 acres) under perennial water-supply against gross area of 36930.330 hectares (91,186 acres) under command. In the initial stages, the tank irrigated an area of 1215.000 hectares (3,000 acres) which gradually rose in 1959-60 to 8180.650 hectares (17,730 acres) under *kharif* crops, 858.600 hectares (2,120 acres) under *rabi* crops and 199.665 hectares (493 acres) under perennial water-supply thus aggregating 8230.915 hectares (20,343 acres).

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The head-work consists of two earthen bunds: (i) main bund 2293·905 metres (7,521 feet) long and (ii) flank bund 3233·000 metres (10,600 feet) long; waste weir 155·550 metres (510 feet) long and a sluice with channel discharge at head with a capacity of 333 cusecs of water. The tank commands an area of 36930·330 hectares (91,186 acres). The height of the main dam is 22·204 metres (72.8′) while that of the flank is 9.424 metres (30.9′). The total length of channels is 330.906 kilometres (205.66 miles). Water rates charged during 1959-60 were as under:—

(i) Minor *kharif* crops—Re. 1.00 per acre [0.405 hectare].

(ii) Sugarcane—Rs. 25 per acre and Rs. 15 per acre for wet and dry varieties, respectively.

(iii) Garden crops like chillis, potatoes, cabbage, etc.—Rs, 10 per acre.

(iv) Orchard plantations and gardening—Rs. 15 per acre [0.405 hectare].

(v) *Rabi* crops like rice, etc.—Rs. 4 on agreement and Rs. 12 on demand per acre [0.405 hectare].

(vi) Wheat—Rs. 1.50.

The crops irrigated by this tank mainly include rice in *kharif* season, wheat in *rabi* season and sugarcane and orange which are perennial and hot-weather crops. The average cost of maintenance of the tank was in the neighbourhood of Rs. 70,000. Actual expenditure during 1959-60 was Rs. 58,335; revenue assessed during the same year was Rs. 71,503, while that realised, amounted to Rs. 68,228.

(2) *Telankhedi Tank*: This is an old tank situated on the outskirts of Nagpur city. It was constructed at a cost of Rs. 2,54,400. The catchment area of the dam is 6·475 square kilometres (2·5 sq. miles) while average rainfall at the site is 1244.60 millimetre (49 inches). The length of the main dam is 725.595 metres (2,379 feet); maximum height of the dam is 6·000 metres (20 feet), while the length of the waste weir is 8·082 metres (26 and a half feet). The tank irrigates an area of 34·425 hectares (85 acres) of Government Agriculture College, Nagpur farm and Telankhedi garden. The average cost of maintenance is Rs. 2,000. There is a masonry wall on water side with a parapet wall 0·99 metres (3′-3″) above top of the bund.

(1) *Dahegaon Tank*: This is an ex-malguzari tank in village Dahegaon 3.218 km. (2 miles) to the right of mile No. 8 of Nagpur-Wardha road. Being an old tank it was in a derelict condition. Hence its improvement and repairs were undertaken by Irrigation and Power Department in 1955-56 and were completed during the Second Five-Year Plan in 1957-58. The total expenditure incurred amounted to Rs. 16,005.

The catchment area of the tank is ·237 Km. (0·08 square mile) and the average rainfall at the site is 1320.8 mm. (52″). The tank commands an area of 648.000 hectares (1,600 acres) of which 587.250 hectares (1,450 acres) are culturable. The head-work consists of an earthen dam 1448.750 metres (4,750′) long and 7.320

metres (24′) high. The original cost of the tank amounted to Rs. 22,317. The average cost of maintenance of the tank is Rs. 1,200 per year. The area irrigated during 1959-60 was 12.636 hectares (31.20 acres) under different crops such as cotton, *rabi tur*, etc. During the first year of completion of improvement and repairs work, irrigation facilities were provided free, whereas during 1959-60, revenue realised amounted to Rs. 25.

There were three medium irrigation works in progress in Nagpur district during the Second Five-Year Plan period which are described in the following paragraphs:

(1) *Pindrabodi Tank Project*: The head-work is situated about 6.44 km. (4 miles) to the south-west of Umrer town, in tahsil Umrer of Nagpur district.

The scheme envisages the construction of an earthen dam across a local stream, which is a tributary of another bigger stream called Amb river. The Amb river is a tributary of the Wainganga river in the Godavari Basin. From this dam two direct canals, one on the right bank and the other on the left take off. The canals* will be nearly 19.308 and 14.481 km. (12 miles and 9 miles) long, respectively.

The catchment area of the tank is 44·03 square kilometres (17 sq. miles) and the average rainfall at the site is 105.50 millimetres (50″). The gross storage capacity is 13692000·000 cubic metres (489 million cubic feet) as against net storage capacity of 12982200.000 cubic metres (463.65 million cubic feet). The head-work consists of an earthen dam. Its maximum height is 15.250 metres (50′) and has two sluice gates. Total length of the dam is 1711·050 metres (5,610 feet) whereas that of the main dam is 1059.875 metres (3,475 feet). The waste weir 109.495 metres (359 feet) long is of the Poondy type. Gross area under command is 3034.260 hectares (7,492 acres) of which 2045.250 hectares (5,050 acres) under mixed crop pattern are proposed to be irrigated. Of these, 306.787 hectares (757.5 acres) were under rice; 102.262 hectares (252.5 acres) under chillis; 613.575 hectares (1,515 acres) under wheat and 1022.625 hectares (2,525 acres) under *rabi* crops.

(2) *Satighat tank project*: This is about 11.265 km. (7 miles) north-east of Umrer town, in Umrer tahsil of Nagpur district. This was also in the initial stage of execution with approach and spill channel nearing completion. The work was to be completed by 1962-63.

The catchment area of the tank is 5.957 sq. kilometres (2.30 sq. miles) and the average rainfall in the catchment area is 1270 mm. (50″). The gross storage capacity of the tank is 3243240·000 cubic metres (115·83 million cubic feet) as against the net available storage of 3067120·000 cubic metres (109·54 million cubic feet). The head-work consists of an earthen dam 85.400 metres (280′) long with the waste weir 7·625 metres (25′) long. The maximum height of the dam is 12.444 metres (40.8′) and has one sluice gate. The tank commands gross area of 596·160 hectares (1,472 acres), of which 336·150 hectares (830 acres) under

*Maharashtra State—Schemes in the Third Five-Year Plan, P. 194.

mixed crop pattern will be irrigated. It is expected that gradually, area irrigated will increase to 486·000 hectares (1,200 acres). The present area irrigated, viz., 336·150 hectares (830 acres), includes 84·240 hectares (208 acres) under rice, 83·835 hectares (207 acres) under chillis, 100·845 hectares (249 acres) under wheat, 57·105 hectares (141 acres) under jowar and 10·125 hectares (25 acres) under perennial water-supply.

(3) *Khursapar Tank Project*: The site of the head work is about 3.218 km. (2 miles) west of Mohpa town. The work started in January 1960 is in progress. The work is expected to be complete during the period of Third Five-Year Plan. The catchment area of the tank is 8.029 sq. kilometres (3.10 sq. miles) and the average rainfall at the site is 1066.8 mm. (42″). The gross storage capacity of the tank is 4628316.000 cubic metres (165.297 million cubic feet).

The length of the earthen dam is 1171.200 metres (3,840′) while that of the Poondy type waste weir is 100·650 metres (330′). The maximum height of the dam is 16.775 metres (55′) and has a sluice gate. The gross area commanded by the tank is 1012·500 hectares (2,500 acres), of which 830·250 hectares (2,050 acres) are culturable. An area of 664·200 hectares (1,640 acres) under mixed crop pattern is proposed to be irrigated which is composed of 66·420 hectares (164 acres) under rice, 166.050 hectares (410 acres) under orange, 232.470 hectares (574 acres) under jowar, 66.420 hectares (164 acres) under cotton and 132.840 hectares (328 acres) under wheat. Length of the main canal is 3.958 kilometres (2.46 miles). The estimated cost of the scheme is placed at 19.57 lakhs while the net annual revenue is expected to be over sixty thousand rupees.

Seventeen minor irrigation works which are estimated to cost Rs. 90.17 lakhs with an irrigation potential of 6040.170 hectares (14,914 acres) were approved by the former District Development Board, Nagpur, for inclusion in the Third Five-Year Plan. The tahsilwise abstract is given below:—

Sr. No.	Name of the Tahsil	No. of Works	Cost in lakhs	Irrigation potential in hectares
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
			Rs.	
1	Saoner	2	14·80	926·640 *(2,288)
2	Katol	5	29·00	1863·405 (4,601)
3	Ramtek	3	14·90	1101·600 (2,720)
4	Umrer	3	11·77	803·925 (1,985)
5	Nagpur	4	19·70	1344·600 (3,320)
		17	90·17	6040·170 (14,914)

*Figures in brackets show area in acres.

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It will be seen from the above abstract that minor irrigation schemes are being implemented in all the tahsils of the district. These proposed schemes together with the existing tanks are expected to provide adequate irrigation facilities.

SEED SUPPLY.

There are various methods of obtaining the seed required for cultivation. Progressive cultivators pluck selected earheads from healthy and vigorous plants in their fields and preserve the seed till the next sowing. The common practice followed by other cultivators is to obtain the seed either from local merchants or from big cultivators who grow their own seed and have a surplus to sell. Tenant farmers of limited means borrow seed from their landlords and make repayment in kind after harvest. The seed returned exceeds the quantity of seed borrowed by 25 per cent or 50 per cent: the former being known as *savai* and the latter *didki*. The well-to-do cultivators import the stock of seed from localities renowned for particular strains.

Local vegetable seeds are procured by progressive farmers in the district. Fruit trees are generally propagated by grafts and seedlings. Betel-vine gardens are maintained almost permanently and cuttings for fresh vines are obtained from them. Tobacco and chillis are obtained by cultivators mostly from their own farms. Sugarcane sets are normally obtained from old plantations in the locality. A nursery for the supply of fruit grafts is maintained at Nagpur. There are subsidiary nurseries practically in each tahsil.

There are no seed farms in the district except those maintained by the Government. The Department of Agriculture has been active in the work of propagating improved strains of paddy, wheat and gram evolved at the departmental research stations. The following strains (crop-wise) are under multiplication in the district:—

Crop	Strains
(1) Paddy ..	.. E B 17, *Sultugurmatia*, x22, x27, Red *luchai*, *Chatri*, *Chinnor*, *Badshahbhog*, *Baspatri*, *Benisar*.
(2) *Rabi* jowar	.. M-35-1.
(3) Wheat ..	.. Hy65-4.
(4) Gram ..	.. *Gulabi*.
(5) Sugarcane	.. CO. 419.

The nucleus seed obtained from Government farms is multiplied in a suitable locality on the fields of registered or certified seed growers, under official supervision. This seed is preserved by the cultivator for further distribution either on exchange basis (i.e., quantity of grain equal to that of seed supplied) or on *savai* or

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SEED SUPPLY.

didki basis explained earlier. Alternatively, seed growers are allowed to sell seeds in cash at current prices. Distribution of improved seed formed part of Grow More Food Campaign and by now it has covered most of the area suited to the cultivation of paddy, wheat and gram. Improved seeds of these crops have stepped up their yield by 15 per cent. Besides, on account of uniformity and quality of the grain, it fetches better price in the market.

The following table gives the figures regarding seed supplied by the Department of Agriculture between 1956-57 and 1960-61.

TABLE No. 24.

SEED SUPPLY.

(Figures in quintals)*

Item	Years				
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
(1) Paddy	387·05 (1,037)	674·82 (1,808)	527 (1,412)	601·66 (1,612)	404·22 (1,083)
(2) Sann..	..	..	312·40 (837)	791·27 (2,120)	334·79 (897)
(3) Cotton	..	1755·73 (4,704)	3418·89 (458†)	3082·87 (413†)	2993·39 (406†)
(4) Wheat	415·79 (1,114)	699 (1,873)	496 (1,329)	1449·67 (3,884)	6669·82 (893-10†)
(5)Ground-nut.	..	..	8·21 (22)	102·64 (275)	39·93 (107)

MANURES.

Farmers in Nagpur district, particularly those growing cotton, wheat, paddy, chillis and oranges seem to be well aware of the utility and importance of manuring their fields. They apply manures on a large scale even though they are costly. The most usual practice obtaining in the district is to manure the fields with dung of cattle, sheep and goats, farm refuse and stable litter. Sheep folding is also practised on a large scale. Cultivators are also found to use chemical fertilisers and manure mixtures distributed by the Department of Agriculture.

Indigenous manures are carefully stocked and used throughout the district. In the western zone where the rainfall is low and where *kharif* jowar and *kharif* groundnut are grown, generally about five cart-loads of farm-yard manure are applied to each hectare of land. In rural tracts, dung of cattle, sheep and goats, village refuse and stable litter are used for the purpose of manuring the fields. However, there is a dirth of cattle-dung for manurial purposes, as nearly 40 per cent of its total supply is commonly used as fuel. The dung and urine of sheep and goats

*Figures in brackets show weight in maunds except those given in *Khandis*.

†Figures are in *Khandis*.

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serve as valuable manure. Owners of flocks of sheep and goats, usually *dhangars*, are paid in cash for quartering their stock overnight in the fields. It is estimated that about a thousand sheep and goats together give manure equal to five to six cart-loads. Town refuse and night soil are utilised for making compost manure by some municipalities in the district. The quantity of this compost manure amounted to 5175.504 metric tons (5,093 tons). This manure is auctioned to the cultivators who are using it on a large scale. Compost manure is obtained by digging the pits which are filled with farm refuse, cow dung, stable litter, etc. These are allowed to decompose in the pits. The manure so obtained ordinarily contains nitrogen varying between 0.6 per cent and 0.8 per cent. Groundnut cake, manure mixtures and chemical fertilisers made available at concessional rates by the Department of Agriculture have become quite popular among the cultivators. The application of groundnut cake, manure mixtures and chemical fertilisers to food crops has brought about an increase of about 30 per cent in their yield. The Department of Agriculture has been arranging demonstrations of the application of different manures to various crops with a view to educating and convincing the farmers about the utility of scientific manuring. The quantity of fertilisers consumed in the district between 1956-57 and 1960-61 is shown in the following statement:—

(In Metric tons)*

Fertiliser	Year				
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Amm/S/Nitrate ..	24·384 (24)	20·320 (20)	..	84·328 (83)	5·080 (5)
Amm/Sulphate ..	422·656 (416)	500·888 (493)	265·176 (261)	601·472 (592)	810·768 (798)
Sup/Phosphate ..	221·488 (218)	213·360 (210)	..	27·432 (27)	674·624 (664)
Urea	6·096 (6)	1·016 (1)	..	95·504 (94)	21·336 (21)
Town compost ..	6939·280 (6,830)	3653·536 (3,596)	2966·720 (2,920)	5390·896 (5,306)	5174·488 (5,093)

The quantity of manure to be applied varies from field to field and from crop to crop. Farm-yard manure at the rate of 20.321 metric tons (20 tons) per acre is applied to irrigated crops like sugarcane, orange, chilli, turmeric, etc. The non-irrigated crops are manured at the rate of 3.048 metric tons (three tons) per acre. *Rabi* crops like wheat, gram and other pulses ordinarily receive no farm-yard manure. Cotton, an important cash crop of the district, is manured at the rate of 2.540 to 5.080 metric tons (2.5 tons to 5 tons) of farm-yard manure per acre. Rice, the staple food-crop, also receives fertilisers at the same rate as that of the cotton. Topdressing with ammonium sulphate and super-phosphate is

*Figures in brackets show weight in tons.

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being practised. Many of the cultivators apply only sulphate of ammonia at the rate of one bag or (101.472 kilograms 224 lbs.) per acre under wheat crop. Pulses are not generally manured. The garden crops are always manured with farm-yard manure and chemical fertilisers. In case of fruit crops like orange, banana and guava, each tree is generally given 45.359 kg. (100 lbs.) of farm-yard manure and about 4.530 to 6.795 kilograms (10—15 lbs.) of groundnut cake, twice a year. All vegetable crops, brinjal and onion in particular, are given adequate farm-yard manure and chemical fertilisers as and when required.

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

The importance of disseminating latest scientific information and imparting instructions in the latest methods of cultivation with a view to stepping up agricultural production, cannot be overemphasised. From this standpoint, the existence of such facilities in the district is very essential. There is an agricultural college at Nagpur. There are no agricultural schools or research stations in the district. The Extension Training Centre at Tharsa, started in 1955, was converted into a Gram Sevak Training Centre in 1959 in order to meet the demand for trained personnel for the National Extension Service schemes. The horticultural nursery at Nagpur supplies grafts of various fruit trees. An account of the College of Agriculture, Nagpur, is given below.

The first step towards the provision of agricultural education was the formation in 1888 of an agricultural class, providing a two years course of education at the Government Farm, Nagpur. In 1906, this class was replaced by the College of Agriculture. Subsequently, with increasing activities in the field of agricultural research, a separate Agricultural Research Institute having a research laboratory and a students' laboratory was opened in 1915. The College of Agriculture at the time of its inception provided for a three-year diploma course after Matriculation. Later, this diploma course was replaced by a full-fledged four-year degree course leading to Bachelor of Science (Agriculture). Provision was also made from February 1935 for the post-graduate research degree of Master of Science in Agriculture and from 1941 for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Agriculture. The College of Agriculture is situated within close range of the Government Farm, the Veterinary Hospital and the Agricultural Research Institute. There are 12 teaching departments in the college. A spacious hostel with a capacity to accommodate about 170 students is attached to it. Post-graduate sections are engaged in research. Besides teaching, professors and lecturers also undertake research work.

A scheme of extension of agricultural courses was implemented in 1953-54 with the primary object of providing scientific and supervised field training in extension methods and techniques. This scheme, now financed by the Government of Maharashtra, was financed by the Ford Foundation in the initial stages. The Development Block of 50 villages attached to the extension wing, in fact serves as the field laboratory for college students who learn and practise the extension methods taught to them. The College

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Farm extends over an area of 99·225 hectares (245 acres). Besides, the College has 24·300 hectares (60 acres) of cultivated land at Telankhedi under its jurisdiction. The dairy unit consists of 156 heads of cattle.

PESTS.

A brief account of various pests of crops is given in the following paragraphs. The extent of damage caused by them cannot be gauged accurately as it depends upon the severity of infestation in a particular year.

Of Cereals
Chilo Zonellus.

Jowar stem borer *Chilo zonellus*, Swinh causes considerable damage to *kharif* and *rabi* jowar. This pest also affects the maize crop. Caterpillars bore inside the stems causing the drying of central shoots called 'dead hearts'. This results in reddening of leaves and stems, the extent of damage being four or five per cent. Summer jowar is found to be heavily infested by this pest.

As the borers are internal feeders, only preventive measures are practicable. Affected plants are pulled out along with caterpillars inside them and promptly destroyed. After harvest, stubbles are collected and burnt so as to destroy the hibernating larvae.

Aphis Gossypii.

Aphids (*Aphis gossypii*, Glover) is another pest of jowar. Nymphs and adults suck the sap from stubbles with the result that empty earheads are produced.

Spraying the crop with nicotine sulphate at the rate of one pound in 36.400 litres (80 gallons) of water with 2.265 kilograms (5 lbs.) of soap is quite effective. Spraying pyrethrum extract in the proportion of one part in 1,000 parts of water also gives satisfactory results.

Spodoptera Maurita.

The swarming caterpillar (*Spodoptera mauritia*, Boisd) affects paddy, jowar and other cereals. Immediately on hatching, caterpillars feed on grass or young paddy seedlings. They are active only at night, whereas during the day they hide in leaf sheaths or leaf whorls or in soil if it is not flooded. They are in the habit of migrating and hence they ravish field after field.

Preventive measures include protection of seed-beds by deep trenching with steep sides and hand collection of egg masses and their destruction. Trapping them under planks or small bunches of dry grass may be tried during the day when they hide under clods. Dragging a rope across the field is usually resorted to, after flooding the affected fields so that caterpillars in the leaf sheaths and whorls drop in water. After the harvest of the crop, affected fields are ploughed to expose the pupae. The pest can also be successfully controlled by dusting five per cent Benzene Hexachloride (BHC) at the rate of 9.060 (20 lbs.) to 13.590 kilograms (30 lbs.) per acre. The dusting gives better results in the evening as the caterpillars come out to feed at night. Where rains are frequent, spraying BHC water dispersible powder by diluting 2.267 kg. (five lbs.) of 50 per cent BHC in 455.00 litres (100 gallons) of water, is tried. 273.00 to 455.00 litres (60 to 100 gallons) of spray per acre is used for effective control.

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Of Cereals.

Nymphula Depunctalis.

The rice case worms (*Nymphula depunctalis* Guen) is another pest of the paddy crop. The caterpillars cut the paddy leaves into short lengths, construct tubular cases and remain inside them while feeding. Hence the name 'case worm'. Preventive measures include removal and destruction of the tubular cases along with the caterpillars. Before flowering, rope dragging is tried to dislodge the caterpillars after flooding the infested field and putting into it a little crude oil. One part of pyrethrum extract in 600 parts of water or 0·375 per cent D.D.T. spray obtained by mixing 3.171 to 3.624 kilograms (7-8 lbs.) of 50 per cent water dispersible powder in 455.00 litres (100 gallons) of water, shows satisfactory results.

Sesamia Inferena Wlk.

Wheat stem borer (*Sesamia inferena* Wlk) is a pest which causes damage to *rabi* crop of wheat. It also affects maize in the dry weather. On hatching, the young caterpillars enter the stem and gradually kill the central shoot of the plant, thus creating 'dead hearts'. If the plants are grown up, the earheads are also liable to damage.

As the pest is an internal feeder, preventive measures are found impracticable. Roguing of affected plants in the early stage of infestation and their prompt destruction together with the caterpillars inside them, helps control the disease. After harvest, the stubbles are collected and burnt so as to destroy the hibernating larvae.

Heliothis armigera obsolata.

Gram pod borer (*Heliothis armigera obsolata*) destroys the crop of gram. Caterpillars feed on tender foliage and young pods. They bore pods, insert anterior half portion of their body inside pods and eat the developing grains inside them. The pest is active from November to March.

Caterpillars are handpicked and destroyed in the first stage of infestation as a preventive measure. Thorough ploughing after the harvest helps to expose the pupae. The pest can be controlled by 0.2 per cent D.D.T. spray obtained by diluting 0.453 kilograms (one lb.) of 50 per cent water dispersible D.D.T. powder in 113·75 litres (25 gallons) of water. Sixty to eighty gallons of spray is sufficient for a young crop and hundred gallons for a grown-up crop.

Tur plume moth (*Exelustes atomosa*) affects crops of *tur* and *wal*. Full-grown caterpillars bore into green pods and feed on developing seeds. On hatching, they scrape the surface of pods, gradually cut holes and feed on seeds.

Caterpillars are collected by shaking shoots and pods in small trays containing a mixture of kerosene and water. Similarly, as a preventive measure, leguminous crops are not taken in the same fields during successive years.

Of Sugarcane.
Chilotrea infuscatellus S.

Sugarcane stem borer (*Chilotrea infuscatellus* S.) is mainly injurious to young cane. Caterpillars enter plants from the side at ground level by making holes in the stalk and bore downwards or upwards or both ways. The central shoots dry up causing 'dead hearts', the characteristic sign of presence of the pest within plants.

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Of Sugarcane.

Control measures include removal of 'dead hearts' from the ground level, ensuring that larvae or pupae has come out in the portion removed. Plants so removed are either fed to cattle or buried deep in the ground. Early planting in November or December of plant cane and late planting in August or September of Adsali cane also helps to minimise the infestation. Trichogramma parasites are released at a rate of one lakh per acre in three instalments at an interval of a fortnight in the infested field. Light earthing up of cane and closing holes with mud is also resorted to, to prevent emergence of moth.

Scirpophaga nivella F.

The sugarcane top shoot borer (*Scirpophaga nivella* F.) is a very serious pest of sugarcane that breeds throughout the year and is capable of attacking cane in a mature stage. The newly hatched caterpillar first enters the mid-rib of the leaf and bores downwards into the shoot from the top. This causes punctures on leaves and results in giving off side shoots which form a bunchy top.

Collection and destruction of egg-masses and removal of affected plants are the only effective measures known so far. Conservation of egg parasites with the help of boxes may also be tried. Among other measures may be mentioned harvesting of crop, not by cutting at ground level but by digging out the stumps of canes. Large scale campaign to collect and destroy the egg-masses of the top shoot borer are undertaken. Two light earthings up are given during the early stages of the crop.

Pyrilla perpusila.

The sugarcane leaf hopper (*Pyrilla perpusila*) causes considerable damage to the crop. Adults and young ones suck plant sap from the leaves and devitalise them. Damaged leaves look pale, sickly and turn black due to the growth of black fungus on them. The fungus grows on the sweet liquids that the young ones and adults secrete. This is principally the pest of sugarcane but adults are sometimes found in small numbers on jowar and maize.

Of cotton.

Worms.

Boll worms, a pest of cotton, are of two types, *viz.,* spotted boll worms (*Earias fabia* S.E. *insulana* B.) and pink boll worms (*Pectinophora gossypiella,* S.) The caterpillars of the spotted boll worms bore into growing shoots of the plants in the initial stage of the crop. Later, when flower buds appear, larvae bore into them and enter bolls by making holes which are plugged by them with excreta. Infested buds and bolls are shed but they remain on the plant. Bolls open prematurely as a result of which lint is affected and fetches a low price in the market.

Unlike the spotted boll worms, the caterpillars of the pink boll worms never attack shoots but feed inside the bolls and cause them to drop down. The pest is more harmful to American cotton varieties than to Indian ones. They bore holes and plug them. This makes it difficult to spot out the affected bolls until they drop down.

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Of Cotton.

Boll Worms.

The following are the main control measures of this pest:—

(1) Removal and destruction of stubbles to check carryover of the pest to the next season.

(2) Destruction of all malvaceous plants growing in the off season which serve as alternate hosts for the pest.

(3) Fumigation of seed before sowing with carbon-di-sulphide at the rate of two ounces per 0.420 cubic metres (15 cubic feet) or heating the seed at 62·8°C. (145°F) to destroy hibernating pink boll larvae.

(4) Quick removal and destruction of the affected parts of plants in the early stage of pest incidence.

(5) Six dustings with a mixture of 10 per cent D.D.T., two per cent lindane and 40 per cent sulphur or with one per cent endrin dust.

(6) Six sprayings, at fortnightly intervals with endrin at the rate of six ounces per acre, commencing from a month prior to flowering. Sulphur is added to this mixture in equal quantity to avoid subsequent mite incidence.

Dysdercus singulatus Fabr.

Red cotton bug (*Dysdercus singulatus* Fabr.) is another pest of cotton. Adults and nymphs suck plant sap and greatly impair their vitality. Besides, they also feed on seeds and lower their oil content. Lint is soiled by the excreta of these insects. Infected seeds are rendered useless for sowing.

Adults and nymphs can be collected in large numbers by shaking them in a tray containing mixture of water and a little quantity of kerosene. In case the pest becomes serious, which rarely happens, the crop may be treated with five per cent Benzene Haxachloride.

Empoasaca devastans, Dist.

Jassids (*Empoasaca devastans,* Dist.) causes considerable damage to cotton. Adults and nymphs suck the cell sap from leaves as a result of which leaves turn yellowish at the margins. When there is excessive infestation, etiolation and drying up of leaves takes place which is followed by stunted growth of plants. Jassid infestation is less on Asiatic varieties due to their relative resistance to jassid attack.

Spraying the crop with five per cent D.D.T. at the rate of 6.795 to 9.060 kg. (15 to 20 lbs.) per acre is found effective. However, sulphur is mixed with D.D.T. in equal proportion as the spray of D.D.T. alone leads to excessive increase in aphid and/or mite population. But D.D.T. and sulphur mixture is not sprayed on Indian or Asiatic cotton as sulphur scorches these varieties severely. D.D.T. and sulphur mixture is safe on American varieties which are also more prone to jassid attack. A combined 0.2 per cent spray of 50 per cent water dispersible D.D.T. and sulphur (also water dispersible) is very effective against jassids. Another cheaper and also effective mixture consists of 0.01 per cent to 0.02 per cent parathion. Spray of two ounces or four ounces of endrin is also resorted to.

Aphis gossypii, Glover.

Nymphs and adults of aphids (*Aphis gossypii, Glover*) suck the cell sap from the leaves due to which they turn yellowish and dry. Spraying with nicotine sulphate at the rate of 0·453 kilograms (one

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Of Cotton.

pound) in 364·00 litres (80 gallons) of water mixed with 2·265 kilograms (five pounds) of soap is quite effective. Spray of pyrethrum extract in the proportion of one part in 1,000 parts of water also gives satisfactory results. Spraying the crop with fish oil rosin soap at the rate of eight ounces in four gallons of water is also resorted to. About 364·00 to 455·00 litres (80 to 100 gallons) are required to spray an acre of land.

Of Groundnut. *Aphids.*

Aphids are an important pest as it reduces the vitality and yield of plants by sucking the sap. It also acts as vector of a serious virus disease commonly known as "Rosette" of groundnut. Spray of 10 per cent Benzene Hexachloride helps control the pest.

Of Fruits. *Mango jassid hopper.*

Mango jassid hoppers (*Indiocerus*) causes damage to mango and *chikoo*. Nymphs and adults suck young leaves and flowers of trees. As a result flower withers and drops down without bearing fruit. They also secrete a sugary substance called honeydew which later permits development of sooty mould and thus imparts a black appearance to plants.

The pest is effectively controlled by the applications of five per cent D.D.T. sulphur dust mixed in the proportion of 1:1 or 1:2. Initial dusting is given after the first flush of flowering is complete, generally by middle of December. Second dusting follows after about two weeks only if the infestation continues.

Citrus shoot and bark borer.

Citrus shoot and bark borer causes damage to guava, citrus fruits, pomegranates, mangoes and casuarina. Freshly hatched larvae bores into stems and bark. It moves in a gallery made of powdered bark and silk, feeds on the bark and enters the stem. As a result of this, tree puts on a sickly appearance and ultimately withers. Pest can be detected by the appearance of frass on the bark.

Injecting borer solution containing two parts of carbon disulphide with one part each of chloroform and creotsote is found to control effectively the larvae of borer. Before injecting the solution, galleries and webbings are to be scraped off and live burrows ascertained.

Fruit sucking moth.

Moths generally puncture *rinds* of all varieties of citrus. However, in this region the damage is particularly serious on grape fruits and mosambi. Moths not only cause direct damage to citrus fruit but through their feeding provide inroads for bacterial attack which causes the fruit to rot early.

This is a very difficult pest to control. Adults of moths have not been found to be controlled by insecticides. Hence, bagging of fruits is at present the only reliable method of control. Attracting moths to fermented poison baits and to torches and then to kill them are also other methods of detection and control of the pest. Removal of wild hosts of caterpillars also helps to reduce damage.

CROP DISEASES.

In addition to the damage done by pests, the crops suffer from various diseases. The following are the important diseases of various crops in Nagpur district.

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CROP DISEASES.

Of Cereals. *Kani, Kajali.*

Spacelotheca sorghi, locally known as *kani* or *danekani,* and *spacelotheca cruciata,* locally called kajali are smuts of jowar. These are responsible for extensive damage to jowar crop in the district. The disease *kani* cannot be recognised until the ears come out. The diseased earheads do not form normal grains and in place of grains, black masses are formed. These black masses are called 'sori' and contain black powder which consists of millions of spores of the fungus. Threshing together of diseased and healthy earheads is the source of infection. It attacks *kharif* crop in September-November and *rabi* crop in December-February. The present method of controlling it is by treating the seed with 200-300 mesh fine sulphur at the rate of one ounce of sulphur to 6.795 kilograms (15 lbs.) of seed.

The symptoms of *kajali* are pretty nearly the same at those of *kani* or *danekani* with the difference that wall of sorus gets ruptured and black mass of powder is exposed which gives blackish appearance to the earheads. The period of its occurrence and the method of controlling it are the same as those of *kani.* Removal and destruction of affected earheads also helps to check the disease to some extent.

Tikkya.

Tikkya piricularia oryzae is the paddy blast. This disease has assumed serious proportions in the district, especially in the heavy rainfall tracts. When severe, it is reported to cause damage to the extent of 46 to 75 per cent. It attacks seedling between July and August and the grown-up crop between September and November. The disease appears on leaves, necks and nodes of ears. On leaves it manifests as spindle-shaped spots with grey-white centres and purple red margins. These spots gradually collapse and the leaves ultimately wither. The nodes and necks begin to blacken when earheads are affected and this results in sterility leaving the ears without grains. Infected seed areas and affected debris are the source of infection. The following schedule is recommended to control the disease: (1) Treating the seed with organo mercurial seed-dresser containing one per cent organic mercury at the rate of one ounce to 11.325 kg. (25 lbs.) of seed. (2) Dipping seedlings, before they are transplanted, in Bordeaux mixture 3.3.50. (3) One or two sprayings of Bordeaux mixture 3:3:50 till flowering. Any copper compound preferably copper oxychloride containing 50 per cent metallic copper could also be used for the purpose. (4) Sowing blast resistant varieties like early Ambemohor 39, Kolhapur scented Patni-6, Bhadas-78, Krishnasal-10 and Antarsal-90, 67 and 200.

Karpa.

Karpa or *Xanthomonas oryzae* is a bacterial parasite occurring on paddy seedlings in July and on grown-up crop between August and October. The loss caused by the parasite is estimated to be of the order of 10 to 20 per cent. The typical symptom of the disease is appearance of black angular lesions on leaves, drying of tips, margins and ultimately the entire leaf. The disease enhances as soon as new leaves and tillers are formed. The ears in general show dying appearance. Seeds from infected areas and affected debris are the source of infection. Spraying the crop every fortnight with copper compound having 50 per cent metallic copper is practised to control the disease.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

CROP DISEASES.

Of Cereals.

Tambera or Haldya

Puccinia graminis tritici, locally known as *tambera, haldya* or *gerwa* is the stem rust of wheat. It is by far the most destructive disease of wheat and when it is severe, causes damage to the tune of 60 per cent to 75 per cent of the crop. The disease manifests itself in the form of reddish brown elongated linear eruptive spots known as postules mostly on stem and also on leaves, leaf-sheaths and awns, etc., in the early part of the season. When these postules are rubbed by a thumb, a brownish red powder smears the thumb. The reddish brown powder contains spores called uredospores. Later in the season, these reddish brown postules change their colour and become black. These black postules contain blackish powder consisting of spores called toleutospores meaning last spores. As the name signifies, this stage appears when the crop is about to mature. On account of the black colour of the powder in the postules, the disease is also known as black stem rust. This is active during November and February. Spores carried by wind and rain constitute the main source of infection.

Growing of resistant varieties like Kenphad-25, MHD 345, KCN, selection-62 and 146, and Hybrid 65 for irrigated crop and selection-59 and 125 for dry crop is followed as a control measure.

Kani or *Kajali.*

Kani or *Kajali, ustilago tritici* is a loose smut of wheat. It affects the crop between January and March and causes damage to the extent of about five per cent. The disease appears when the ears turn blackish. Every part of the ear except the rachis and awns gets affected and a loose blackish powder is formed in place of grains. This blackish powder consists of the spores of the fungus. Infected seeds and the black mass of powder are blown by the wind to the adjacent fields when the crop is in flowering stage. This spreads the infection. The infection being inside the seed, dressing them with fungicides is ineffective and hence a special method is evolved which is as under.

The seeds are soaked in cold water from 8 a.m. to 12 noon some time during the first fortnight of May. The seeds are then spread on galvanised iron sheets in hot sun for about four hours. The seeds are stirred occasionally. Subsequently the seeds are thoroughly dried in the shade and stored in the gunny bags. These gunny bags are dusted with insecticides like pyrethrum, D. D. T. and B. H. C. (Benzene hexachloride) powders.

Of Cotton.

Mar.

The wilt, locally known as *mar* or *ubhal, fusarium oxysporium,* is an important disease of cotton in Nagpur district. When the infestation is severe it causes damage to the extent of 60 per cent to 75 per cent of the crop. It affects the seedlings of *kharif* crop in July-August and the grown-up crop in October-November. The typical symptoms are yellowing of leaves followed by dropping, drying, shedding, etc., of leaves. When the wilt is severe the entire plant dies. Yellowing of leaves progresses from the lowermost leaves to the topmost leaves. The affected leaves droop down, dry or fall off even at the slightest touch. If the disease occurs in the seedling stage of the crop, the tips of the shoots also drop down. Very soon the entire plant withers. The affected

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CROP DISEASES.

Of Cotton.

Mar.

plant when split open through the tap root and stem shows a brown discoloration of the vascular cylinder. In case of partial wilting, the plant shows a stunted appearance and gives less yield and a poor quality cotton. The disease is caused by a fungus parasite *fusarium oxysporium F vasinfectum* which is viable in the soil for a number of years and can infect the plant through the roots. It is controlled by growing disease resistant varieties, such as Daulat 2204, G. 46, etc., among others.

Kavadi.

Another disease of cotton is *kavadi.* It appears on seedlings in July and on balls in October-November. In the former case it causes damage to the extent of 25 per cent to 50 per cent while in the latter about 15 per cent to 20 per cent. The typical symptoms of this disease are that on seedlings, it appears as seedling rot, collar rot and damping off and on matured crop it affects boll rot of unopen bolls resulting in development of short, weak, immature and discoloured lint.

Infected seed and affected plant debris provide source of infection. The disease is controlled by burning the affected debris, sowing of healthy seeds and finally treating the seed with organo mercurial seed dresser containing one per cent organic mercury at the rate of two ounces to 6·795 kilograms (15 lbs.) of seed.

Dahiya.

The gray mildew of cotton, locally known as *Dahiya* or *Dahya* is roughly estimated to cause damage to the extent to 15 per cent to 25 per cent. The disease occurs between September and November. Small grayish white spots on the under-surface of the leaves look like spots of curds. Hence the disease is called *Dahiya* or *Dahya.* When severe these specks are found on both the sides of leaves as also on the bracts of bolls. The affected leaves shed in large numbers and the plants become weak. This prevents formation of new bolls and the lint in the remaining bolls proves to be of inferior quality. The disease is caused by a fungus parasite *ramularia areola.* It can be controlled by dusting an acre of field with 6·795 to 9·060 kilograms (15 to 20 lbs.) of 200-300 mesh fine sulphur by the middle of August. Dusting should be completed by the end of first week of September. If necessary, another dusting is also given in October.

TENANCY AND TENURES.

At the time of reorganisation of the then Bombay State there was no uniformity as regards the systems of tenancy and tenures. The Malguzari system which was the prevalent system of tenure and tenancy in Nagpur district was highly undesirable. It had very bad economic as well as social implications. Hence, it was found to be incompatible with the economic system of a Welfare State. The Government, therefore, sought to bring the land tenancy systems in the Vidarbha region in line with the progressive land legislation already initiated in the old Bombay State. The Government, therefore, decided to secure uniformity in the matter of policy and principles on which the land legislation is based. While the objective was to bring general uniformity, complete uniformity was not sought to be brought in.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region and Kutch Area) Act, 1958, which came into force on 30th December 1958, tries to bring about peasant proprietorship, removing all intermediaries and enabling the tenant to be an occupant of the land he cultivates. It also limits the holdings of agriculturists in order to achieve an equitable distribution of agricultural land. Prior to this Act, the provisions of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954, were in force in Vidarbha region.

In the old Madhya Pradesh areas settlement was done on the basis of proprietary rights. The confermem of proprietary rights on Malguzars interposed between Government and the actual tillers of the soil, a body of persons whose interests often came in conflict with those of the latter. Hence, the need to protect the tenant class soon became apparent. In 1920, a new consolidating and amending Act was enacted known as the Central Provinces Tenancy Act, 1920. Under the Act, three classes of tenants were recognised, viz., (1) Absolute occupancy tenants, (2) Occupancy tenants and (3) Sub-tenants. The first two classes of tenants enjoyed fixity of tenure as well as rent. They were entitled to become *Malik-Makbuzas* on payment of a certain premium. Their rights were also transferable and heritable. The sub-tenants were, however, not given any special protection or rights. Until 1950, the tenancy laws in force in the Vidarbha region were intended only for the protection of tenants holding lands on lease in alienated areas.

There was a revolutionary change when the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals, Alienated Lands) Act, 1950 came into force. Under this Act, the lands held by absolute occupancy tenants, occupancy tenants and ante-alienation tenants, etc., vested in Government and consequently these tenants became lessees of Government. The Act also conferred on them a right to become owner of land on payment of certain multiples of rent as premium. This provision was later on repealed by the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 wherein the absolute occupancy tenants and other categories of tenants referred to above were recognised as '*Bhumiswamis*' or '*Bhumidharis*' of the lands held by them.

After the coming into force of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 there were only two types of tenants in Nagpur district, (a) occupancy tenants including lessees who before coming into force of this Code were occupancy tenants or *Malik-Makbuzas* and who were declared as occupancy tenants under the provision of Section 169 (2) of the Code, and (b) ordinary tenants under Section 166 of the Code. Under Chapter XIV of the Code, the occupancy tenants enjoyed special protection and rights including fixity of tenure and right to purchase the land. The ordinary tenants had, however, no fixity of tenure or protection against rack-renting nor had they or the protected

lessees any right of purchase. Soon after the reorganisation of States it was felt necessary to have a comprehensive legislation for securing the rights of tenants. Therefore, an ordinance, viz., the Bombay Vidarbha Region Agricultural Tenants (Protection from Eviction and Amendment of Tenancy Laws) Ordinance, 1957 was promulgated in order to safeguard the tenants from eviction by their landlords. Subsequently, it was replaced by the Act No. IX of 1958.

The current tenancy Act (No. XCIX of 1958) known as the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region and Kutch Area) Act, came into force on 30th December 1958. This Act repeals Chapter XIV of Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 and Act IX of 1958. In the new Act, the terms "land" and "agriculture" are defined afresh and pursuits allied to agriculture have been recognised separately. This Act has a wider scope than the old tenancy laws in respect of rent, termination of tenancies, inheritance of tenancy rights, etc. It provides for the compulsory purchase of lands by tenants with effect from 1st April 1961. Subsequent amendment provides for purchase of land by the tenant on payment of purchase price to be decided by revenue courts. It also introduces new provisions such as those in regard to family holdings and ceiling areas as contemplated by the Maharashtra Agricultural Lands (Ceiling on Holdings) Act, 1961. Thus, it prevents a person from holding land beyond the prescribed ceiling limit either as a tenant or as a landlord and consequently the abolition of Malguzari is accomplished for ever. It has foreseen the effects of the Ceilings on Holdings Act and has provided for the distribution and management of surplus lands.

The Act, however, has not prevented the holders of small lands requiring their lands for personal cultivation claiming their lands from the tenants provided two conditions are satisfied: (1) the principal source of income of the person claiming land is agricultural pursuits, (2) the tenant dispossessed of the land is not rendered landless. Similarly, the Act does end to voluntary surrender of lands. However, the new provision requires surrender of land to be verified by the concerned Tahsildar. This acts as a sort of check and prevents landlords from obtaining their lands either by the use of force or inducements. The previous procedure adopted in the district, prior to the implementation of this Act, for payment of rents in terms of crop share or service (personal labour) has been discontinued and limits placed on payment of rents. The new system envisages to putting an end to the exploitation of tenants. The Act has anticipated consequent hardships which may be caused to widows or disabled persons and has sought to protect their interests. Exemptions from the provisions of the Act have been granted in favour of industrial and commercial undertakings, cultivation of garden crops, sugarcane, coffee plantations and municipal areas. It gives a fair opportunity to both the tenants

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and the landlords for revision of rent if any improvement is subsequently effected or for reduction of the same if any loss is caused due to unforeseen circumstances.

Though in the beginning some difficulties were experienced in the implementation of the Act they were sought to be removed through subsequent amendments to it. The main objective of the Government behind the enforcement of this Act was to remove the intermediary class of Malguzars and to make tillers of the soil the owners thereof. However, in so doing, the natural rights of the owners of land regarding receiving compensation in lieu of their lands occupied by tenants or by the Government itself securing them as surplus lands, was kept unaffected. Thus they were allowed to receive reasonable compensation.

The Planning Commission had before it the two-fold objective of exploiting the available land to the maximum possible extent and to maximise the yields therefrom but at the same time securing permanently the rights of the tillers in the land they cultivated. While implementing Land Legislation many important considerations, such as, achieving the targets laid down under the Five-Year Plans, bringing about balanced economic development of the masses, ensuring social justice to the labourers, etc., have to be kept in view. By the introduction of Act No. XCIX of 1958, the long established class of Malguzars was abolished for ever.

RURAL WAGES.

Casual Labour.

Cultivators in Nagpur district employ casual labourers when there is a heavy load of work on the farm. The normal practice prevalent throughout the district is to pay daily wages of casual labourers in cash but the system of paying them in kind was also prevalent. In the case of casual labourers, cash wages are not generally supplemented by wages in kind. The daily wages of a male labourer in Nagpur district varied between Re. 0.75 and Rs. 1.50, though the common rate of wages paid to male labourer was Re. 1.00. Female labourers are usually paid at half the wage rate paid to male workers. Not much distinction was made between female labour and child labour so far as wages were concerned. The wage of a child labourer varied between Re. 0.50 and Rs. 1.50.

Casual labourers were sometimes paid in kind, the payment being made in terms of foodgrains. A male labourer receives between four seers* and eight seers of grains for his day's work. Likewise, a female labourer gets between three seers and six seers of grains and a child between two seers and four seers of grains. The following table shows rates of daily wages of casual labour (male, female, and child) in Nagpur district in 1938-39, 1948-49 and 1958-59.

* One seer = 80 tolas.

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RURAL WAGES.

Casual Labour.

TABLE No. 25.

RATES OF DAILY WAGES OF CASUAL LABOUR IN NAGPUR DISTRICT

Tahsil	1938-39 (Pre-war)					
	Male		Female		Child	
	Cash	Kind	Cash	Kind	Cash	Kind
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Nagpur ..	Re. 0·61 to 0·75	3·732 kgs. (4 seers) of Jowar	Re. 0·19	..	Re. 0·19	..
Katol ..	0·19 to 0·25	2·799 to 3·732 kgs. (3 to 4 seers) of Jowar.	0·12	1·866 kgs. (2 seers of Jowar).	0·06	..
Umrer ..	0·50 to 0·56	..	0·12 to 0·19	..	0·12	..
Ramtek ..	0·19	..	0·06	..	0·06	..
Saoner ..	0·50	2·332 kgs. (2½ seers) of Jowar.	0·25	..	0·25	..

Tahsil	1948-49 (Post-war)					
	Male		Female		Child	
	Cash	Kind	Cash	Kind	Cash	Kind
(1)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Nagpur ..	Re. 1·00	3·732 kgs. (4 seers) of Jowar.	Re. 0·25	..	Re. 0·25	..
Katol ..	0·75 to 1·00	2·799 to 3·732 kgs. (3 to 4) seers of Jowar.	0·50	1·866 kgs. (2 seers) of Jowar.	0·25	
Umrer ..	0·62 to 0·75	..	0·31 to 0·37	..	0·19 to 0·25	..
Ramtek ..	0·50	..	0·31	..	0·12	..
Saoner ..	1·00	..	0·37	..	0·37	..

Tahsil	1958-59					
	Male		Female		Child	
	Cash	Kind	Cash	Kind	Cash	Kind
(1)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
Nagpur ..	Re. 1·00	..	Re. 0·62	..	Re. 0·62	..
Katol ..	1·25 to 1·50	2·799 to 3·732 kgs. (3 to 4) seers of Jowar.	0·87	1·866 kgs. (2 seers) of Jowar.	0·50	..
Umrer ..	1·00 to 1·25	..	0·50 to 0·62	..	0·25 to 0·37	..
Ramtek ..	1·50		1·50		0·50	
Saoner ..	1·25	..	0·50	..	0·50	..

The comparative rates of daily wages paid to casual labourers as presented in the above table reveal that during pre-war period between Re. 0.06 and Re. 0.19. The wages of child labour were almost on par with those of female labour. The rates of wages (1938-39), a man earned between Re. 0.19 and Re. 0.75, a woman

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prevailing in Nagpur tahsil were the highest in the district. The rates of wages showed a steady increase during post-war period (1948-49) when a man earned between Re. 0.50 and Re. 1.00, a woman between Re. 0.25 and Re. 0.50 and child labour between Re. 0.19 and Re. 0.37. The rates of wages prevailing in 1958-59 represented further improvement. Thus a man was paid between Re. 1.00 and Rs. 1.50, woman between Re. 0.50 and Rs. 1.50 and a child worker between Re. 0.25 and Re. 0.62.

Wages according to operations.

The rates of wages for agricultural operations such as operating implements, harvesting of grains, threshing of grains, etc., are presented in the table below:—

TABLE No. 26.

DAILY WAGES ACCORDING TO AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

(Amount in Rs. and paise)

Tahsil	1938-39 (Pre-war)		
	Operating Implements (ploughing, harrowing, sowing, carting, etc.)	Harvesting of grains	Threshing of grains
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Nagpur ..	3·752 kgs. (4 seers of Jowar) 2·799 kgs. (3 seers of Wheat)	3·732 kgs. (4 seers of Jowar) 2·799 kgs. (3 seers of Wheat)	3·732 kgs. (4 seers of Jowar) 2·799 kgs. (3 seers of Wheat)
Katol ..	Ploughing and sowing 125 Harrowing 1·00 Carting 1·00	2·799 to 3·732 kgs. (3 to 4 seers of Jowar) 1·399 to 1·866 kgs. (1½ to 2 seers of Wheat).	..
Umrer ..	0·50 to 0·56 ..	0·12 to 0·19 ..	0·44 to 0·56
Ramtek ..	0·19 ..	0·50 ..	0·25
Saoner ..	0·50 ..	0·25 ..	4·665 kgs. (5 seers of grain)

(Amount in Rs. and paise)

Tahsil	1948-49 (Post-war)		
	Operating Implements (ploughing, harrowing, sowing, carting, etc.)	Harvesting of grains	Threshing of grains
(1)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Nagpur ..	3·732 kgs. .. (4 seers of Jowar) 1·866 kgs. (2 seers of Wheat)	3·732 kgs. .. (4 seers of Jowar) 1·866 kgs. (2 seers of Wheat)	3·732 kgs. (4 seers of Jowar) 1·866 kgs. (2 seers of Wheat)
Katol ..	Ploughing 3·00 .. Harrowing 2·50 Sowing 3·25 Carting 2·50	*Jowar 3 to 4 seers of Jowar *Wheat 1·399 to 1·866 kgs. 1½ to 2 seers of Jowar	..
Umrer ..	0·62 to 0·75 ..	0·31 to 0·62 ..	0·62 to 0·75
Ramtek ..	1·00 ..	0·62 ..	1·25
Saoner ..	1·00 ..	0·37 ..	6·998 kgs. (7½ seers of grain)

*Refers to Wheat or Jowar grains harvested.

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RURAL WAGES.

Wages according to operations.

TABLE No. 26 (*contd.*)

DAILY WAGES ACCORDING TO AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

(Amount in Rs. and paise)

Tahsil	1958-59		
	Operating Implements	Harvesting of grains	Threshing of grains
(1)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Nagpur ..	1·866 kgs. .. (2 seers of Jowar) 1·399 kgs. (1½ seers of Wheat)	1·866 kgs. .. (2 seers of Jowar) 1·3995 kgs. (1½ seers of Wheat)	1·866 kgs. (2 seers of Jowar) 1·399 kgs. (1½ seers of Wheat)
Katol ..	Ploughing 6·00 .. Harrowing 5·25 Sowing 6·00 Carting 5·00	*Jowar 2·799 to 3·732 kgs. (3 to 4 seers of Jowar). *Wheat 1·3995 to 1·866 kgs. (1½ to 2 seers of Jowar)	..
Umrer ..	1·00 to 1·25 ..	0·44 to 0·62 ..	1·00 to 1·25
Ramtek ..	1·50 ..	0·75 .	2·00
Saoner ..	1·25 ..	0·50 ..	9·330 kgs. (10 seers of grain).

Casual labour is engaged for performing specific operations such as operating implements (ploughing, harrowing, sowing, cart-driving, etc.), harvesting of grains, threshing of grain, etc. These require skill of a varying degree and labourers are paid in relation to the manual work and skill involved in each operation. The above table reveals that method of paying in cash and/or kind prevailed in Nagpur, Katol and Saoner tahsils only. In Umrer and Ramtek tahsils, payment was made in cash. Wages for operating implements varied between Re. 0.50 and Rs. 1.25 in cash and between 3 and 4 seers of jowar or wheat in kind, in 1938-39. In 1948-49 and 1958-59 wages in kind did not show material change, however, wages in cash rose substantially. For instance labourer engaged in Katol taluka for carting operations was paid Re. 1.00 in 1938-39, Rs. 2.50 in 1948-49 and Rs. 5.00 in 1958-59. Similarly, worker was paid Rs. 6.00 for sowing and harrowing in 1958-59.

Annual Servants.

Annual servants (*Saldars*) are employed in Nagpur district by those cultivators who can provide continuous and regular employment throughout the year. Traditionally, a *saldar* is at the disposal of the landlord practically for all the hours of the day and night for doing all types of farm work. The contract of employment between the worker and the landlord generally holds good for a period of one year. It can be renewed at the option of both the parties. The number of big landholders or those who practise intensive farming and need the services of *saldars* has been gradually on the decline in Nagpur district. Consequently, the

*Refers to wheat or jowar grains harvested.

system of maintaining annual servants is not much in vogue. Children are occasionally employed as *saldars* but women never. A *saldar* being in close personal touch with the landlord enjoys his confidence. As a result, he avails himself of facilities such as borrowing large sums of money from the landlord, etc. A *saldar* is provided with additional benefits such as provision of food, accommodation, shoes, turban, blanket, tobacco, etc., besides the annual payment. The following table shows payment to annual servants as obtaining in different tahsils of the district:—

TABLE No. 27.

PAYMENT TO ANNUAL SERVANTS (SALDARS) IN NAGPUR DISTRICT.

Tahsil	1938-39	1948-49	1958-59	Other facilities 1958-59
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Katol ..	559·800 kgs. (600 seers) of jowar and Rs. 25—30 per year.	559·800 kgs. (600 seers) of jowar and Rs. 75—100 per year.	559·800 kgs. (600 seers) of jowar and Rs. 175 — Rs. 220 per year.	9·330 kgs. (10 seers) grain of any kind at the time of Pola festival and 18·660 kgs. (20 seers) of jowar during every harvest.
Nagpur ..	46·650 kgs. (50 seers) of jowar per month and Rs. 60 per 0·453 hectare per year.	46·650 kgs. (50 seers) of jowar per month and Rs. 100—Rs. 125 per year.	55·980 kgs. (60 seers) of jowar per month and Rs. 175—Rs. 200 per year.	9·330 kgs. (10 seers) of jowar presented for Pola festival.
Ramtek ..	Rs. 60 per year.	Rs. 300 per year.	Rs. 425 per year.	..
Saoner ..	37·320 kgs. (40 seers) of jowar and Rs. 50 per year.	37·320 kgs. (40 seers) of jowar and Rs. 100 per year.	37·320 kgs. (40 seers) of jowar and Rs. 150 in cash.	..
Umrer ..	447·840 kgs. (480 seers) of grams and Rs. 25 per year.	559·800 kgs. (600 seers of grams and Rs. 50 per year.	559·800 kgs. (600 seers of grams and Rs. 100 per year.	..

The table reveals that *saldars* in Ramtek were paid in cash whereas in other tahsils the practice of combined payment in cash and kind was in existence. Another characteristic feature is that payment in kind almost stood at the same level in 1938-39, 1948-49 and 1958-59 whereas payment in cash represented a substantial change. Broadly, it will be seen that cash payments throughout the district were doubled in 1948-49 and trebled in 1958-59, as compared with those in 1938-39.

Some artisans of the village are actively connected with the agriculturist at various stages of farm operations. They are known as *balutedars* of the traditional village economy, who still survive though in a much less recognised form. Generally, they are paid annually in kind for the services they render to landholders. These *balutedars* include carpenter, blacksmith, cobbler, barber, washerman and other artisans like ropemaker, *mahars* and *mangs* (who do miscellaneous and odd jobs). Of these the first four play an important role in agricultural operations. Rates of annual payment to them are indicated in the table given below.

The system of *baluta* payment is gradually declining and there is a marked tendency to make payments in cash rather than in kind. The youngsters in artisans' families do not enter into *baluta* contracts. They prefer to perform their services independently and for cash rather than be tied down to landholders for payment in kind. The commodities given to *balutedars* by way of wages include food-grains like paddy, jowar, wheat and gram; cotton, chillis, *kadbi* (fodder) and *bhusa* (chaff). *Baluta* is usually paid at the time of harvest. In Nagpur district *balute* are commonly known as *Wanagi* or *Kamargi*.

TABLE No. 28.

RATES OF ANNUAL PAYMENT TO VILLAGE ARTISANS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT.

Tahsil	1938-39			
	*Sutar (Carpenter)	*Lohar (Blacksmith)	*Chambhar (Cobbler)	*Nhavi (Barber)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Katol ..	27·990 to 37·320 kgs. (30 to 40 seers of jowar).	27·990 kgs. (30 seers of jowar).	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of jowar). 9·330 kgs. (10 seers at each harvest).	9·330 kgs. (10 seers of jowar per cultivator).
Nagpur ..	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).
Ramtek ..	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).	9·330 kgs. (10 seers of grain).	9·330 kgs. (10 seers of grain).
Saoner ..	18·660 to 37·320 kgs. (20 to 40 seers of grain).	18·660 to 37·320 kgs. (20 to 40 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).
Umrer ..	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).	Rs. 2	Rs. 5	Rs. 4

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

RURAL WAGES.

Balutedars.

TABLE No. 28 (*contd.*)

RATES OF ANNUAL PAYMENT TO VILLAGE ARTISANS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT.

Tahsil	1948-49			
	Sutar (Carpenter)	Lohar (Blacksmith)	Chambhar (Cobbler)	Nhavi (Barber)
(1)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Katol ..	27·990 to 37·320 kgs. (30 to 40 seers of jowar).	27·990 kgs. .. (30 seers of jowar).	18·660 kgs. .. (20 seers of jowar). 9·330 kgs. (10 seers at each harvest).	9·330 kgs. (10 seers of jowar per cultivator).
Nagpur ..	18·660 kgs. .. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. .. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. .. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).
Ramtek ..	37·320 kgs. .. (40 seers of grain).	37·320 kgs. .. (40 seers of grain).	9·330 kgs. .. (10 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).
Saoner ..	37·320 kgs. .. (40 seers of grain).	37·320 kgs. .. (40 seers of grain).	37·320 kgs. .. (40 seers of grain).	37·320 kgs. (40 seers of grain)
Umrer ..	27·990 kgs. .. (30 seers of grain).	Rs. 4 ..	Rs. 7 ..	Rs. 5

Tahsil	1958-59			
	Sutar (Carpenter)	Lohar (Blacksmith)	Chambhar (Cobbler)	Nhavi (Barber)
(1)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Katol ..	27·990 to 37·320 kgs. (30 to 40 seers of jowar).	27·990 kgs. .. (30 seers of jowar).	18·660 kgs. .. (20 seers of jowar). 9·330 kgs. (10 seers at each harvest).	9·330 kgs. (10 seers of jowar per cultivator).
Nagpur ..	18·660 kgs. .. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. .. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. .. (20 seers of grain).	18·660 kgs. (20 seers of grain).
Ramtek ..	55·980 kgs. .. (60 seers of gram).	55·980 kgs. .. (60 seers of gram).	27·990 kgs. .. (30 seers of gram).	37·320 kgs. (40 seers of gram).
Saoner ..	46·650 kgs. .. (50 seers)	46·650 kgs. .. (50 seers)	37·320 kgs. .. (40 seers)	18·660 kgs. (20 seers)
Umrer ..	37·320 to 46·650 kgs. (40 to 50 seers)	37·320 to 46·650 kgs. (40 to 50 seers)	Rs. 12 ..	Rs. 12

*(1) *Sutar.*—For supplying and repairing carts and farm implements like Bakhar.

(2) *Lohar.*—For making iron mots, supplying and repairing farm implements made of iron and steel.

(3) *Chambhar.*—For repairing and supplying leather mots, shoes, chappal and whips.

(4) *Nhavi.*—For shaving cattle, shaving and hair-dressing adults and children and attending marriage ceremonies.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

FAMINES

Early Famines.*

Occurrence of famines is common in many parts of the country; though their frequency and extent of severity may vary from region to region.

The earliest famine in Nagpur district of which a record remains was that of 1818-19. The immediate cause was the failure of the monsoon followed by excessive rain in the cold weather. Acute distress and famine conditions prevailed, resulting in serious loss of life. Many of the poorer cultivators of Nagpur are said to have sold their children into slavery. In 1825-26, according to oral tradition, famine attended with loss of life occurred in Nagpur, and it is said that many people died after eating the cooked food doled out to them at the Raja's palace. The cause of the famine was a deficiency of rainfall. Grain was sold at 5.598 kgs. (6 seers) a rupee. In November 1831 there was heavy rain at the time when the autumn crops had been cut and gathered, but had not been threshed and harvested. The grain was severely injured, while the continuous rains prevented the spring sowings and caused such seed as had been sown to rot in the ground. The remains of the spring harvest were finally destroyed by blight. The outturn of both the harvests was very poor, and severe famine appears to have ensued for a period of 8 to 9 months. The price of grain rose to 7.4648 kgs. (8 seers) to the rupee in April 1832. Distress was acute and was not alleviated by any special demand for labour, while starving refugees from Berar and Khandesh flocked into the district. It was recorded that many people changed their caste to obtain food and parents sold their children for 4.530 kilograms (10 lbs.) of wheat. The death rate for the famine period was locally estimated at a fifth of the population. Cooked food was doled out by the Bhosle administration at Nagpur to 5,000 people daily, and alms houses were established at central places. Grain was distributed without interest from granaries at Nagpur, Chanda and Bhandara. The export of food stuffs was strictly forbidden, and a price was fixed for sale, pressure being directed to cause the holders of stocks of grain to retail them at fixed rates. In the city of Nagpur 5,000 persons are said to have died from want of food. On the whole, the Bhosle administration did as much as any native government would consider its duty towards the relief of its distressed subjects. In 1868 the rains ended abruptly a month before time, but an opportune shower in September saved the situation over the greater part of the country. Only slight distress was experienced in the district.

The Seasons from 1892 to 1896.

Abnormal rain fell in September and October 1892, and it was followed by excessive rainfall in the first three months of 1893 when 215.90 mm. (8½ inches) were received as against an average of 38.10 mm. (1½″). This caused rust in the wheat, but as the rain fell when the crops were ripening, the damage was not very serious and the wheat harvest was 75 per cent of the normal, while the

*The account of famines between 1818-19 and 1897 is taken from C. P. District Gazetteers, Vol. A, Nagpur District (1908).

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The seasons from 1892 to 1896.

autumn crops were excellent. In the autumn months of 1893, 406.4 mm. (16 inches) of rain was received as against an average of 279.4 mm. (11 inches); the sowings of the spring crops were delayed and the seedlings swamped. The climatic conditions in the cold wheather months were also unfavourable to these crops. The sky remained clouded and the atmosphere moist. Wheat and linseed were spoiled by rust and the pulses were destroyed by insects. Jowar gave an outturn of 90 per cent, and linseed of only 68 per cent. The total outturn was 83 per cent of the normal. The year 1894-95 brought no return of prosperity. Excessive rain 533.4 mm. as against 279.4 mm. (21 inches as against 11 inches in an average year) fell in the autumn of 1894, causing great damage to the autumn crops and greatly impeding the sowing and germination of the spring crops. Although the cold weather rainfall was normal, both the harvests were very poor. Jowar gave an outturn of 45 per cent, cotton of 30 per cent and linseed of 23 per cent the average harvest being 54 per cent of the normal. It is noticeable that this was worse than the harvest of the following or famine year, 1896-97 when the outturn was 67 per cent of the normal. Although the poorer classes felt the want of food, the distress did not become general and the people had sufficient sustaining power to tide over the difficulties. Famine conditions did not prevail in the district but the people were distinctly impoverished. The birth-rate was normal at 35 in 1894, and 34 per mille of population in 1895; but the death-rate increased to 38½ in 1894 and 35 in 1895 as against 25 in 1892 and 1893. The special feature of the cycle of wet years was that damage was done to the best lands, while the poorer cultivators did not suffer so much. In 1895-96 the autumn rains were very short, being only 114.30 mm. (4½ inches) as against an average of 279.4 mm. (11″). The monsoon however had been satisfactory up to the end of August and the autumn crops yielded excellently; the sowings of spring crops however were short and their yield deficient, wheat and gram each giving only half the normal harvest.

The Scarcity of 1897.

In 1896-97, a famine year, the monsoon rains were abundant and up to August prospects looked brilliant; but in the critical months of September and October, which determine to a great extent the nature of both the harvests, less than 63.5 mm. (2½ inches) were received, the result being the partial failure of the autumn harvest and a further shrinkage in the area sown with the cold-weather crops. This amounted to 208170.00 hectares (514,000 acres) in 1896-97 against 249075.00 hectares (615,000 acres) in 1894-95. Jowar and wheat, however, yielded fairly, and the all-round outturn was 67 per cent of the normal. The district thus escaped fairly easily as compared to most others and such distress as existed was due to the cumulative effect of a succession of bad years and was accentuated by the high prices resulting from the famine conditions prevailing over a large part of India. In September 1896, the price of jowar rose from 16.794 to 13.062 kgs. (18 to 14 seers), that of rice from 11.196 to 8.397 kilograms (12 to 9 seers), and that of wheat from 13.062 to 9.330 kgs. (14 to 10 seers) to the rupee. In addition a number of weavers had been thrown

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Early Famines.

The scarcity of 1897.

out of employment, owing to the year being Sinhasta or one in which Hindu marriages were forbidden. The people became alarmed and accused the dealers of having combined to raise prices. The Koshtis, always inclined to be turbulent, were joined by the lawless classes of the town and began looting the markets and grain shops. A riot developed, but was promptly suppressed by the aid of the military and the volunteers, and the ringleaders were severely punished. Slight disturbances broke out in other towns, following the example of Nagpur, but were soon put down. Towards the end of 1896 the usual migration of labourers occurred from Balaghat and Bhandara into Berar; but finding no work there, many of these wandered back into Nagpur, while other refugees came down from the north, where matters were much worse than in Nagpur. It was estimated that about 16,000 persons entered the district, of whom 4,000 settled here.

Statistics of relief and mortality.—Relief works were opened in November, but the distress was never very serious. Up-till January the number of works were quite insignificant and the maximum on all forms of relief was reached in May with 18,000 persons or 2½ per cent of the population. The circular road round Ambajhari was constructed and the Nagpur-Umrer, Umrer-Bhiwapur and Kalmeshwar-Katol roads were improved. Poor houses at Nagpur and Kamptee were opened by private subscription in the autumn of 1896, and were afterwards taken over by Government. Poor houses and kitchens were supported by private subscription at various other centres. Special relief was given to the weavers of Nagpur, Kamptee and Umrer, advances being made to middlemen who supplied thread to the workmen, while the cloth produced was purchased by Government. The net expenditure amounted to Rs. 80,000. The total expenditure on famine relief was Rs. 5 lakhs, and about a lakh was distributed from the Indian Charitable Fund. No revenue was suspended. The birth rate for 1897, showed no substantial decline, while the death rate was 50 per mille which was not exceptionally high. Prices reached their maximum in July and August 1897, when wheat was 8 seers and jowar 7.930 kgs. (8½ seers). There was a marked increase in both serious and petty offences against property, the number of cases of this category reaching 3,300 in 1897, as against about 1,500 in the two preceding years. The famine was accompanied by a scarcity of fodder and water, which caused a serious loss of cattle. The bulk of the mortality of stock occurred after the rains had set in, and was no doubt due to the famished and weakened animals surfeiting themselves on the new and damp grass which was unfit for consumption.

The Famine of 1900.

In the following year, i.e., 1897-98, a bumper harvest was reaped, but in 1898-99 there was no rain between the end of September and the hot weather, and though the autumn harvest was a good one, the spring crops were short. On the whole, however, the harvest was 92 per cent of normal. In 1899, April and May were cloudy and rainy and this was regarded as an ominous sign. The monsoon failed completely, the rainfall of the period June-August being only 279.4 mm. (11″) as against an average of 81.28

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The famine of 1900.

millimetres (32 inches) while from October to January none was received. The annual fall was less than a third of the average in each tahsil except Ramtek, where it was about a half. In spite of the scanty rainfall cotton and jowar gave 45 per cent of an average outturn and the Katol tahsil was not severely distressed. The other crops naturally failed completely. The Dongartal tract in the north and part of Umrer were most affected. Relief operations commenced from September and were developed in extent as the distress increased. Road works, kitchens and village relief were the three principal methods employed for supporting the destitute classes. Under the Public Works Department 11 camps in all were opened, and the highest number of workers was 39,000 the average being about 15,000. The Ambajhari, Telankhedi and Juma Talao tanks were deepened, and new roads were made from Nagpur to Bishnur, Patansaongi to Khapa and Bhiwapur to Pauni. Other roads were improved. The distribution of cooked food in kitchens commenced on a small scale and was gradually extended, till in the rains 213 kitchens were opened and 67,000 persons were provided with food. Village relief was also begun on a small scale in the Deolapar tract and the Umrer tahsil, and was gradually extended over the whole district during the hot weather and rains. The maximum number in receipt of cash doles was 12,000 in September. Help was given to weavers in the town on the same system as the one followed in 1897 but on a much more lavish scale, the total expenditure being Rs. 6½ lakhs, but in return for this, cloth of the nominal value of nearly the same amount was obtained. The total number of persons relieved increased gradually to 66,000 in the beginning of July, when it rose sharply to 90,000 at the end of July and 108,000 in August, this last figure being equivalent to 14 per cent of the population. The total famine expenditure was Rs. 19½ lakhs and the loss to Government on account of suspensions of revenue and forest and other concessions was about Rs. 7½ lakhs more. About Rs. 2 lakhs were distributed from the Indian Charitable Fund for the purchase of seed-grain, blankets and clothing.

Mortality and prices.—The mortality in 1900 was the highest on record for the district, being nearly 58 per mille, but there is no reason to suppose that any part of it was due to direct privation. But the inevitable results of exposure and unsuitable food especially in the case of children, which no efforts of Government could avert, lowered the physical condition of the people and made them an easy prey to the attacks of disease. The water-supply was insufficient and, therefore, necessarily polluted, and a fertile source of disease. The year was exceptionally unhealthy and the famine was accompanied by epidemics of plague, cholera, smallpox and malarial fever. The birth-rate was normal, indicating the absence of any marked physical deterioration. Although the supply of jowar fodder was fairly adequate, a quantity of this was exported, and the grass withered. Cattle suffered heavily from want of food and

water and the mortality amounted to about 36,000 head, being considerably higher than the average. Wheat averaged about 8.37 kilograms (9 seers) a rupee and jowar a little over 9.330 kilograms (10 seers) from September 1899 to October 1900. At the commencement of the famine an outbreak of petty offences against property occurred, but proved to be only temporary, and the number of cases of this class was less than 2,000 as against 3,000 in 1897.

1907-08 to 1921-22.

During the year 1907-08 the failure of the *rabi* crops was chiefly felt in Dongartal tract of Ramtek, between Kalmeshwar and Bazargaon in Nagpur, in the hilly portion north and west of Katol and in the hilly part of the Bela circle of Umrer. In all, suspensions amounting to nearly one lakh of rupees were given, Umrer having Rs. 36,000, Ramtek Rs. 21,000, Katol Rs. 21,000 and Nagpur Rs. 15,000. The situation, however, did not call for the declaration of a famine. In 1918-19 conditions were peculiar. The jowar and rice crops were everywhere poor. There was also hailstorm in some parts of Ramtek and in some villages of Umrer tahsil. But in spite of an appalling influenza epidemic and in spite of the fact that all foodgrains rose to five seers for rupee owing to widespread distress in other parts of India, the district came through without any serious difficulty. The excessive rains during 1919-20 damaged the jowar crops in the eastern half of the district. The crop also suffered due to cloudy weather at the flowering time. However, the high prices of cotton compensated for this loss and no suspension of land revenue was needed. A taccavi loan of Rs. 97,334 was distributed and the recovery of the arrears of Rs. 26,345 was suspended in the tahsils of Nagpur, Ramtek and Umrer. The taccavi loan of Rs. 1,679 was remitted. During 1920-21 and 1921-22 the prices of foodgrains rose high on account of the failure of crops for want of sufficient rains. There being a widespread clamour for work, scarcity relief works were opened on large scale and an expenditure of Rs. 42,027 was incurred on them. The value of the forest produce granted either free or at reduced rates was Rs. 2,092. Gratuitous relief and relief to weavers were also granted. The land revenue of Rs. 1,27,000 was suspended out of the current demand and taccavi loan of Rs. 42,100 was advanced.

1925-26 to 1932-33.

On account of successive damages to the *pan* (betel-leaf) crop due to cold waves, etc., remissions of land revenue as detailed below were sanctioned in the Ramtek tahsil during the years from 1925-26 to 1930-31.

Year		*Amount of remission* Rs.
1925-26	...	1,665
1926-27	...	1,573
1927-28	...	1,514
1928-29	...	946
1929-30	...	2,033
1930-31	...	1,532

1925-26 to 1932-33.

In 1931-32, the crops failed on account of excessive rains during September, October and November. The land revenue of Rs. 3,01,230 was suspended and Rs. 1,276 remitted out of the current demand. Taccavi loans amounting to Rs. 62,652 were also granted. The heavy rainfall of July damaged the crops of 1932-33. The river Kanhan and its tributaries were in high flood and the river-side crops suffered much. A flood relief fund was raised. Land revenue of Rs. 3.85,262 was suspended and Rs. 2,514 remitted out of the current demand. Out of arrears Rs. 2,73,679 were re-suspended and Rs. 4,318 remitted. Taccavi loan of Rs. 2,78,818 was advanced. The demand for taccavi was far more during the year than for many years in the past.

1933-34 to 1945-46.

During the years from 1933-34 to 1937-38 the condition of crops was bad due to either excessive or untimely rains. The outturn of cotton, the principal money crop, was far below normal. The following relief was granted:—

Year	Land Revenue-Current		Land Revenue-Arrears		Taccavi Loan Advanced
	Suspended	Remitted	Suspended	Remitted	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1933-34 ..	2,33,574	3,308	5,12,013	1,31,148	1,00,349
1934-35 ..	1,12,663	2,090	5,12,591	1,02,759	1,00,783
1935-36 ..	69,729	15,875	4,39,486	95,363	89,551
1936-37 ..	3,683	1,042	2,85,435	1,59,031	1,18,139
1937-38 ..	8,281	4,715	72,260	2,01,818	1,22,351

The continuous and heavy rains till October and the subsequent long break damaged both *kharif* and *rabi* crops of the year 1938-39. With a view to providing work for agricultural labourers five metal-breaking centres were opened in the Ramtek, Umrer and Katol tahsils and expenditure of Rs. 1,191 was incurred on them. The land revenue of Rs. 7,49,122 was suspended out of the annual demand and Rs. 38,887 re-suspended and Rs. 41,654 remitted out of arrears. Taccavi loan of Rs. 1,06,092 was distributed.

During the year 1939-40 the crops were not good. Rice suffered much for want of adequate rains. Land revenue of Rs. 685 was remitted out of the current demand and Rs. 3,00,260 re-suspended out of the arrears. Taccavi loans amounting to Rs. 42,332 were also advanced.

During the year 1940-41 *kharif* crop of 15 villages of the Ramtek tahsil failed. The land revenue of Rs. 864 was suspended out of the current demand and Rs. 59 re-suspended out of the arrears. Rs. 289 were remitted due to damages caused by

1933-34 to 1945-46.

hail-storms. During the year 1941-42 due to failure of crop, Rs. 48,729 were suspended out of the current demand and Rs. 922 re-suspended. A sum of Rs. 3,481 was remitted from the outstanding demand of Pan Bareja.

The suspension and remission of land revenue and taccavi distributed from 1942-43 to 1944-45 was as under:—

Year	Land Revenue		Taccavi loans advanced
	Remitted	Suspended	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1942-43	19,096	2,109	28,240
1943-44	10,672	..	1,86,462
1944-45	3	20,877	2,01,242
1945-46	..	..	1,74,129

The *rabi* crop of 1942-43 was considerably damaged by hail-storm in Bela Revenue Inspector's circle of Umrer tahsil, and Ramtek, Tharsa and Parseoni circles of Ramtek tahsil and remission of land revenue amounting to Rs. 19,096 was granted.

A sum of Rs. 10,672 out of *rabi kist* of 1943-44 was for the same reason remitted in Ramtek and Umrer tahsils. During 1944-45 land revenue amounting to Rs. 20,877 was suspended in Katol and Saoner tahsils because of damage caused by hail-storm. In 1945-46 there was no crop failure and no remission or suspension was granted.

1947 and after.

Famine conditions have not occurred in the district since 1947. One or the other part of the district had to face the situation of failure of crops either due to excessive rains or untimely and insufficient rains and suspensions of land revenue, etc., had to be ordered considering the nature and extent of loss. Besides, the people had the power to sustain the loss, for if one crop failed, others made good the loss.

CHAPTER 5—INDUSTRIES

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

ONE OF THE MAIN FACETS OF ECONOMIC LIFE of a country or part thereof is its industrial economy. The term balanced economy is often used in the context of underdeveloped economies implying a balance between the two important sectors of national economy, *viz.*, agriculture and industry. In a predominantly agricultural country like India, the agricultural sector is necessarily looked upon as a feeder to the industrial sector. However, in the ultimate analysis, both these sectors are viewed as complementary parts of the national economy. Therefore, a co-ordinated plan for agricultural and industrial development has to be chalked out so as to ensure a self-generating and self-sustaining economy. This objective of planning is clearly embodied in India's Five-Year Plans for economic development.

Industrial progress cannot be achieved easily as it is preconditioned by several factors, the important ones being availability of capital, industrial enterprise, labour, raw materials, speedy and efficient means of transportation and good markets. The study of the industrial growth of Nagpur shows that the district is endowed with many of the prerequisites for a sustained growth of industries. Nagpur occupies a central position on the country's map and is advantageously situated on the Bombay-Calcutta and the Delhi-Madras rail routes. Nagpur city, the district headquarters, is also air-linked with the major industrial and trade centres such as Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras. Nagpur district is blessed with excellent rail and road transport facilities. At the beginning of 1960 railways served 9.3322 km. (5.8 miles) per 258.99 km.^{2} (100 sq. miles) in the district against 3.2187 km. (2.0 miles) for the country as a whole. The National and State Highways accounted for 399.117 km. (248 miles) in the district. The average road mileage per 258.99 km.^{2} (100 sq. miles) in the district comes to 17.864 km. (11.1) as against 14.323 km. (8.9) for Vidarbha region and 29.451 km. (18.3) for the erstwhile Bombay State as a whole. Persons engaged in trade and commerce employed their capital in traditional activities such as bidi-making and manganese mining. They also desired to invest their capital in new profitable ventures. Besides, the district is well-served by 56 post and telegraph offices, 30 banking offices (of which 26 are in Nagpur city) and water-supply potential. The district abounds in timber, large deposits of manganese ore (second grade and high grade) and coal. Agriculture in the district provides important commercial crops such as cotton, orange and linseed which occupy 18.3 per cent of the net

area sown. In brief, it will be seen that Nagpur district possesses considerable potential for industrial growth.* With a view to giving a fillip to the industrial growth of Nagpur district and Vidarbha region as a whole, the Government of Maharashtra has adopted several measures, the most important among them being the establishment of an industrial estate at Nagpur. While aiming at industrial growth of the district, care has to be taken to avoid excessive concentration and lop-sided development of industries. Kamptee and Kanhan near Nagpur will serve as satellite industrial townships.

Till the beginning of this century, agriculture continued to be the mainstay of the district economy. In the industrial field, most important industry of the district was weaving, especially weaving of silk-bordered cloth. This industry experienced a period of depression before 1872 as a result of competition from machine-made goods. However, the position improved after 1901 when about 40,823 kg. (90,000 lbs.) of raw silk, then valued at five to six lakhs of rupees, was imported into the district. Establishment of the Empress Mills on 1st January 1877 laid the foundation of the textile industry in the district.

Two factories engaged in the production of chemicals cater to the demand of textile and other industries in the district. Kamptee is an industrially flourishing centre where a variety of industrial units are located. Cement pipes, rubber products and paints and varnishes are manufactured in the district on a considerable scale. Nagpur represents a nucleus of printing presses including Government Central Press, and as the district is rich in orange cultivation, a few cold storage companies are doing good business.

Industrialisation of Nagpur is in progress particularly since Independence. In 1958, there were 326 factories employing 30,041 workers. Of these, nine were big factories employing 15,698 workers. The following tables give the number of persons employed in different industries in 1911, 1921, 1931, 1951 and 1961.†

*For details refer to Chapter 9 'Economic Trends'.

†Census Reports, 1911, 1921, 1931, 1951 and 1961.

An attempt is made in this chapter to present the industrial picture of the district. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first deals with mechanised industries,[1] large and small, registered under the Factories Act. Cottage and Village industries are described in the second section. The third section gives an account of the trade union movement and labour organization in the district.

[1]. Before the enactment of the Factories Act, 1948, factories employing 20 or more workers and carrying on manufacture with the aid of power were registered under section 2 (*i*), while factories declared as such by the Provincial Government and employing 10 or more workers and carrying on manufacture with or without the aid of power were registered under section 5 (i) and (ii), of the Factories Act of 1934.

Under the new Act of 1948, factories employing 10 workers and carrying on manufacture with the aid of power are registered under section 2 (*m*) (*i*), and all factories employing 20 or more workers without the aid of power under section 2 (*m*) (*iii*). Wherever possible detailed statistics are given of factories registered under section 2 (*i*) of the Act of 1934 and section 2 (*m*) (*i*) of 1948.

(1) Sugar Industries.—Gur manufacture; other manufactures and refining of raw sugar, syrup and granulated or clarified sugar from sugarcane or from sugar beets.

(2) Tobacco.—Manufacture of bidis; manufacture of tobacco products (other than bidis) such as cigarettes, cigars, cheroots and snuff. Steaming, re-drying and other operations connected with preparing leaf tobacco for manufacturing are also included.

(3) Wearing apparel (except footwear and made-up textile goods). Tailors, milliners, dress-makers and darners; manufacturers of hosiery, embroiderers, makers of crepe, lace and fringes; fur dressers and dyers; hat-makers and makers of other articles of wear from textiles; manufacture of textiles for house-furnishing; tent-makers; makers of other made-up textile goods, including umbrellas.

(4) Textile industries otherwise unclassified.—Jute pressing, baling, spinning and weaving; hemp and flax spinning and weaving; manufacture of rayon; manufacture of rope, twine, string and other related goods from cocoanut, aloes, straw, linseed and hair; all other (including insufficiently described) textile industries, including artificial leather and cloth.

(5) Manufacture of metal products otherwise unclassified.—Blacksmiths and other workers in iron and makers of implements; workers in copper, brass and bell metal; workers in other metals; cutters and surgical and veterinary instrument makers; workers in mints, die sinkers, etc.; makers of arms, guns, etc., including workers in ordnance factories.

(6) Manufacturing industries otherwise unclassified.—Manufacture of professional, scientific and controlling instruments (but not including cutlery, surgical or veterinary instruments); photographic and optical goods; repair and manufacture of watches and clocks; workers in precious stones, precious metals and makers of jewellery and ornaments; manufacture of musical instruments and appliances; stationery articles other than paper and paper products; makers of plastic and celluloid articles other than rayon; sports-goods makers; toy-makers; other miscellaneous manufacturing industries, including bone, ivory, horn, shell, etc.

(7) Non-metallic mineral products.—Potters and makers of earthen ware; makers of porcelain and crockery; glass bangles, glass beads, glass-necklaces, etc.; makers of other glass and crystal ware; makers of other miscellaneous non-metallic mineral products,

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TABLE No. 1

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN DIFFERENT INDUSTRIES IN NAGPUR DISTRICT.

Name of Industry (1)	1911 (2)	1921 (3)	1931 (4)
1. Fishing, pearling and hunting	5,125	5,091	4,173
2. Exploitation of minerals	6,769	4,381	4,937
3. Textiles : Total	43,233	39,519	43,390
(i) Cotton ginning, cleaning, pressing : ..	3,712	10.689	1,380
(ii) Cotton spinning, sizing, weaving : ..	33,617	27,873	37,859
(iii) Jute pressing, spinning and weaving : ..	42	5	62
(iv) Rope, twine, string and other fibres : ..	277	88	74
(v) Wool carding, spinning, weaving : ..	429	172	238
(vi) Silk spinning and weaving :	4,009	15	3,075
(vii) Dyeing, bleaching, printing preparation and sponging of textiles.	1,107	676	586
(viii) Lace, crepe, embroideries, etc.	40	1	116
4. Hides, skins and hard material from the animal kingdom.	179	80	1,545
5. Wood : Total	6,676	11,905	8,772
(i) Sawyers and carpenters, turners, joiners, etc.	4,535	10.067	5,506
(ii) Basket makers and other industries of woody material including leaves.	2,141	1,838	3,266
6. Metals	3,465	2,544	3,006
7. Ceramics : Total	3,419	2,627	3,347
(i) Potters and makers of earthenwares ..	1,987	2,215	1,219
(ii) Brick and tile makers	1,430	411	1,996
(iii) Other workers in ceramics	2	1	132
8. Chemical production, etc.	411	305	778
9. Food industries	3,865	1,679	3,727
10. Industries of dress and toilet	12,315	11,013	10,852
11. Furniture industries	20	2	109
12. Building industries	8,414	1,089	3,890
13. Construction of means of transport	23	17	175
14. Miscellaneous and undefined industries ..	5,048	4,431	5,574

TABLE No. 2

NUMBER OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE (i.e., SELF-SUPPORTING) PERSONS ENGAGED IN INDUSTRIES IN 1951,*
DISTRICT NAGPUR.

Classification of Industries	Total		Employers		Employees		Independent Worker	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
All Industries and Services	1,76,589	19,202	5,642	291	94,958	11,208	75,989	770
Primary Industries not elsewhere specified	8,279	288	129	6	3,007	76	5,143	206
Stock-raising	2,859	105	32	5	2,059	46	768	54
Rearing of small animals and insects	92	..	2	..	53	..	37	..
Plantation industries	429	9	26	1	313	7	90	1
Forestry and collection of products not elsewhere specified	1,252	67	64	..	564	17	624	50
Hunting (including trapping and game propagation)	108	9	..	..	1	4	107	5
Fishing	3,539	98	5	..	17	2	3,517	96
Mining and Quarrying	5,244	1,437	24	1	3,308	1,288	912	148
Coal-mining	54	276	..	..	22	139	32	137
Crude petroleum and natural gas	1	1	..	..	..	..	1	1
Stone-quarrying, clay and sand pits	51	103	..	..	50	96	1	7

*Nagpur District Census Handbook (1951).

TABLE No. 2—*cont.*

NUMBER OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE (i.e., SELF-SUPPORTING) PERSONS ENGAGED IN INDUSTRIES IN 1951,* DISTRICT NAGPUR.

Classification of Industries	Total		Employers		Employees		Independent Worker	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Processing and Manufacture—Foodstuffs—								
Textile leather and products thereof	45 365	5,395	820	37	19,581	3,467	24,964	1,891
Food industries otherwise unclassified	561	83	53	3	181	36	282	44
Grains and pulses	535	80	70	8	177	28	288	44
Sugar industries	27	2	8	..	9	..	10	2
Beverages	180	12	40	..	98	5	42	7
Tobacco	3,561	2,057	33	2	3,064	1,750	464	305
Cotton textiles	33,275	2,678	290	4	14,576	1,563	18,409	1,111
Wearing apparel (except footwear) and made-up textile goods.	3,800	199	240	8	630	27	2,930	164
Textile industries otherwise unclassified .. .	328	49	1	4	25	27	70	18
Leather products and footwear	1,957	147	26	2	85	15	146	130
Processing and Manufacture—Chemicals and Products thereof	7,241	167	254	9	3,592	124	3,395	34
Manufacture of metal products otherwise unclassified..	3,269	31	70	5	472	8	2,727	18
Non-ferrous metals (Basic Manufacture)	13	..	2	..	..	..	11	..
Transport equipment	1,437	31	64	4	1,113	25	260	2
Electrical machinery, apparatus, appliances and supplies	113	..	..	..	112	..	1	..
Machinery (other than electrical machinery) including engineering workshops.	1,847	62	73	..	1,502	55	272	7
Basic industrial chemical	73	17	3	..	51	16	19	1
Manufacture of chemical products otherwise unclassified	430	18	37	..	311	14	82	4
Processing and manufacturing not elsewhere specified	15,739	607	395	14	5,428	166	9,916	427
Manufacturing industries otherwise unclassified ..	1,903	28	63	2	168	2	1,672	24
Products of petroleum and coal..	5	..	..	..	5	..	..	..
Bricks, tiles and other structural clay products ..	934	64	16	1	370	33	548	30
Non-metallic mineral products	1,776	136	47	3	870	63	859	6
Rubber products	111	6	4	..	100	6	7	..
Wood and wood products other than furniture and fixtures.	8,081	341	131	4	1,704	31	6,246	306
Furniture and fixtures	537	1	41	..	331	1	185	..
Paper and paper products	22	3	..	1	17	1	5	1
Printing and allied industries	2,313	27	93	3	1,806	24	414	..
Construction and Utilities	8.486	1,402	139	4	6,452	1,141	1,895	257
Construction and maintenance of works otherwise unclassified.	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Construction and maintenance—buildings	4,248	848	121	2	2,480	620	1,647	226
Construction and maintenance—roads, bridges and other transport works.	490	40	..	2	485	34	5	4
Works and services—electric and gas supply	3,075	45	18	..	2,883	29	224	16
Works and services—domestic and industrial water-supply.	86	28	..	..	67	22	19	6
Sanitary works and services including scavengers ..	554	441	..	..	554	436	..	5
Metal mining except iron-ore mining	5,138	1,057	24	1	4,236	1,053	878	3
Vegetable oil and dairy products	1,186	88	59	6	504	16	623	66
Iron and steel	34	6	2	..	21	6	11	..
Cement, cement pipes, other cement products ..	57	1	..	..	57	1	..	..

*Nagpur District Census Handbook (1951).

TABLE No. 3.

INDUSTRIAL CLASSIFICATION BY SEX AND DIVISIONS, MAJOR GROUPS OF PERSONS AT WORK OTHER THAN CULTIVATION IN 1961 IN NAGPUR DISTRICT.*

Branch of Industry (1)	Total Workers			Workers at household Industry		Workers in non-household Industry, etc.	
	Total (2)	Males (3)	Females (4)	Males (5)	Females (6)	Males (7)	Females (8)
Division 0							
1. Field Produce and Plantation Crops	815	726	89	5	4	721	85
2. Plantation Crops	4	3	1	..	..	3	1
3. Forestry and Logging	1,057	939	118	5	..	934	118
4. Fishing	2,781	2,627	154	42	4	2,585	150
5. Live-stock and Hunting	12,121	11,340	781	1,348	130	9,992	651
Division 1							
6. Mining and Quarrying	10,546	6,695	3,851	..	..	6,695	3,851
Divisions 2 and 3							
7. Foodstuffs	4,258	3,481	777	1,180	473	2,301	304
8. Beverages	672	653	19	28	1	625	18
9. Tobacco Products	10,322	4,430	5,892	1,369	1,666	3,061	4,226
10. Textile—Cotton	65,736	42,673	23,063	25,427	21,252	17,246	1,811
11. Textile—Jute	73	40	33	37	32	3	1
12. Textile—Wool	553	264	289	261	287	3	2
13. Textile—Silk	32	23	9	5	..	18	9
14. Textile—Miscellaneous	8,061	7,161	900	3,643	686	3,518	214
15. Manufacture of Wood and Wooden products	13,532	11,532	2,000	5,311	1,840	6,221	160
16. Paper and Paper Products	144	110	34	38	11	72	23
17. Printing and Publishing	3,662	3,610	52	54	7	2,556	45
18. Leather and Leather Products	3,060	2,513	547	1,728	506	785	41
19. Rubber, Petroleum and Coal Products..	339	326	13	10	1	316	12
20. Chemicals and Chemical Products	1,284	1,124	160	139	50	985	110
21. Non-Metallic products other than Petroleum and Coal ..	6,413	3,918	2,495	1,337	1,070	2,581	1,425
22. Basic Metals, and their products except machinery and Transport equipment.	4,512	4,192	320	2,306	293	1,886	27
23. Machinery (all kinds other than Transport) and Electrical equipment.	847	841	6	27	2	814	4
24. Transport equipment	7,060	7,001	59	228	2	6,773	57
25. Miscellaneous Manufacturing Industries	3,603	3,491	112	1,418	61	2,073	51
Division 4							
26. Construction	13,656	10,485	3,171	..	..	10,485	3,171
Division 5							
27. Electricity and Gas	2,514	2,432	82	..	..	2,432	82
28. Water-supply and Sanitary Services	3,672	2,409	1,263	..	..	2,409	1,263
Division 6							
29. Wholesale Trade	2,613	2,576	37	..	..	2,576	37
30. Retail Trade	38,084	32,725	5,359	..	..	32,725	5,359
31. Trade and Commerce—Miscellaneous	2,886	2,791	95	..	..	2,791	95

*This table has been prepared as per 1961 Census statistics.

TABLE No. 3—*cont.*

INDUSTRIAL CLASSIFICATION BY SEX AND DIVISIONS, MAJOR GROUPS OF PERSONS AT WORK OTHER THAN CULTIVATION IN 1961 IN NAGPUR DISTRICT.*

Branch of Industry	Total Workers			Workers at household Industry		Workers in non-household Industry, etc.	
	Total	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Division 7							
32. Transport	28,362	24,944	3,418	..	..	24,944	3,418
33. Storage and Warehousing	161	151	10	..	..	151	10
34. Communications	5,028	4,801	227	..	..	4,801	227
Division 8							
35. Public Services	18,668	17,874	794	..	..	17,874	794
36. Educational and Scientific Services	11,578	8,847	2,731	..	..	8,847	2,731
37. Medical and Health Services	4,069	2,647	1,422	..	..	2,647	1,422
38. Religious and Welfare Services	1,949	1,782	167	..	..	1,782	167
39. Legal Services	565	561	4	..	..	561	4
40. Business Services	559	551	8	..	..	551	8
41. Community Services and Trade and Labour Associations	1,141	1,022	119	..	..	1,022	119
42. Recreation Services	2,254	2,145	109	..	..	2,145	109
43. Personal Services	18,756	13,692	5,064	..	..	13,692	5,064
44. Services (not elsewhere classified)	7,191	4,575	2,616	..	..	4,575	2,616
Division 9							
45. Activities unspecified and adequately described (this includes new entrants to the labour market).	7	5	2	..	..	5	2

* This table has been prepared as per 1961 Census statistics.

I—LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES

Electricity in the district was first supplied to the public as early as in 1905. In that year a licence for generation and distribution was granted to Nagpur Electric Light and Power Co., Ltd. Subsequent developments were, however, very slow. Private undertakings took up the work of supplying electricity at important places. But the very nature of such enterprises put restriction on any large scale expansion of the supply system and consequently, no headway was made in the field of rural electrification. Prior to the formation of the Government Electricity Department, in the erstwhile Madhya Pradesh State, the benefits of supply of electricity were confined to a few major towns. The private companies established small power stations at different places and the process of power generation was, therefore, quite uneconomical. A number of cotton mills, ginning factories, oil mills and rice mills at different places were mostly run on oil or steam engines. The Electricity Department was, therefore, formed by the end of 1945 to regulate and rationalise the supply of electricity to the various parts. This Department formed the corporate body known as the Electricity Board in 1952.

The first step taken by the Electricity Department towards rationalising the supply was to establish a Central Thermal Power Station at Khaperkheda with a sizable network of main transmission lines. This power station with an installed capacity of 30,000 kw. was commissioned in December, 1950 and is since then supplying the load not only to the eight districts of Vidarbha, but also to three districts of Madhya Pradesh. Grid supply was made available to Nagpur town in February 1951. The first set was commissioned in December 1950 and the second was commissioned in October 1951. The Khaperkheda power station has been linked with Ballarshah power station. These two together have a total installed capacity of 52,500 kw. and have reached a peak load of 40,000 kw.

Lift Irrigation Scheme.—It is a joint endeavour undertaken by the Electricity Board and the Agriculture Department of Government.

According to this scheme the Electricity Board supplies the necessary *taccavi* to the consumer. Government grants the necessary power to the cultivator for digging new wells and repairing old ones and for the purchase of electric motors and pumping sets. The economic feasibility of the scheme is yet to be proved. The scheme is applicable to areas and groups of consumers where its average cost does not exceed Rs. 3,000. The *mot* system and diesel pump cost Rs. 950 and Rs. 1,350, respectively, whereas electric pump costs only Rs. 450. As compared to the age-old *mot* system with bullocks and diesel pumping sets the common cultivator has a cheaper substitute available in this form.

This scheme has given an impetus to the production of cash crops and vegetable gardening. Under this scheme, the villages of Sawargaon-Bela and Kanholi in Nagpur district, are provided with pumping sets.

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Industries.

LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES.

Electricity Generation.

To meet the rapidly increasing demand for electricity, it was planned to augment the generating capacity as well as the transmission capacity. Accordingly execution of the work on the scheme was undertaken in the First Five-Year Plan period.

Rural Electrification.—In addition to the Khaperkheda power station scheme, the following schemes were also undertaken in the First Five-Year Plan: (1) Saoner-Katol Scheme, (2) Sansar-Warud Scheme, (3) Lift Irrigation Scheme, and (4) The extension of the Southern Grid.

Under these schemes a total length of 233.355 km. (145 miles) of 66 K. V. line, 80.467 km. (50 miles) of 33 K.V. line, 238.183 km. (148 miles) of 11 K.V. line and 397.508 km. (247 miles) L. T. line was constructed. Electrified villages in the northern division and the southern division numbered 63 and 6, respectively. Besides, 780 lift irrigation pumps were energised.

With a view to meeting the prospective increase in the load and to strengthening the grid, a scheme to expand the Khaperkheda Station was included in the Second Five-Year Plan under the programme of development of the Southern Grid. The programme envisaged laying of 65.983 km. (41 miles) of 66 K.V. line from Khaperkeda to Bhandara and construction of necessary out-stations. The work of installation of one 30,000 K.V. Turbo-alternator set at Khaperkheda to double the installed capacity of the station was commenced and it was put into commercial operation in June 1960. It raised the capacity of Khaperkheda Power Station from 30 M.W. to 60 M.W.

During the Second Five-Year Plan period, the following extensions of the grid lines were taken up and completed:—

1. Dhanewada-Raolgaon Extension.
2. Mandi-Budhalal Extension.
3. Ambala Extension.
4. Kochurwadi Extension.
5. Extension to Lonkheri.
6. Dahegaon-Pipla Extension.
7. Extension to Hingna.

Under these schemes. 54.718 km. (34 miles) of 33 K.V. line. 24.462 km. (15.2 miles) of 11 K.V. line and 159.325 km. (99 miles) of L. T. lines have been laid thereby electrifying 19 more villages and energising 564 more pumps for lift irrigation. Patansaongi, Bela, Sawargaon, Nagordhan, Kodamendi and Khairgaon are some of the villages which have reaped the benefits of these schemes.

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LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES.

Electricity Generation.

Besides, the following schemes also formed part of the programme included in the remaining period of the Second Five-Year Plan:—

1. Parseoni Extension,
2. Ramtek-Nagordhan Extension,
3. Kalmeshwar-Nagor Link,
4. Khapari-Gumgaon Extension,
5. Saoner-Patansaongi Extension,
6. Govegaon-Wardha Extension,
7. Ambla Extension,
8. Wadone-Bhugaon Extension, and
9. Aroti-Kodamendi Extension.

It was proposed to supply electricity to each village with a population of more than 2,000 persons, in the Third Five-Year Plan. Butibori, Gumgaon, Wakodi and Parseoni were some of the villages included in this programme.

Mines and minerals.

Nagpur district is rich in mineral resources. Apart from the important minerals such as coal and manganese, this district possesses abundant supplies of minerals like dolomitic limestone, clays, wolfram and building stones. The neighbourhood of Nagpur constitutes one of the interesting geological areas of India and the mineral deposits of the area open up immense development possibilities.

"The following economically valuable minerals and mineral substances have been found in Nagpur district:—

(1) Building stone, (2) Coal, (3) Copper ore, (4) Gold, (5) Iron-ore, (6) Lead-ore, (7) Limestone, (8) Manganese-ore, (9) Mica, (10) Ornamental stones and gems, (11) Road metal and (12) Wolfram.

From the quarries at Kamptee and Silwara a very good quality sandstone has long been quarried. It has been used in the construction of buildings and bridges. In the northern part of the district near Chorbaoli and Baregaon, there is a large variety of crystalline limestones. The Deccan Trap also forms an excellent building material and is quarried for this purpose at the foot of Sitabuldi Hills. Another stone that has been extensively used is the quartzite, often slightly micaceous forming the Ramtek range of hills"*

There are, in Nagpur, limestones belonging to rocks of two different ages. One of these is the Lameta limestone found at Kelod and Chincholi and the other the crystalline limestone found in some abundance near Koradi, Baregaon and other places in the north-eastern corner of the district.

*Nagpur District Gazetteer, 1908, p. 207.

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Mines and Minerals.

The district contains over 30 known manganese-ore deposits of which about 20 have yielded ore fit for export purposes. The total production for 1906 was about 148336 metric tonnes (1,46,000 tons) or about an eighth of the world's total output. The total production from 1900 to 1906 was about 609600 metric tonnes (6,00,000 tons).

Pegmatite, the rock in which mica of commercial value is found, is of common occurrence, traversing the crystalline and metamorphic rocks. These pegmatites have, however, never been exploited for mica and it has yet to be shown that there are many occurrences of pegmatite containing mica scales of any considerable size.

Agates and chalcedony are probably to be found in the trappean portion of the district. These when cut and polished, can be turned into ornamental objects of considerable beauty.

Almost any of the older crystalline rocks of the district may locally be used as road metal: but the favourite materials seem to be the basalts and dolerites of the Deccan Trap series in the portions of the district on or near the Deccan Trap area and quartzites or gneiss and sometimes marble in the Archaean areas.

Wolfram, the valuable and comparatively rare mineral was found by Mr. J. Kelerschon at Agargaon. The following table indicates employment in mines in 1911, 1921, 1931 and 1951:—

TABLE No. 4

EMPLOYMENT IN MINES IN NAGPUR DISTRICT.

Year (1)	Name of work (2)	Total (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)
1911 ..	Extraction of minerals ..	6,769	4,073	2,696
1921 ..	Extraction of minerals	4,381	2,300	2,081
1931 ..	Exploitation of minerals ..	4,830	2,774	2,056
1951 ..	*Mining and Quarrying*	6,681	5,244	1,437
	(*i*) Coal mining	330	54	276
	(*ii*) Metal mining except iron ore mining.	6,195	5,138	1,057
	(*iii*) Crude petroleum and gas	2	1	1
	(*iv*) Stone-quarrying, Clay and sandpits.	154	51	103

Coal.

Coal is by far the most important mineral occurring in Nagpur district and it speaks volumes for the future industrial development of the district. But so far the deposits have been exploited to a very small extent. According to the recent surveys carried

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LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES.

Mines and Minearls.

Coal.

out by the State Department of Geology and Mining, the total reserves in the two coal-fields of the district at Kamptee and Umrer were estimated at 370 million metric tonnes.

Kamptee Coal-field.—The field extends in north-westerly direction from Kanhan towards Saoner and covers a very large area. Recent investigations have proved the existence of workable seams here. The possible reserves of Kamptee coal-field are likely to be of the order of (1000 million tons) 1016.05 million metric tonnes. At present there is only one colliery in this field which is situated near Kamptee. Its production for the years from 1956 to 1959 is given below:—

Year	Production of Coal
1956	(19,286 tons.) 19,594·576 metric tons.
1957	(51,877 tons.) 52,707·032 metric tons.
1958	(64,008 tons.) 65,032·128 metric tons.
1959	(70,558 tons.) 71,686·928 metric tons.

The Khaperkheda Power Station at present draws part of its coal requirements from Kamptee colliery but will eventually meet all its requirements from the Kamptee coal-field after the new collieries are started. The coal-field lies in close proximity of Nagpur and is served by the Nagpur-Chhindwada narrow gauge railway line.

Umrer Coal-field.—Recent prospecting work done by the Department of Geology and Mining of the Government of Maharashtra, has proved the existence of a promising coal-field near Umrer at a distance of about 44 kilometres south-east of Nagpur. Umrer is a railway station on the Nagpur-Nagbhir-Chanda Fort route which is a narrow gauge section of the South-Eastern railway line. It is also connected by a good road. The coal-bearing rocks extend over an area of about four square kilometres. The probable reserves of the field have been estimated to be of the order of 71.12 million metric tons (70 million tons).

Apart from these major coal-fields, the presence of coal has also been discovered at Bokara, 6.437 km. (four miles) north of Nagpur. There is also a possibility of good coal reserve in Bazargaon area about 32.187 km. (20 miles) west of Nagpur.

The coal from the Kamptee and Umrer coal-fields, mined so far is non-coking. A number of coal seams in these fields are of the first grade and second grade quality and could be successfully blended to the extent of 15 to 20 per cent coking coal from Jharia field to produce good coke. First grade coal from these fields can also be used for making pig-iron in low shaft furnaces.

Manganese Ore.

Although the manganese ore in the district has been exploited since 1900, its existence has been recorded on several occasions since 1833. However, the most active exploitation was stimulated by the two World Wars. Manganese ore has been exported in large quantities and is one of the most important earners of foreign exchange.

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LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES.

Mines and Minerals.

Manganese Ore.

According to 1921 Census, the number of manganese mines in the district was 42. This industry antedated the coal industry. According to 1931 Census, the manganese industry continued to be in a very prosperous condition until 1928. After 1928, the industry received a set-back.

There are as many as 252 mines of manganese ore in the district and the production of mineral in the district for the years from 1956 to 1960 was as under:

Year	Production of Manganese in tonnes
1956	(1,28,758) 1,30,818·128 metric tons.
1957	(1,57,730) 1,60,253·680 metric tons.
1958	(1,18,193) 1,20,084·088 metric tons.
1959	(93,877) 95,379·032 metric tons.
1960	(88,515) 89,931·240 metric tons.

The deposits in Nagpur district are generally associated with the rock termed 'Gondites'. They are considered to be magniferrous sediments of Archaean age which have undergone intense regional metamorphism and subsequent alteration and weathering to give rise to various deposits.

The most important deposits of manganese lie in a belt of about 24.140 km. (15 miles) width stretching from Khapa in Saoner tahsil of Nagpur district and passing through Ramtek into the district of Bhandara. The important centres of manganese mining are Gumgaon, Ramdongri, Kodegaon, Mansar, Kandri, Junewani, Satak, Beldongri, Goguldoh, Mandri, Parsconi and Pali.

The following figures indicate the relevant statistics* regarding manganese ore in the district in the year 1956-57:—

1.	Total area covered under mining leases.	4345·518 hectares. (10,738 acres)
2.	No. of mining leases in the district.	178
3.	Total production of ore during the year 1956.	1,30,818·128 metric tons. (1,28,758 tonnes.)
4.	Value of ore	Rs. 1,51,86,100.

In addition to the above-noted centres, high grade manganese deposits and extensive deposits of low grade manganese ore occur in the forest areas of the district, which are lying between the Kanhan and the Pench rivers, to the north of Khapa and west of Ramtek. These deposits are not under active exploitation at present, as the percentage of manganese is low and that of silica is high.

*Nagpur District: Second Five-Year Plan, published by the Directorate of Publicity, Government of Maharashtra.

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LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES.

Mines and Minerals.

Manganese Ore.

Most of the mines in the district are worked by open cast methods. Float ore is worked by shallow surface workings and bed ore is mined by deep quarrying. The deeper portions of the reefs are mined by underground methods only at Mansar. Most of the mines are worked by manual labour. Pneumatic jack hammers are used for drilling holes in the ore bed. In boulder working, the excavated material is first screened to remove earth and the material is then jigged by manually operated Joplin jigs to concentrate the ore and remove impurities like quartz and other gangue rock.

In the past, most of the manganese ore was exported in its raw state. Recently a ferro-manganese plant has been set up at Kanhan which consumes part of the production.

Iron ore.

Iron ore occurs at a place called Dongargaon 3.219 km. (2 miles) north of Bhiwapur. A hematite ore body about 1.829 metres (6 feet) wide can be traced for about 0.4002 km. (2 furlongs) along the strike. The ore analysis reveals 52 per cent to 54 per cent of iron content. The deposits have not been exploited up till now.

Limestone and Dolomite.

Limestone belonging to older geological formations occurs in Ramtek and Saoner tahsils of Nagpur district at a number of places. Among these deposits, the dolomitic limestone occurring near Kandri, Patgowari and Deolapar are of good quality and have been exploited to a small extent for use as flux in metallurgical industries. The production of lime on a very small scale is seen in the Koradi area of the district.

Clay deposits

Clay suitable for potteries, earthenware, etc., occur at five places, viz., Shemda, Chorkhairi, Khairi, Kapri and Bazargaon in the district. All of them have medium to good plasticity, little shrinkage and give light cream colour on heating. The quarries at Chorkhairi and Shemda are 6.096 metres (20 feet) and 12.192 metres (40 feet) deep, respectively.

Tungsten ore

Wolfram ore or tungsten occurs at Agargaon in the district and was worked sporadically in the past. This area is situated about 48.280 km. (30 miles) to the south-east of Nagpur and is easily accessible. The ore occurs in stringers and veins of quartz traversing mica schists. Since 1907 about 10.160 metric tonnes (10 tons) of ore with about 65 per cent concentrates had been worked intermittently.

Building Materials.

Nagpur district is well endowed with various kinds of rocks suitable for building construction, roads, etc. These comprise clays for manufacture of bricks, sands for mortar and concrete limestone and *kunkar* for lime-making, numerous kinds of building stones such as granite, gneiss, limestones, sandstones, quartzites, etc. The sandstone deposits of Bokara near Nagpur have been extensively used in the past and are being used for construction work roundabout Nagpur. The Deccan Trap Rock is being extensively quarried roundabout Nagpur for road construction and building purposes.

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Besides the above minerals which occur in large quantities there are other minerals such as mica, mineral pigments (ochre), felspar, quartz and antimony. However, they are not found in large quantities so as to be exploited for commercial use.

Cotton Textiles.

Amongst the large-scale industrial establishments in Nagpur, textile mills come first. Cotton available in abundance in Nagpur and neighbouring districts of Vidarbha, provides the chief raw material. Weaving was a traditional occupation of the local populace for a long time and with the advent of machinery, these artisans were absorbed in the mills as labourers.

At present there are two mills in the district and both are located in Nagpur city. One of the mills was established as early as in 1877 with a capital of Rs. 15 lakhs. The mill then had 75,000 spindles and 1,400 looms and employed 4,300 persons. The annual outturn of yarn was about 430907.50 kg. (9½ million pounds) while that of cloth was nearly 226795 kg. (5 million pounds) in 1906. The value of the yarn and cloth turned out in 1906 was estimated at Rs. 42.45 lakhs and Rs. 34.91 lakhs, respectively. While a small quantity of cloth was sold locally, the bulk of it was exported to Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh. There were several ginning and pressing factories which supplied cotton, while only a fraction of the cotton required was imported from America and Egypt.

Capital and machinery.

The fixed capital of the mills stood at Rs. 6,68,72,244 for the year ending 30th June 1962. The value of land and building accounted for Rs. 1,64,53,412 and that of plant and machinery amounted to Rs. 4,86,16,847. The machinery consisted of bleaching, dyeing, finishing and printing machines common to all textile mills. One mill also possessed a mercerising, a mineral khaki and a roller engraving machine. The total number of spindles and looms with them was 2,02,828 and 3,097, respectively. They worked in three shifts throughout the year. The working capital of the units stood at Rs. 4,68,41,317 for the same year.

Fuel.

The units consumed coal and power as fuel and the value of coal and power utilized for the year ending June 1962, was Rs. 23,93,396 and Rs. 25,17,440, respectively.

Raw Materials.

Cotton, which forms the main raw material, is purchased at places like Katol, Umrer, Saoner, Khapa and Kalmeshwar in the district. Besides, cotton is also brought from Yeotmal and Amravati districts, Hinganghat and Arvi in Wardha district. Dyes and chemicals are mainly brought from Bombay, whereas Calcutta is also a source for certain chemicals. The value of raw materials consumed by the two units for the year ending June 1962, was Rs. 4,83,05,434 of which cotton accounted for Rs. 3,84,48,926.

The products of the units included cloth, yarn and linters. The cloth manufactured consisted of different varieties like grey, bleached, dyed and printed. Grey cloth comprised dhotis, sarees both plain and fancy, coatings, drills, twills, shirtings and

chaddars. In the cloth of bleached variety twills, drills, long cloths, shirting, towels and handkerchieves were available. Printed cloth included chintz, voiles and cotton blankets and coloured shirtings, along with which drills, twills and chaddars were also manufactured. The value of the production which included yarn and linter with cloth during the year, amounted to Rs. 7,09,47,512 of which cloth accounted for Rs. 5,99,46,679.

Both men and women workers were employed as labourers. In addition to wages and salaries, they were also getting the facilities of provident fund, insurance, etc. Wages, salaries and money value of other benefits and privileges, stood at Rs. 2,61,18,344 of which wages and salaries accounted for Rs. 2,43,42,436 for the year ending June 1962. One of the units disbursed Rs. 1,31,58,666 to its workers, of whom 7,759 were males and 535 females for the year ending June 1959.

Handlooms.

In a country where planned economic development through rapid industrialisation is being carried out, the problem of preserving traditional skill and of harnessing vast human energy successfully has to be tackled most carefully. It is against this background that handloom-weaving is looked upon as a means of employment and income to millions. Besides, handloom industry possesses other important advantages. For instance, it is an industry requiring small amount of capital investment; it calls for little risk and at the same time assures steady and definite employment to a large number of people.

Historical Background.

Weaving was one of the most important cottage industries of the district in the beginning of the 20th century. Weaving of silk-bordered cloth had a long and remarkable past. Just before 1872, the industry suffered a period of depression due to competition of machine-made goods but it recovered at the beginning of the 20th century. The majority of the weavers were *koshtis*. Machine-spun yarn was used for weaving cloth with silk border. Country blankets were woven by *dhangars* in Bamni, Warur, Dhapewada and Kalmeshwar and its surrounding areas.

Cotton yarn for coloured cloth was dyed by *rangaris*, but the dyeing of silk was done by *patwis* (braiders). All dyes were imported from Europe and artificial indigo was mixed with a small quantity of the natural product. The silk-bordered sarees woven by the *koshtis* used to be in great demand particularly during the marriage season. In Nagpur, Muhammedan Momins who were originally immigrants from Mirzapur made cotton-bordered sarees which had a more permanent sale. The Momins also produced handkerchieves and *susi*, i.e., striped and checked cloth.

Weaving continued to be the main cottage industry till 1931. The textile wing of the Department of Industries which started its work in 1916, introduced from time to time improved sleys amongst the handloom weavers. These sleys brought an increase in the output by about 75 per cent. The result was overproduction which created fresh problems for the industry. For

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want of proper marketing facilities the entire produce could not be sold. Similarly the weavers were unable to make profitable use of the extra time which the new sleys gave them. The consumers of hand-woven fabrics were taking more and more to mill-made fabrics. The weavers found it difficult to produce latest varieties and patterns so as to keep pace with fashions. Only those weavers who turned out finer and more artistic fibres could hold their own in the industry. The competition of mill-made piece-goods continued to hit the rest hard. The condition of the handloom weavers engaged in the manufacture of sarees and dhotis deteriorated. The dyeing and calico printing industry continued to survive but in a moribund condition.

In 1951 there were 43,483 handlooms in Nagpur district. However, according to the handloom registration effected by the Co-operative Department, there were 36,180 handlooms registered in the district in 1959-60. Of these, 18,100 were in the co-operative fold and 18,080 were outside the co-operative fold. Of the looms under co-operative management, only 3,980 were engaged in production and the rest (13,120) amounting to 77 per cent were lying idle. According to 1951 Census, there were about 43,483 persons engaged in the handloom industry, of whom 18,898 persons (i.e., 43 per cent) were in the co-operative fold. Out of 159 primary weavers' co-operatives, 120 were functioning.

The following table reveals the important weaving centres and other relevant details of weavers' co-operative societies:—

TABLE No. 5.

WEAVERS' CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

Centre	Handlooms registered		No. of societies	No. of Members	Chief articles produced
	Within co-operative fold	Outside co-operative fold			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1. Nagpur	9,941	11,457	75	7,248	Sarees, dhotis and lungis.
2. Kamptee	2,258	1,667	7	2,052	
3. Umrer	1,187	912	8	1,380	
4. Khapa	567	678	6	692	
5. Mauda	155	133	3	174	Sarees.
6. Bhiwapur	302	318	3	559	,,
7. Patansaongi ..	167	105	1	169	,,
8. Saoner	104	..	1	223	,,
9. Kalmeshwar ..	120	220	3	165	,,
10. Dhapewada ..	167	259	2	220	,,

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Finance.

The chief sources of finance required for running the co-operative societies were: (a) capital raised by the societies, (b) Government loans out of the cess fund and (c) Reserve Bank of India's scheme of financial assistance through Nagpur Co-operative Central Bank, Ltd. The funds of societies comprised 'share capital' and 'reserve fund and other funds' which amounted to Rs. 4,25,500 and Rs. 7,18,500, respectively, in 1958-59. The corresponding figures for 1959-60 were Rs. 4,26,150 and Rs. 7,58,925, respectively. Financial assistance in the form of loans out of the cess funds was rendered to the co-operative societies till 1956-57. The total quantum of a loan depended upon the number of looms owned by the society. An amount of Rs. 300 was advanced against each loom. Such assistance aimed at meeting the requirements of the working capital. The repayment of a loan was spread over ten annual instalments The details of the financial assistance rendered are summarised in the statement below:—

Year	Number of Societies	Total Loans
(1)	(2)	(3)
		Rs.
(1) 1953-54	15	1,96,600
(2) 1954-55	20	3,79,400
(3) 1955-56	52	6,25,000
(4) 1956-57	38	4,82,000

The Reserve Bank of India's scheme of financial assistance to weavers' co-operative societies was implemented for the first time in 1959-60. An amount of Rs. 4,40,000 was placed at the disposal of the Nagpur Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., in 1959-60. The bank scrutinised 38 applications of societies and disbursed loans amounting to Rs. 2,23,200. In 1960-61, the Reserve Bank of India sanctioned a credit limit of Rs. 3,04,000. The Nagpur Central Co-operative Bank Ltd. utilised the credit limit to the extent of Rs. 2,93,955 for sanctioning and disbursing loans to 36 societies for working looms. The Bank granted loans to the tune of Rs. 89,955 out of its own funds. Thus the aggregate funds used by co-operative societies for their working capital as on 31-12-1960 were:

		Rs.
Owned funds outstanding	...	11,92,410
Government loans outstanding	...	11,35,447
The Reserve Bank of India's Credit limit outstanding.		3,16,378
Bank's own funds	...	89,955
Total	...	27,34,190

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The financial assistance offered when studied in relation to the looms and members of co-operative societies, works out to Rs. 160 per loom and Rs. 145 per member. In terms of actual production it amounts to Rs. 687 per loom and per member. The cost of production during the year ending 30th June 1960 amounted to Rs. 51,18,418 as against sales of the order of Rs. 63,51,996 during the same period.

Marketing.

The products of handloom weavers find their way to the market through weavers' co-operative societies, master weavers and their associations and *Gujaris*. In the co-operative sector, the primaries collect products from the members and organise sales through their sales depots in the wholesale or retail markets. Occasionally, they also employ hawkers and salesmen. They also get assistance from the Apex Handloom Weavers' Co-operative Society, Ltd., Nagpur, in marketing their goods. The societies also take the help of the Government handloom depots in selling their products. The Co-operative Department sanctioned loans to two societies for conducting Government aided sales depots. The Apex Weavers' Co-operative Society located at Nagpur has two sales depots which also help in promoting the sale of handloom fabrics. The Government extended financial assistance to the tune of Rs. 15,925 till 1959-60 in the form of management grants. A mobile van attached to the office of the Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies is contributing a great deal in popularising the handloom products.

The total sales effected by primary societies amounted to Rs. 63,51,996 in 1959-60. The Apex Weavers' Co-operative Society had 22 sales depots located at different places in Vidarbha region and three at Poona and Bombay. It effected sales of the order of Rs. 16,12,764 in 1959-60. It received financial assistance, in the form of grants, to the tune of Rs. 14,262. In addition to these facilities, the Government grants rebate to societies on the sale of handloom cloth. The main purpose behind the scheme of granting rebate is to encourage the sale of handloom fabrics and to secure a larger market for it. The amount of rebate reimbursed to the societies is given below:—

Year		*Amount of rebate* Rs.
1957-58	...	12,02,831
1958-59	...	7,29,175
1959-60	...	4,81,326
1960-61 (up to 18-1-61)	...	2,58,845

Technical Improvement.

The registration of handlooms effected by the Co-operative Department revealed that in 1959-60 there were 35,796 pitlooms, 754 framelooms and 55 powerlooms in the district. Most of the looms in operation were antiquated whose production averaged 3.66 to 4.57 metres (four to five yards) per weaver per day. The bulk of weavers are busy producing sarees which are famous

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throughout the country. They also produce dhotis, shirting and coating. The yarn used is normally of 80 count or still finer. Beaming system is not in vogue. The processes of sizing, beaming, etc., are traditional. Local dyers are assigned dyeing operation. The dyes used comprise indigo, nephthylamine, indenthrine and other direct colours.

Technical Improvement.

With a view to ensuring the quality of handloom cloth in respect of standardization of fast colours, nine dye-houses have been chosen, each receiving the produce of one particular society. Financial assistance in the form of a loan of Rs. 11,700 and grants of Rs. 36,412 have been made to these selected dye-houses. Societies outside the group of these nine societies, each of which is tied down to a particular dye-house, can as well avail themselves of the services of these dye-houses. Another welcome measure intended to step up the rate of production of handloom cloth was that fifteen societies were advanced an amount of Rs. 11,336 by way of grants to enable them to purchase 52 framelooms, spare parts and accessories. The Central Textile Institute, Nagpur, has installed a calendering plant for handloom cloth with a capacity of calendering 7315.2 metres (8,000 yards) per day. However, experience has shown that the capacity of the calendering plant is not being fully exploited on account of the fact that only a few societies are taking advantage of this plant.

Training.

In order to impart training in the improved methods of production of handloom cloth, the Department of Industries is running a number of training centres. They are located at Nagpur and mostly in the development blocks within the district. The Central Textile Institute, Nagpur, is also regularly conducting training classes in handloom and powerloom weaving. It follows a scheme of granting stipends during the training period, to attract weavers particularly from rural areas. Till 1959-60, only six societies derived the benefit of this scheme by deputing 30 trainees to this institute. With a view to ensuring sound functioning of weavers' co-operative societies, a scheme of training secretaries in the maintenance of records and accounts has been launched. Two such classes are conducted at Nagpur. The course extends over a period of three months. Twenty-five secretaries were trained at these classes till 1959-60.

Raw Materials.

The most essential raw material required for handloom industry is yarn, besides dyes, chemicals, artificial silk and thread. Though the Apex Society at Nagpur was expected to supply the necessary raw materials to its primary weavers' societies, it was not in a position to meet their demand fully. The aggregate value of raw materials purchased by the primaries from various sources during 1959-60 amounted to Rs. 34,10,648. The value of yarn supplied by Apex Weavers' Co-operative amounted to Rs. 4,03,756. In other words, the Apex Society could supply only 12 per cent of the quantity of yarn required by the primaries. The fluctuations in prices of yarn and other essential raw materials in the local market, Nagpur, also exercise adverse effect

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Raw Materials.

on the cost structure of the industry. The societies are required to pay local taxes on the raw materials. The societies in this district are mostly engaged in producing sarees of 60 and 80 counts.* There are also a few weavers' societies, especially of Momin weavers at Kamptee and Nagpur, which are engaged in the production of sarees of lower counts, *i.e.*, 16, 20, 22, 24, 26, 30 and 40. Similarly, some societies are producing bed-sheets, coatings, towels, newars and bandage cloth, which require yarn of 2, 6, 2/40 and 2/64 counts.

Wage Pattern.

The normal monthly production per loom per worker averages about 12 sarees valued at Rs. 120. The weaver gets a wage rate ranging between Rs. 5 and Rs. 7 per saree, depending upon the count and texture of the cloth. This also includes the cost of preliminary processes involved in handloom-weaving. The earning of a weaver per month varies between Rs. 60 and Rs. 75. The usual weaving rates per saree, for different counts are as under:

Count (1)	With design (2) Rs.	Plain (3) Rs.
40×40	3·50	3·00
60×60	5·50	4·00
80×80	7·00	5·50

Powerlooms.

Under the scheme of conversion of handlooms into powerlooms 55 powerlooms have been installed at Kamptee. Proposals for installation of over 400 additional powerlooms received from other weaving centres at Umrer, Khapa, Kalmeshwar, Bhiwapur and Jalalkheda are under consideration.

Housing Colony.

It has been proposed to construct two housing colonies for weavers, each consisting of 200 tenements at Nagpur and Kamptee. The Government have sanctioned financial assistance to the extent of Rs. 3,20,000 for their construction. The colony at Nagpur will be constructed with the help of the Nagpur Improvement Trust Authorities and that at Kamptee with the assistance of local societies.

Workshop.

The Government has established a workshop at Nagpur with the object of manufacturing the handloom dobbies and other accessories required by the industry. The Government Model Dye House and the Calendering Plant, Nagpur, are entrusted with the work of dyeing the yarn required by Government and semi-Government institutions and co-operative societies. Similarly the finishing and calendering of the cloth of local printers and societies is being done by the calendering plant.

Problems.

The high price of handloom cloth is one of the main reasons for its incapacity to withstand the market competition. The reasons for the high cost structure of the industry are manifold. Firstly, the weavers do not have adequate capital necessary for storing raw materials like yarn, sesal fibre, etc. Secondly, because of *higgling-haggling* between the millowners and the

*1 Cotton count = 590·54 tex.

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Problems.

manufacturers, the prices of yarn and dyes fluctuate whereas the price of cloth does not rise or fall proportionately. Thirdly, as the goods are to be disposed of during the year of production, the profits fall to a low level. Thus the cost of production becomes uneconomic. Fourthly, the middlemen unduly dominate the scene and reap the profits by exploiting the booms and slumps of the market. However, powerlooms should be installed by separate societies and these should not be mixed up with handloom societies. While encouraging the powerlooms, the interests of handloom weavers should be safeguarded.

The present field of reservation for handloom industry needs to be extended so as to include the production of sarees and dhotis exclusively by handlooms. This modification will ensure sufficient scope for the employment of those who are unemployed and fuller employment of the underemployed. During the slack season, the goods accumulate and the societies are not in a position to dispose them of; hence, the necessity of bank credit through pledge or hypothecation of stocks. The apex weavers' societies should be allowed to open sales depots outside the jurisdiction of societies, as well as outside the State. The facility of rebate on sales should also be given to them.

Auto-repairing and general engineering.

General engineering and repairing of vehicles is an important industry in the district. Factors governing the demand for the services rendered by this industry generally are the increase in the level of income, urbanisation, development of transport and communications and growing industrialisation. The increasing tempo of building construction in the area and the replacement requirements of existing buildings also step up the demand for such products as roof trusses, window grills, gates and conservancy equipments. The additional generation of electric power in Vidarbha Region will further step up the demand for transmission towers. The demand for bandsaws from saw-mills will increase commensurately with the increase in supply of timber. The expansion programme of motorable roads and the consequent increase in automobile vehicles and marketing centres will also bring about an appreciable rise in the demand for the services rendered by the industry.

The number of various large-scale and small-scale engineering and repairing units in Nagpur district in the year 1959-60 was 42 employing 2,687 workers. All the large-scale units were located in Nagpur City. According to the findings of a survey of engineering units conducted in 1954 by the Government of Madhya Pradesh, there were 623 unregistered units employing 1,278 workers in Nagpur district. Of these, 293 units employing 864 workers were classified as small-scale units and 330 units with 414 workers as cottage units.

Statistics relating to some units [1958].*

*Source: Area Survey Report of Nagpur and Bhandara Districts. The figures pertain to both the districts.

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Auto-repairing and general engineering.

TABLE No. 6.

No.	Items	Large-scale		Small-scale	
		Manufacturing	Servicing	Manufacturing	Servicing
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	Number of Units	2	1	6	6
2	Workers employed ..	81	70	153	89
3	Total Capital (Rs. in lakhs)	7.59	0.61	7.15	3.02
	(a) Fixed	4.39	0.34	4.60	0.64
	(b) Working	3.20	0.27	2.55	2.28
4	Installed Capacity (value in lakhs of Rs.)	7.77	..	13.45	..
5	Production (value in lakhs of Rs).	7.05	2.94	8.46	6.78

Various registered units undertook manufacturing and servicing activities on a varying scale. The products of the manufacturing units included structural products, bandsaws, lanterns, burners, conservancy equipment and bodies for trucks and buses. Some of the servicing units manufactured minor spare parts of sugarcane crushers, rice mills and colliery machinery.

Of the 31 reporting concerns, 3 were established between 1930 and 1940, 12 between 1940 and 1950 and 16 between 1950 and 1960. All these worked throughout the year, but their individual working days varied considerably but generally exceeded 270. The cumulative fixed and working capital of the reporting units was Rs. 18,53,203 and Rs. 12,58,339, respectively, at the end of 1960.

The machinery of general engineering units consisted of lathes of various sizes, grinders, electric and gas welding sets, hack-saws and various types of machines like drilling machine, shaping machine, cutting machine, milling machine, moulding machine, edging machine, bending machine, shearing and punching machine. The units engaged in the repairs of automobiles had lathes, hydraulic ramp lift, pressure washing machines and boring machines. The tools and equipment of different units varied according to their requirements and specialized products.

The raw materials comprised iron and steel bars and rods, plates and sheets, angles, wires, pipes, beams, casting and moulding parts, tin, pig-iron, brass, white metal and rolled strips, paints and varnishes. The 12 units, which reported their key statistics for the year 1958-59, consumed raw materials worth Rs. 8,01,262 during the year. The sale of their various products amounted to Rs. 13,11,700 in Nagpur and the neighbouring area of Vidarbha

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Auto-repairing and general engineering.

region and Madhya Pradesh. These concerns employed 275 workers and paid Rs. 2,81,124 by way of wages and salaries. The various items of fuel used primarily included coke, coal, mobile oil and electricity. The value of fuel consumed during 1958-59 by the 12 units amounted to Rs. 53,530.

The other 12 units which supplied their statistics for the year 1959-60, consumed raw materials valued at Rs. 17,63,750. They employed 353 workers and paid Rs. 2,37,988 during the year as their wages and salaries. The annual consumption of fuel cost them Rs. 54,740 whereas their products were sold for Rs. 25,14,053.

Some of the units which did not undertake manufacturing were engaged in auto-repairing and servicing. The main difficulty faced by this industry was the shortage of raw materials such as steel, tin sheets and coke. The quota of iron and steel was too inadequate to meet their requirements. Some units complained of dearth of skilled technicians and they experienced difficulties in obtaining finance for the purchase of new machinery.

Tea-processing, blending and packing.

The branch of a private limited concern located at Kamptee was engaged in processing, blending and packing tea. The concern was established in 1942. The vicinity of markets for finished products favoured the location of the factory at Kamptee. The concern worked perennially. The fixed capital invested was of the order of Rs. 9,12,895 whereas the working capital amounted to Rs. 32,13,303.

The unit was engaged in processing and blending tea before it was sent to various markets in India. Tea leaves constituted the raw material which was collected from the various plantations and tea estates belonging to the company. The following figures give the quantity and value of raw tea which was processed in the unit:—

Year	Raw Tea in kg.*	Value in Rs.
1957	53,92,268.739 (1,19,03,463)	2,13,71,515
1958	56,52,121.770 (1,24,77,090)	2,08,66,408
1959	59,10,392.925 (1,30,47,225)	2,42,16,909
1960	66,43,312.044 (1,46,65,148)	3,16,86,565
1961	69,06,818.067 (1,52,46,839)	3,48,38,028

The machines and appliances used included rotopans for hand-packing, benches, Kora pice packet machines and Lessar machines, bag-making machine, printing machines, lining cutter machines and blending bulker. Electricity was used as fuel, the bill for its annual consumption coming to about Rs. 20,000.

The concern employed 35 persons for supervision and administration besides 558 workers. The annual wage bill of the workers amounted to Rs. 10,42,506. The administrative staff was paid

* Figures in brackets indicate lbs.

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Tea-processing, blending and packing.

Rs. 1,50,328 and other benefits worth Rs. 98,409 were also granted to them. The *mistries*, foreman *mistries* and drivers were paid Rs. 70, Rs. 95 and Rs. 65 per month, respectively. The other workers like weight checkers, box makers, strappers and packers were paid hourly wages.

The company sold the products through its own selling organization which had 2,000 salesmen spread all over the country. The following statement gives the quantity of package tea produced and its value based on average or estimated price.

Year	Quantity of package tea produced		Value based on average or estimated price
(1)	(2)		(3)
	(in kg.)*		(in Rs.)
1957	53,63,962.128	(1,18,40,976)	2,63,62,749
1958	56,55,726.744	(1,24,85,048)	2,67,97,907
1959	59,22,000.597	(1,30,72,849)	3,00,54,453
1960	66,44,912.493	(1,46,68,681)	4,02,06,283
1961	69,07,223.502	(1,52,47,734)	4,40,19,959

The package tea was sold throughout India. The main difficulty encountered by the unit was in securing machinery, particularly on account of scarcity of foreign exchange.

Carbonic gas manufacture.

There was one branch of a company manufacturing carbonic gas (chemically known as carbon dioxide). This unit established in 1954 was located at Kamptee. The carbonic gas is used in the manufacture of aerated waters and as a fire extinguisher. The fixed capital of the concern stood at Rs. 7,28,360 of which Rs. 3,51,136 were accounted for by plant and machinery. The working capital amounted to Rs. 1,11,410. The concern operated seasonally and the work was carried on in three shifts. The gas producer was the chief machine. Electricity, coke, kerosene, grease and petrol were all used as fuel. The following statement gives the quantities of various kinds of fuel used during the year 1959:—

Type of fuel	Unit of Quantity	Quantity	Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Coke	Metric tons. ..	100.589 (99 tons.)	7,218
2. Petrol	Litres	781.90 (172 gallons).	1,225
3. Grease	kg.	48.99 (108 lbs.)	100
4. Kerosene Oil ..	Litres	454.60 (100 gallons).	150
5. Electricity	K.W.L. ..	19,723 K.W.L.	2,689

The main raw material consumed was hard coke which was purchased directly from the collieries under permits. The quantity of hard coke consumed during 1959 amounted to 202.19 tonnes (199 tons) valued at Rs. 14,437. In the same year 202.194 metric tons (3,91,339 lbs.) of carbonic gas valued at Rs. 1,44,110

*Figures in brackets indicate lbs.

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Carbonic gas manufacture.

was produced. It was sold locally and was also in demand from the neighbouring States of Madhya Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh. The unit had a productive capacity of 2721.552 kg. (6,000 lbs.) of carbonic gas per day comprising three shifts. The unit employed 30 workers and disbursed Rs. 23,277 during 1959 as wages and salaries. The number of persons other than workers was five, who received Rs. 13,015 in the form of salary. The money value of other benefits and privileges granted to the workers amounted to Rs. 822. It was observed that the unit worked below its full capacity.

Ginning and Pressing.

Ginning and pressing is an age-old industry of Nagpur district. The following is a description of the industry as it existed in the beginning of this century.

"Twenty of the ginning and pressing factories are located in the city of Nagpur, five at Kamptee, six at Saoner, seven at Katol town, one at Kelod and one at Kondhali in Katol tahsil. Only two of the ginning factories contain double-roller gins, the rest having only single rollers. Five factories contain more than 50 gins, three between 40 and 50, and ten below 40. The collective capital of all the ginning and pressing factories is Rs. 25 lakhs. The total average number of operatives working in the factories was 2,787 in 1906 as against 3,303 in the year preceding".*

According to 1931 Census, "the number of cotton ginning and pressing factories also rose up to 1,929. An over-investment of capital occurred in this industry and led to the system of pools under which many factories remained idle and the lower number of factories that worked, created monopolistic conditions in the industry resulting in an increase in the cost of ginning and pressing. This operated as a fresh inroad of middlemen into the prices which agriculturists could obtain for their produce."

This industry acts as a feeder to the cotton spinning and weaving industry. With the emergence of Nagpur as one of the important textile and handloom weaving centres the industry flourished considerably.

Cotton is one of the major cash crops of Nagpur. Production of cotton in 1956 and 1957 was 51,000 bales (each bale consisting of 392 pounds) and 84,000 bales, respectively. Cotton which is the prime requisite of the ginning and pressing industry, is available locally as well as in the neighbouring districts of Vidarbha.

Out of the 16 factories, six were located at Saoner and four at Nagpur. There were three factories at Katol, two at Kondhali and one at Narkhed. The units generally worked seasonally, between November and April when the crops are harvested. During the off-season, the plant and machinery remain idle. Decorticators and expellers for crushing oilseeds were attached to a few factories which worked in off-season. Not all the units purchased cotton used for ginning and pressing. Some factories did so on behalf of their customers and charged them for the services rendered.

* C. P. District Gazetteers, Vol. A, Nagpur District (1908), p. 184.

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Ginning and Pressing.

Tools and equipment of these factories comprised steam or oil-engines, boilers, single or double roller gins, high and low pressure presses, drilling machines and cotton operators. Electricity was chiefly used as fuel along with diesel oil, groundnut husk, coal and wood. Ten units employed 956 workers, both men and women. The workers included engineers, engine drivers, boiler attendants, firemen, roll-cutters and ginmen. They were paid on monthly basis. The two textile mills in Nagpur demanded the major portion of the products of these units.

Leather-tanning.

One concern tanning raw hides and skins was located at Kamptee. It was established in 1949. It worked throughout the year, its working days in 1959 being 305. The fixed capital of the unit stood at Rs. 33,000 which included building and machinery valued at Rs. 25,000 and Rs. 5,000, respectively. The working capital as reported by the unit, was Rs. 1,50,000. The equipment comprised tanning pits, lime pits, washing tanks (*nivalan*), cutters, wooden blocks, marble stones, scythe, axe, and simple tools like *ari* (awl), *rapi* (knife), *tocha* (pokar) and *tipas* (wooden mallets).

The raw materials used were dry cattle hides, wet, salted buffalo hides and tanning material. The tanning material included lime, potassium dichromate, *babul* bark and *hirda* (*myrobalan*). The following table presents the quantities and value of various raw materials consumed during the year 1959:—

TABLE No. 7

Raw material	Quantity		Value in Rs.
(1)	(2)		(3)
	kg.		Rs.
1. Dry Cattle hides	4,53,00.000	(1,00,000 lbs.)	75,000
2. Wet salted buffalo hides ..	1,44,960.000	(3,20,000 lbs.)	1,60,000
3. Tanning material	2,81,049.720	(7,530 Mds.)	39,600

The raw materials were purchased from the neighbouring districts of Vidarbha and Madhya Pradesh. The pieces of hides used during 1959 numbered 20,000. There are two methods of tanning. One is known as 'bag tanning' which requires small amount of capital. The process of tanning is complete within a month. Other method is known as 'pit tanning' which needs higher initial investment. Generally speaking, the first method is commonly followed in the various districts of Maharashtra.

The hide is at first macerated in lime water to separate the hair and fleshy parts from it. When the hide is well soaked, the hair is scrapped with a scraper. The fat and fleshy parts are removed with a knife. After it is washed, the hide is soaked for three days in a solution comprising three parts of *babul* bark and one

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Leather-tanning.

part of *hirda* water. To tan the hide thoroughly, soaking is repeated thrice. Then it is tied into a bag with a stronger solution of *babul* bark and *hirda* water and hung up. It is then exposed to the sun for seven days. The process is completed when on the eighth day the hide is washed again, dried and oiled. The products of the unit included tanned leather and various soles, like buff soles, wax soles and press soles. The value of the products amounted to Rs. 2,90,000 in 1959. The products were sold in Bombay, Madras and Nagpur markets. Electricity was used as fuel. The annual consumption of electricity in 1959 was worth Rs. 1,000.

Workers were employed on daily wages. The number of workers employed during 1959 was 25 who were paid Rs. 22,000 as wages in the same year. There were five persons other than workers employed to look after administrative work. They received Rs. 5,000 as salary in the same year. The money value of other facilities and benefits accorded to them amounted to Rs. 500.

Glasswares.

There were two units at Nagpur engaged in the glassware industry. Their main products were chimneys, lampwares, bottles, jars, jugs, tumblers and flower vases. Manufacturing processes in these units mostly consisted of hand-operations and hence the magnitude of capital investment in fixed assets was smaller than that of working capital.

There were two units at Nagpur engaged in the glassware But they were not available in sufficient quantity. This retarded the manufacturing activity of the units. The shortage of high grade coal was accentuated with the commissioning of the Bhilai Steel Plant. Consequently, the units had to depend on coal available from Chanda. The high content of ash in it, rendered it unsuitable for use by the units.

The main processes of blowing, pressing and cutting were done by skilled persons by hand. Both the units worked for more than one shift. About 60 per cent of their total production was sold in Bombay and Calcutta markets. These units met only partially the demand for their products. It was assessed that their production was not oriented to the local demand. There was little competition between the products of the two firms as the nature of the product differed to some extent. In the case of certain commodities like chimney the sales were confined to rural areas. The units employed wholesalers for the sale of their products. In the outside areas, commission was paid, the rate of commission varying between 12 per cent and 25 per cent according to the type of product and volume of sales.

The percentage of skilled to the total number of employees was fairly high. The wage rates generally offered varied between Rs. 2.50 and Rs. 4.00 per day for a skilled labourer and between Rs. 1.25 and Rs. 1.75 for an unskilled labourer. The units reported difficulty in getting skilled labour at reasonable wage rates. The units favoured the setting up of a quartz crushing plant to ensure regular supply of sand.

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Saw Mills.

The most important forest produce in Nagpur district is timber, the noteworthy being teak among the superior varieties. The annual production of teak during 1955—1958 ranged from 22·6535 to 33·9802 metres (800 to 1,200 cubic feet). The bulk of it was consumed locally in furniture-making and residential constructions. *Khair* is used for preparing *kath* (catechu) and *Salai* for making packing cases (for packing oranges) and photo-frames. A number of saw mills were established at Nagpur to utilise the forest produce. Most of the 44 reporting concerns were located at Nagpur and Kanhan and worked perennially. Of these, 13 units were established between 1940 and 1950, and 31 units between 1950 and 1960. The number of working days per year generally varied between 275 and 312. One unit, however, worked seasonally for about 150 days.

The aggregate amount of fixed capital of all the reporting units taken together amounted to Rs. 14,61,230 as against the working capital of Rs. 19,42,122. The value of machinery varied from unit to unit but was generally below Rs. 10,000. The machinery consisted of bandsaw machine (electrically operated), circular saw, moulding machine, sharpening machine, grinder and electric motor. Electricity was the chief fuel and the annual consumption bill amounted to Rs. 84,093.

The principal item of raw material was wood (especially teak). The total quantity of wood consumed by reporting units during one year was 344589 metres (12,16,898 cubic feet). The reporting units employed 577 persons, comprising 519 workers and 58 persons other than workers. They were paid in a year Rs. 5,25,245 by way of wages and salaries.

The products of the industry were sawn timber and timber waste. The yearly product was valued at Rs. 78,67,481. Though there was sufficient local demand for the products, a part thereof found its way to Bombay and Calcutta markets.

Oil Mills.

Oilseed pressing is a fairly old industry. In former times, every village used to have its few oilmen and *ghanis* for the crushing of oilseeds. But in recent times due to competition from the oil mills, the artisans' business has declined.

The number of oil mills in Nagpur was four in 1960. Of the reporting oil mills, two were located at Nagpur and one at Katol. All the units were established after 1950. Two of them worked perennially and the other two worked seasonally. The latter did not operate in the rainy season when seeds were not available at moderate rates.

The aggregate fixed capital of the reporting concerns was of the order of Rs. 2,18,313 the major portion of which was accounted for by the value of land, building, machinery and equipment. Their working capital stood at Rs. 2,02,914. Though electricity was chiefly used as power, one unit used coal also. Their annual expenditure on fuel was Rs. 37,153.

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Oil Mills.

The machinery consisted of decorticator for dehusking the oilseeds, expeller for crushing the seeds, filter machines or filter pump for oil purification and electric motor for the generation of power. All the units, however, did not possess these items of equipment. Of these, expeller was the only common machine, owned by each reporting unit. The investment in machinery by the various units varied considerably.

As compared to groundnut, the area under cultivation of linseed is more in Nagpur district. The areas under cultivation of linseed and groundnut in 1956-57 were 32695.795 hectares and 4294.932 hectares (80,793 acres and 10,613 acres), respectively whereas their production amounted to 8495·79 metric tons and 3962·40 metric tons (8,362 tons and 3,900 tons), respectively. The corresponding figures for 1957-58 were 33727.340 hectares (83,342 acres) and 6010.801 hectares (14,853 acres) and 7965.496 metric tons and 5994.496 metric tons (7,781 tons and 5,906 tons), respectively. Perhaps this explains why the quantity of liseed crushed by the oil mills was more than that of groundnut. The value of annual consumption of linseed and groundnut taken together was placed at Rs. 13,15,431. The products of the mills included linseed oil, groundnut oil and oilcakes. These were sold for Rs. 14,06,494. The units employed 80 workers which included 20 persons employed in administrative and supervisory capacity. They were paid Rs. 42,477 by way of remuneration during one year. The products, viz., linseed oil, groundnut oil and oilcakes were sold locally and in the neighbouring districts of Vidarbha.

Foundry.

Of the five registered foundry units in Nagpur district, four were located at Nagpur and one at Kamptee. Some of them manufactured cast iron articles such as cinema fixtures, earthing plates, manhole covers, pulleys, spare parts of ginning machinery, oil mill accessories and cane crushers. Recently they have also undertaken the manufacture of metric weights. Others were attached to general engineering workshops. The two reporting units located at Nagpur, were established in 1930 and 1942, respectively. They worked throughout the year, their working days varying between 300 and 320.

The fixed capital of the two reporting units amounted to Rs. 1,55,312. Their working capital stood at Rs. 63,500. A relative concentration of various industrial establishments in Nagpur city ensured a steady demand for the products of these concerns. The tools and equipment of the units comprised cupola, moulding sands, various patterns necessary for moulds and the requisite tools for making these patterns.

The castings produced by some of the units were said to be somewhat defective in quality, as some of them had blow holes. This defect was attributed to one or more of such reasons as unsuitable composition of moulding sand, use of iron scrap as raw material and lack of proper knowhow. Persons from neighbouring centres like Gondia and Tumsar go to Nagpur for heavy castings because such work is not undertaken at those places due to inadequate equipment with them.

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Foundry.

The raw materials consumed included among others, pig iron, brass, wood, white metal, foundry sand and steel. All the units complained about the shortage of pig iron and foundry sand of appropriate variety. As the three giant steel plants at Rourkela, Bhilai and Durgapur have already gone into production, the supply position of pig iron is expected to improve. Most of the units financed manufacturing activities from their own resources. The value of raw materials consumed by the two units during one year amounted to Rs. 87,759. Besides electricity, hard coke was also used as fuel. The annual expenditure on fuel absorbed nearly Rs. 17,000. The products of the reporting units which included cast iron, manhole covers with frames, road boxes, cast-iron machine parts, collapsible gates and cast iron metric weights, fetched Rs. 2,54,700 during 1959. The products were generally sold locally to wholesalers and retailers.

The units experienced difficulty in getting skilled pattern makers and moulders. This shortage was the consequence of migration of skilled local workers to Bhilai. The reporting units employed 58 persons including 50 workers and eight persons employed in supervisory and administrative capacity. Their wage bill amounted to Rs. 40,151 in 1959.

Rice and Dal Mills.

Of the six reporting units, four were rice mills and two dal mills. The two dal mills were located at Nagpur and two rice mills at Ramtek. One of the reporting units was established as early as in 1932, two were established after World War II and three units after 1950. Five units worked throughout the year, their working days varying between 252 and 300. The rice mill functioning seasonally, operated nearly for 200 days in 1959.

The fixed capital of the reporting concerns amounted to Rs. 6,27,000 as against the working capital of Rs. 1,80,000. The amount of working capital does not appear to be commensurate with fixed capital. However, it was due to the fact that some units did not purchase raw materials. They only charged for milling and husking rice and dal. Electricity was the chief fuel, used, though mobile and crude oil was also used by some units. The total expenditure on fuel during one year stood at Rs. 20,206.

The machinery consisted of grinding stones, rollers, elevators and fillers. Crushers and hullers were used for polishing and husking rice or for crushing pulses. When flouring was undertaken side by side, a pair of millstones in the grinding machine and an electric motor or an oil engine were deemed necessary. The investment of various concerns in machinery differed considerably. The raw materials used were rice, *tur dal, lakh dal* and gram *dal* brought for husking and crushing. The value of these commodities, required during one year amounted to Rs. 41,45,427. The sale of products stood at Rs. 51,34,277.

The units employed 91 persons comprising 50 men, 24 women and 17 members of the supervisory staff. They were paid Rs. 46,246 as wages and salaries during one year.

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Rice and Dal Mills.

The products were mostly sold locally and the units did not encounter any specific marketing difficulties. But in some cases, the machinery was old and obsolete and needed replacement. Consequently the units needed funds for introduction of automatic machinery. However, the required capital was not readily available.

Printing and Book Binding.

In a city widely known for its cultural and educational activities, the existence of numerous presses is quite natural and inevitable. There are as many as 23 printing presses in Nagpur catering to the needs of the educational institutions and other customers. One of the 23 reporting presses was established as early as in 1896. The other 22 concerns were founded between 1914 and 1959. All the concerns worked perennially. The actual working days ranged between 287 and 350.

The fixed capital of the concerns amounted to Rs. 66,80,088 whereas their working capital stood at Rs. 20,96,086. The fixed capital of the largest press was Rs. 49,27,700 as against its working capital of Rs. 7,58,700. The fixed capital and working capital of the smallest concern amounted to Rs. 13,000 and Rs. 5,000 respectively.

The equipment and machinery of the various concerns differed according to the magnitude of their investment. Printing work consists of litho-printing, offset printing and block-printing. Prepartion of drawings and designs, cutting and book-binding, block-making and type foundry are some of the other processes undertaken. The machinery of printing and composing comprised cylinder printing machine, automatic cylinders, letterpress printing machine, treadle machine and hand presses. The binding machinery included stitching, cutting, ruling, perforating, punching, folding, numbering, eyeletting and card-board cutting machines. The printing machines in many of the presses were modern, consisting of offset machines, lino, mono and calendar printing machines, automatic caster, engraver and litho machines.

Power was used as fuel by most of the concerns. However, occasionally coal and firewood were also used as fuel. The annual consumption of power amounted to Rs. 76,380.

Generally only men were employed in these concerns. The total number of workers in the reporting concerns was 1,278 and Rs. 19,19,653 were paid to them annually by way of wages and salaries. Three big concerns employed more than 100 persons, two employed workers numbering between 50 and 100 and workers employed in the remaining concerns numbered less than 50, ranging from 8 to 45. The three concerns employing more than 100 persons paid Rs. 12,99,918 by way of wages and two employing workers between 50 and 100 paid Rs. 1,60,009 as wages.

The main raw materials of these concerns were paper, varnish, spirit, wax, ink, type metal, stationery and binding materials. Paper of various types like art paper, leather paper and brown paper was the largest single item of expenditure. Ink, glue, mobile oil, soap and kerosene were required for printing. Binding cloth, *rexine*, leather canvas, glue and cardboard were necessary for binding. Paper was purchased from big commercial

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Printing and Book Binding.

centres such as Bombay, Calcutta and Kanpur. Superior art paper was imported from foreign countries. Other raw materials were purchased locally or at Bombay. The three big concerns (employing more than 100 persons) purchased annually raw materials worth Rs. 32,23,126 while the remaining 20 establishments consumed raw materials worth Rs. 6,64,788.

Some of the establishments printed newspapers. Others were engaged in printing books, forms, magazines, bills, cash memos, labels, letter heads and handbills. The gross earnings of the three big presses amounted to Rs. 56,85,158 and those of others Rs. 13,11,564. The main difficulties of this industry were replacement of outmoded and worn-out machinery, obtaining raw materials and dearth of skilled personnel.

Ceramics.

One large-scale ceramic unit in Nagpur district was engaged in the manufacture of stoneware jars, cups, saucers and fire-bricks.

Its total investment amounted to Rs. 22·5 lakhs. The fixed capital of the concern stood at Rs. 10 lakhs which included machinery and equipment worth Rs. 5 lakhs. The unit had an installed capacity of 6803.88 kg. (15,000 lbs.) of stoneware jars and 50 gross of cups and saucers per day on a single shift basis. But due to the difficulties of transportation of raw materials, competition and labour trouble, it could utilise only 40 to 60 per cent of its installed capacity.

The raw materials included among others, china-clay, fire-clay, felspar, quartz, marble chips, pipe clay and gypsum. Fire-clay, china-clay, felspar and quartz were obtained from its own mines situated in Chanda [located at a distance of about 160.93 km. (100 miles) from Nagpur] and on the outskirts of Chhindwada district of Madhya Pradesh. In 1959, the consumption of these raw materials amounted to 3068·320 metric tons (3,020 tons), the quantity of fire-clay being about 60 per cent or 1828.800 metric tons. The chief fuel used was power, while coal and fuel oil were used for heating purposes.

The unit employed 514 workers in 1959. On an average a skilled worker was paid Rs. 3·00 per day whereas an unskilled worker earned Rs. 1.70 per day. About half of its total annual output was sent to the dealers and agents in Bombay. The rest was marketed through its own agents in Baroda, Nagpur and Andhra Pradesh.

The products of the concern faced competition in respect of quality and price from two other large-scale units in Vidarbha region and from units working outside the region. The sales of the concern which amounted to Rs. 8·2 lakhs in 1956, had increased to Rs. 10·47 lakhs in 1958.

Art Silk.

Nagpur is famous throughout India for silk-bordered sarees and cloth. With the changing times, the art silk industry has come to be established in Nagpur. There are four industrial concerns manufacturing, twisting and doubling art silk and rayon. All the reporting factories were located at Nagpur. Three of them

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Art Silk.

were established after Independence, while one was established in 1936. The nature of the industry is such that continuous and not intermittent production, is essential to run the industry on a profitable basis. Consequently, all the reporting factories worked practically throughout the year. However, the actual working days varied between 290 and 305. The products included cloth, embroidery and silk thread.

The fixed capital of all the concerns combined together stood at Rs. 3,49,985 while the working capital amounted to Rs. 2,38,297. The plant included the following items of machinery: (1) Winding machine (sometimes the thread winding machine was a hand-machine), (2) Twisting machine, (3) Boiler, (4) Warping machine, (5) Sizing machine, (6) Pin winding machine, (7) Doubling machine and (8) Electric generator.

Fuel.

Electricity was chiefly used as power. The bill for annual consumption of electricity amounted to Rs. 5,586. The concerns employed as many as 188 workers (both men and women). A sum of Rs. 1,29,046 was paid to them annually by way of wages and salaries.

Raw Materials.

The chief raw materials used were art silk, staple fibre, rayon yarn, dyes, chemicals and cotton yarn (of 20 and 30 count). The factories consumed 120572.111 kg. (2,65,987 lbs.) of raw materials, valued at Rs. 10,86,211. The total production of cloth was 368959·50 metres (4,05,450 yards) valued at Rs. 17,36,171.

The products were sold in Jubbulpore, Burhanpur, Kamptee and Raipur as well as in Bombay, Poona and other parts of India.

Ready-made cones of yarn are purchased from the market. In the winding department, the yarn is wound round the bobbins with the help of machines. The yarn is then twisted and doubled with the help of machines. This is done to strengthen the thread. Thereafter, threads are woven into cloth with the help of other machines.

The art silk and rayon yarn were mainly purchased from Bombay. As their supply was not adequate, the owners of these concerns found it difficult to secure the yarn at reasonable rates. The scarcity of skilled labour was another problem faced by the industry. Besides, the industry was also confronted with the difficulty of securing adequate finance for modernising the plant and machinery.

Dyeing and Bleaching.

Nagpur, an important centre of textile industry, is also quite famous for handloom weaving. This in its turn has given rise to some ancillary industries. Dyeing and bleaching is one of such industries which is tending to localize in Nagpur. It is a market-oriented industry, the demand being mainly local. Nagpur sarees are well-known throughout India for their fast colours. All the six reporting factories were situated in Nagpur. One of them was a Government Model Dye House. All the factories worked perennially. However, their working days ranged between 290 and 323. While only one factory was established in 1944, the rest were established after 1950.

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Dyeing and Bleaching.

Capital, tools and equipment.

The fixed capital of the reporting factories stood at Rs. 1,58,620 and the working capital at Rs. 3,26,448. The equipment of smaller concerns was simple and consisted of a few pots and pans for boiling and rinsing cloth. The dyeing was done by hand and no machinery was used. The Government Model Dye House, however, possessed elaborate equipment, including kier (a bleaching vat), hydro-extractor, dyeing tanks, boiler and bleaching tank. The value of these tools was reported to be Rs. 28,000. The Government had provided the dye house with land and building.

Fuel.

Electric power was used as fuel by the larger concerns. Other concerns used firewood and hard coal as fuel. Annually, fuel worth Rs. 14,172 was consumed by the various dyeing establishments.

Raw Materials.

The raw materials required by these factories comprised various colours and dyes, castor oil, sulphuric acid and other chemicals, soaps, etc. The raw materials were purchased locally as also from the Bombay market. The yarn and cloth were available at Nagpur. The factories used raw materials worth Rs. 9,58,864 during 1959. Individually the factory with a total capital of Rs. 1,00,941 consumed raw materials worth Rs. 62,339 in 1959. The value of the product (i.e., dyed and bleached yarn and cloth) amounted to Rs. 10,76,474. The products are in demand in all the districts of Vidarbha and Madhya Pradesh as well.

The total number of workers employed by these factories was 118 who were paid Rs. 88,720 annually by way of wages. Various factories employed workers numbering between 10 and 22. They were paid wages which varied between Rs. 9,264 and Rs. 28,833.

The fixed capital of the Government Model Dye House amounted to Rs. 43,000 (including the cost of the plant and machinery) whereas its working capital stood at Rs. 10,000. It employed seven technical and three non-technical persons who were paid Rs. 9,264 by way of wages. It consumed colours and chemicals, for processing of the yarn and cloth, worth Rs. 2,000. The following figures give the processing charges during 1959:—

Item (1)	Quantity (2)		Processing charges (3)
	Metres	Yards	Rs.
1. Bleaching Cloth	19,68,07.52	(2,16,272)	6,361.42
2. Dyeing Cloth	12,94.02	(1,422)	1,346.23
3. Yarn Dyeing	63,78.19	(7,009)	3,943.00

Paints and Varnishes.

There is one concern, sponsored by the Government of Maharashtra, manufacturing paints, enamels, varnishes, lacquers, oils and litho inks. It is situated at Kamptee. It is also engaged in mining manganese ore. It was established in 1948 and offered continuous employment to the workers. The fixed capital of the concern stood at Rs. 3,97,160 which included land and buildings valued at Rs. 1,76,849. Machinery, tools and other equipment accounted for Rs. 1,80,232. The machinery consisted of ball

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Paints and Varnishes.

mills, pug mixers, refiners, raymond and blower machines and an oil expeller. The working capital of the concern was Rs. 2,94,330. It employed 33 workers (including 3 women) and 12 persons other than workers. They were annually paid Rs. 15,373 by way of wages and salaries.

Fuel.

Coal and electricity were used as fuel. Consumption of fuel was placed at Rs. 7,830. The quantity of coal consumed amounted to 45·722 metric tons (45 tons) and that of electricity 23,552 kw. in the year 1957.

Raw Materials.

The principal raw materials used, were titanium dioxide, zinc oxide, white lead, rosin, borax powder, ultramarine blue, linseed oil, castor oil, barytes, talc, china clay, purple red oxide, yellow ochre and french chalk. The actual quantity of raw materials consumed was 315·992 metric tons (311 tons) valued at Rs. 1,62,205. Linseed, which constituted 50 per cent of the cost of oxide paints, was produced in Nagpur and Bhandara districts to the extent of 16256 metric tons (16,000 tons) per annum. Red oxide was available in Chanda and Yeotmal districts and in Bellary district of Mysore. Barytes and dolomite were obtained from Jubbulpore and Bilaspur districts of Madhya Pradesh.

The principal products of the concern in 1957 are detailed below:—

Item (1)	Quantity (2)	Value (in rupees) (3)
1. Paste	6,46,71.395 kg. (1,273 cwt.)	45,398
2. R. M. Paint	2,93,12.955 kg. (577 cwt.)	56,190
3. R. M. Paint	818.28 litres (180 gallons)	2,66,880
4. Aluminium Paint	590.98 litres (130 gallons)	2,876

The demand for the product originated in the three States of Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh and Mysore. The local demand emanated from the general engineering units engaged in automobile body-building and automobile repairing as well as from buildings under construction for residential and industrial purposes. The total annual capacity of the plant was reported to be 3657·8 metric tons (3,600 tons) of paints and 1219·3 metric tons (1,200 tons) of varnishes. The sale of the products of the concern amounted to Rs. 1,33,000 in 1956 and Rs. 2,04,000 in 1958. The products faced competition in the market from more popular brands. The concern mainly depended on Government orders for the sale of its product and no specific efforts were made towards the development of a general market.

The concern also raised manganese ore from the mines. The ore was raised at the cost of Rs. 35,220 and Rs. 4,635 in the years 1960 and 1961, respectively. It was sold for Rs. 23,206 and Rs. 2,803, respectively. As the concern was running into losses, it was leased out to private agency for management.

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Bidi-making.

Bidi-making was another small-scale industry localised chiefly at Kamptee and Nagpur. Out of the 19 factories, eight were located at Kamptee, seven at Nagpur and one each at Saoner, Khat, Kodamendhi and Dodhamendi. These units were either head offices or branch offices with their headquarters outside Nagpur district.

The labourers working in the factory premises were directly employed by the factory owners. Besides, middlemen and contractors who had their own feeder factories also supplied bidis to these factories. According to this system, the owners provided the middleman with a fixed quota of tobacco and leaves and asked for a fixed number of bidis in return for which commission was given to the middlemen. These middlemen, in turn, hired labourers and got the work done. The labourers were tied down to the middlemen who tried to exploit them. The remuneration received by the workers was far from satisfactory. They were paid between Rs. 1·25 and Rs. 1·37 per thousand bidis.

Bidi-making was entirely done by hand and there was little or no use of machinery. The tools required were simple instruments such as a brick furnace, metal trays for heating tobacco, a pair of scissors and a knife. The brick furnace was a peculiar construction of bricks for baking bidis. It was locally known as '*Tundoor*'. Its cost was usually in the neighbourhood of Rs. 2,000. Generally, a factory had two '*Tundoors*' and the baking capacity of a '*Tundoor*' was two lakh bidis at a time. The process of baking bidis required nearly 12 hours. The bidis were packed soon after baking so as to keep them crisp and fresh.

Raw materials comprised tobacco of different qualities, leaves, thread, packing paper and labels. Quality tobacco which was favourite with the people, was purchased at Nipani (in Belgaum district), Kolhapur and Kaira (in Gujarat State) markets. The leaves used for holding tobacco were generally '*Tembhurni*' leaves usually brought from Madhya Pradesh. The length of bidis was not uniform and varied according to regional demand. As such the quantity of tobacco required for 1,000 bidis varied between 349.91 and 524.87 gm. (30 and 45 tolas). Packing charges, though small, formed an important element of the cost of production.

The output of bidis manufactured was fairly small during rainy season when labourers were engaged in agricultural operations. It increased after harvest when they had more time at their disposal for bidi-making. The minimum wages per 1,000 bidis were fixed at Rs. 1·62 in municipal areas and Rs. 1·37 in non-municipal areas. The work did not involve special skill and as such there was a keen competition among the workers. It was observed that the rate of wages offered was low. Fifteen factories employed 3,597 workers in 1960.

Some of the factories had branches in Bhandara district and in the neighbouring districts of Vidarbha and Madhya Pradesh. They collected quite a large number of bidis from the feeder

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Bidi-making.

factories and the annual turnover of these factories was considerably large. The bidis were marketed all over Maharashtra as well as in other surrounding States.

The permanent staff of these factories very often included manager, accountant, cashier, bidi checkers or supervisors, and *Tundoorwallas*.*

Manufacture of Pipes and Poles.

One unit manufacturing R. C. C. pipes and poles was located at Kanhan. The concern was established in 1938 and worked perennially. The fixed capital of the unit stood at Rs. 7,87,765 of which Rs. 4,40,034 were accounted for by the cost of plant and machinery. The working capital as reported by the unit amounted to Rs. 12,86,157. The raw materials used for the production of R. C. C. pipes and poles included cement, steel, metal and sand. While cement and steel were available according to the quota allotted, metal and sand were purchased locally. The pipes were manufactured by the spun process.

Raw Materials.

The following figures give the quantities of the various raw materials consumed during 1959:—

Raw Materials	Quantity		Value (in rupees)
1. Cement	1,987.296	Metric tons.	2,34,732
2. Steel	804.672	Metric tons.	5,90,202
3. Metal	3,138.380	Metric tons.	58,284
4. Sand	3,195.136	Metric tons.	12,647

During 1959, the factory consumed 1,15,120 units of electricity which was primarily used as fuel. The factory had to pay Rs. 14,390 for consumption of electricity. The following statement lists different products and their prices in 1960:—

Name of the product (1)	Unit (2)	Quantity (3)	Value (in rupees) (4)
1. H. S. Shells	Rft.	6,060	4,65,121
2. H. S. Pipes	Rft.	2,480	
3. Hume Pipes	Rft.	1,10,100	12,50,968
4. Poles	each	105	18,375

The market for the products was mainly local though it also extended to the neighbouring districts of Vidarbha and Madhya Pradesh. The industry did not work to its full capacity. During 1959, it employed 133 workers who were paid Rs. 1,39,757 as wages and salaries. During the same year, there were 25 persons other than workers who received Rs. 66,038 as salaries. The money value of other benefits and privileges allowed to them amounted to Rs. 27,753.

*Persons in charge of baking bidis in *Tundoor*, a structure specially made of bricks.

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Soap Manufacturing.

There were 30 factories in Nagpur district which were engaged in the manufacture of soap. All the factories were non-mechanised and displayed considerable variations in their manufacturing activity. Of these, 19 produced between 50.802 and 203.210 metric tons (50 and 200 tons) of soap annually and the rest about 20.321 metric tons (20 tons) each. Most of the factories were located in Nagpur City.

Key statistics relating to 4 factories in Nagpur district (1958).*

(1) Number of factories	4	
(2) Number of workers	53	
(3) Total Capital (Rs.)	1,57,000	
(4) Fixed Capital (Rs.)	1,20,000	
(5) Installed Capacity (Metric tons)	802.644	(790 tons).
(6) Production (Metric tons)	524.282	(516 tons).

Average investment per factory amounted to Rs. 39,300. The ratio of fixed capital per worker also varied considerably. One factory reported Rs. 1,250 per worker as its fixed capital as against Rs. 333 reported by another. The factories in the district utilised on an average 75 per cent of their installed capacity. Because of non-availability of raw materials and the extent of demand for their products, their utilization of installed capacity differed significantly. The total production of washing soap, in Nagpur district, amounted to 1164.336 metric tons (1,146 tons) in 1958 (excluding the production of cottage units) of which approximately 10 per cent was exported outside the district.

The raw materials used comprised oil (cocoanut, cotton seed, *mahua* and groundnut), sodium silicate, rosin, colour and perfumes. The proportion in which the oils were used was decided according to the standard of the finished product. The factories did not use cocoanut oil in the desired proportion because it costs more than other varieties of oil. Instead, a higher proportion of sodium silicate was used. This affected the quality of the product.

The products of these factories generally catered to the demand from low income groups because of their lower prices. The average price of a cake and a bar of local soap was 25 paise and 75 paise, respectively, while the prices of imported cakes and bars of quality soap stood at 39 paise and Rs. 1.37, respectively. The imported varieties were priced higher on account of their superior quality and higher transport costs. By using sodium silicate in a smaller proportion the quality of soap can be improved. This, in turn, would create a stable demand for the local varieties.

* Source: Area Survey Report, Nagpur District.

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Soap Manufacturing.

One of the reporting factories, located at Nagpur, was established in 1947 and worked for 280 days in 1959. The fixed capital of the factory was Rs. 27,000 and the working capital was Rs. 50,000. The following raw materials were consumed during the year 1959:—

Raw-material (1)	Quantity (2)	Value in Rs. (3)
1. Vegetable oils	85.348 Metric tons	1,12,728
2. Caustic Soda	15.241 Metric tons	10,395
3. Sodium Silicate	762.036 kg.	315
4. Rosin	4.064 Metric tons	3,388

The raw materials required were purchased locally. The factory faced difficulties in obtaining necessary raw materials required to ensure steady and continuous production. The total production in the year was 135.135 metric tons (133 tons) of washing soap valued at Rs. 1,99,229. The products also found market in the adjoining districts. The factory employed 9 persons and paid them Rs. 8,500 annually as wages and salaries.

Sodium Silicate Manufacturing.

The demand for sodium silicate from soap and textile industries has encouraged the development of this ancillary industry. One small-scale factory manufacturing sodium silicate was located at Kamptee. The soap industry alone consumed as much as 70 per cent of its annual production whereas the remaining 30 per cent was utilised by the textile industry in Vidarbha region. The aggregate demand of the soap industry was of the order of 975.360 metric tons (960 tons) while that of the textile industry stood at 396.240 metric tons (390 tons) approximately, in 1958.

Raw materials consumed by the concern included soda ash, silica and coal. Of these soda ash and silica were imported from outside the district whereas coal was available locally. The factory could not obtain adequate quantity of soda ash on reasonable terms.

Its average investment and value of output per worker employed amounted to Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 13,200, respectively, in 1958. It used 80 per cent of its installed capacity in 1958. Not only the demand from the existing sources was expanding, but also additional demand from cardboard and paper industries was anticipated. The industry needed adequate supply of soda ash to enable it to exploit fully the potential demand. The availability of quartz found in the area in the form of silica sand may possibly bring down the cost of production of the industry.

Steel Furniture.

Two small-scale factories manufacturing steel furniture were located in the city of Nagpur. The Government Central Workshop at Nagpur also manufactured steel furniture on a very small-scale. The products of the factories comprised hospital

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Steel Furniture.

beds, folding beds, cabinets, almirahs, lockers, trollies, chairs, screens, wash-basins and stands. The following statement* gives the key statistics concerning the two factories (1958).

Items (1)	(2)
1. Capital Investment	Rs. 78,000
(a) Fixed capital	Rs. 50,000
(b) Working capital	Rs. 28,000
2. Installed Capacity	Rs. 6,00,000
3. Production	Rs. 1,50,000
4. Number of workers employed ..	Rs. 34,000

The Government and private offices, hospitals and business establishments of various kinds primarily constitute the demand for steel furniture. To some extent, these products are also in demand by individual families, their standard of living and ability to pay being the most influential factors in determining the extent of their demand. Various schemes of the State Government for expansion, improvement and setting up of new hospitals, dispensaries and sanatoria, together with the demand from Central and State Public Works Departments, will go a long way in stepping up the demand for steel furniture.

The two existing factories faced competition from the products of the reputed large-scale factories at Bombay and Calcutta. Imported products were superior in craftsmanship, durability and finish. The local products were cheaper, the price difference for various items varying between 16 and 41 per cent. The low priced wooden furniture offered stiff competition to the local steel furniture. No intermediaries were appointed by the factories for the sale of their products. The distribution of their products was confined to Nagpur and the neighbouring districts of Raipur, Jubbulpore and Bilaspur in Madhya Pradesh.

The annual requirements of the local factories in 1958 amounted to 406.400 metric tons (400 tons) of steel to work to full capacity on single shift. However they actually received 101.605 and 132.086 metric tons (100 and 130 tons) in 1957 and 1958, respectively. Thus they were more or less compelled to purchase steel in the open market at a high price. The inadequacy of quota of steel allotted to them forced these factories to work considerably below their normal capacity.

Roofing Tiles.

There were eight registered factories manufacturing tiles (Mangalore and Allahabad types) in the district. They employed 223 workers. These factories were partly mechanised. Their products were more durable due to lesser lime content in tiles. The factories worked seasonally, their activity being restricted mainly to the months from November to June. Two reporting concerns (one of them located at Umrer) manufactured both bricks and tiles. The factory at Kutti was established in

* Source : Area Survey Report, Nagpur District.

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Roofing Tiles.

1941 and that at Umrer in 1947. They operated seasonally, their working season coinciding more or less with the somewhat slack *rabi* season in agricultural operations. *Kharif* crops were more important than the *rabi* crops in the district. Hence part of agricultural labour employed in *kharif* season tried to seek employment in bricks and tile manufacturing during the *rabi* season.

The fixed capital of the two reporting establishments was Rs. 26,850. The major item in the capital structure was the value of land and buildings. The value of machinery, however, did not exceed Rs. 500. It consisted of kilns of different sizes for baking tiles and bricks, sieves, various types of wooden moulds for making bricks and other simple implements like *kudal, phavade* and *ghamele.*

The raw materials used, were suitable red earth, clay, half-burnt charcoal, coal-dust and other types of burning waste and horse-dung. On an average the value of raw materials consumed by the factories was in the neighbourhood of Rs. 4,500.

The factories produced tiles of two kinds viz., one cylindrical and the other triangular. Clay, horse-dung and kiln ashes are mixed in water for making tiles. Then cylindrical and triangular tiles are made with the help of potter's wheel and wooden mould. They are then dried and baked in the kilns. Red or black earth is at first sieved and the stones are removed. The kiln ash is mixed with it and then moistened. The mixture is afterwards pounded and turned into balls large enough to make a brick. Bricks are made finally from this mixture with the help of wooden mould. They are then dried and baked in kilns, the process of baking lasting for about a fortnight.

The labour force of the two reporting concerns comprised 24 men, 12 women and two supervisors. The annual wage bill came to Rs. 6,736. The total employment in the eight registered factories was 223. The total sale of the two reporting factories amounted to Rs. 15,000.

The sale price of Mangalore tiles manufactured locally stood at Rs. 200 per 1,000, while that of imported tiles (mainly from Bagra in Madhya Pradesh) ranged between Rs. 215 and Rs. 225 per thousand. On account of lower prices and more durable quality, the local products did not face competition from the imported ones in urban areas. In the rural area, the products of the cottage industry, were preferred as they were available at a lower price.

One of the factories located at Umrer was established in 1956. It manufactured only Mangalore tiles. The fixed capital of the unit stood at Rs. 58,000 and working capital at Rs. 10,000. The machinery included one pugging mill with crushing rollers (valued at Rs. 5,000 in 1956), pressing machines with moulds (including hand press, power press and revolving press), grinding machine for powdering the clay, saw machine for cutting firewood, and oil-engines.

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The number of workers employed during the season was 45 of which only two were permanent. The engine driver and the furnace attendant were paid Rs. 100 and Rs. 60 per month, respectively. The wages paid to women workers ranged between Re. 0.75 and Rs. 1.12 per day and those of men workers between Rs. 1.50 and Rs. 2.25 per day. The working day comprised eight hours and the workers were paid on weekly basis. Tiles were sorted into 3 classes on the basis of their quality and correspondingly their sale price varied as shown below:—

1. First grade ... Rs. 24 to Rs. 28 per 100 tiles.
2. Second grade ... Rs. 15 to Rs. 18 per 100 tiles.
3. Third grade ... Rs. 8 per 100 tiles.

Bicycle Parts and Accessories.

Nagpur market supplies bicycle parts and accessories to the customers in Nagpur, Amravati, Bhandara, Akola and Wardha districts. There was one unit located at Nagpur, which was engaged in the manufacture of spare parts for bicycles. The products included items such as frames, handles, mud-guards, etc. It assembled about 5,000 bicycles.

The factory was granted a quota of 385.064 metric tons (379 tons) of steel in 1956-57. But as it was reduced to 133.096 metric tons (131 tons) in 1958-59, it could not work to its full capacity in the same year. The comparative wholesale prices* of certain selected items are given below:—

Item (1)	Unit (2)	Nagpur (3)	Western Region (4)	Northern Region (5)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Chain-wheel ..	Set	6.00	7.50	6.50
Carrier	Doz. ..	18.00	25.00	27.00
Chain-cover ..	Doz. ..	11.00	15.00	13.30
Stand	Doz. ..	21.75	24.00	27.00

The value of spare parts produced by the factory every year was around Rs. 5.5 lakhs. In spite of keen competition faced from the products coming from Delhi and Bombay markets, it was able to market all its products. Its lower prices enabled the factory to withstand such competition. The demand prospects for the industry appeared bright. If the factory would undertake the manufacture of such additional items as lamp brackets, bracket sets and hubs, it would be able to meet to a considerable extent the demand emanating from normal replacement requirement within the district as well as the orders for spare parts placed by dealers and assembling units in Vidarbha region.

* Source: Area Survey Report of Nagpur and Bhandara Districts.

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Nagpur oranges are famous throughout the country for their excellent quality. Fruit preservation and canning is a resource-oriented industry localised in Nagpur. It avails itself of the orange crop in the Nagpur district. The industry comprised one large-scale factory, one mechanised small-scale factory and 19 cottage units. The large-scale factory was engaged in canning of fruits and vegetables. It also manufactured orange concentrates and orange segments, orange oil, juice, squashes and syrups. The other factories manufactured squashes, syrups, ice and also undertook canning and bottling of vegetables, fruits, and their juices, and preservation of perishable commodities like table and seed potato in artificially cooled chambers.

Three of the four reporting concerns worked perennially, their working days ranged between 264 and 299 while the other one worked seasonally. All the three concerns were established after 1947.

The fixed capital of the four reporting concerns was Rs. 26,69,430 and their working capital was Rs. 1,41,131. The value of plant and machinery of the two concerns amounted to Rs. 5,02,345. The machinery consisted of Frick and Duglous compressors, electric motors and other power-driven machines.

Electric power was used as fuel by all the units. The value of electricity consumed during 1960 was Rs. 1,10,534. The raw materials used included ammonia, potassium, calcium chloride, common salt, ice, fruits and vegetables. The value of raw materials used by the reporting concerns during 1960 was Rs. 10,41,379. The total consumption of oranges by the existing factories was 1,828.900 metric tons (1,800 tons). This, however, constituted only 2.5 per cent of the total annual yield of oranges in Nagpur district. The main difficulty was encountered in obtaining adequate fruits other than oranges for processing. Three concerns manufactured products worth Rs. 22,35,209 in one year. The total sale in 1958, of squashes and syrups amounted to 500 cases (each consisting of 12 bottles) equivalent to 50.802 metric tons (50 tons).

The small-scale factories distributed about 70 per cent of their products over an area of about 804.67 km. (500 miles) around Nagpur city (consisting of the eastern districts of Madhya Pradesh and Sambalpur and Rourkela in Orissa). The remaining 30 per cent were marketed in Vidarbha Region. The cottage units catered to the needs of local markets in Nagpur district. The large-scale factory sold its products throughout Maharashtra State. The various factories depended for their sales on different segments of the market and hence did not suffer much from the inter-state competition. The small-scale factories supplied about 63 per cent of the total sales of 3,500 cases of squash in Nagpur district. Their prices were lower than those of the imported brands.

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Fruit Preservation and Canning.

The four reporting factories employed 369 persons (including 63 women), the individual strength varying between 13 and 252. They were paid Rs. 88,720 by way of wages and salaries during one year. The existing factories did not work up to their maximum capacity due to restricted availability of graded fruits (as the grading of oranges was confined to the regulated markets) and the lack of adequate storage facilities. The small factories purchased glass bottles from time to time on a small-scale at the prevailing retail prices. This, in turn, added considerably to the cost of production of these factories.

Drugs and Pharmaceuticals.

There was only one factory in the district engaged in manufacturing drugs and pharmaceuticals. It was located at Nagpur. The factory established in 1948 worked throughout the year. Though the factory specialized in preparing Ayurvedic medicines, it made considerable use of power-driven machinery. Its products were marketed even outside the State.

The fixed capital of the concern amounted to Rs. 5,88,724, which included Rs. 35,238 by way of value of plant and machinery. The working capital stood at Rs. 1,88,987. The plant comprised various machines such as disintegrator, sieving and straining unit, end runner mill, mass roller machine, drying oven, tablet coating pan, monoblock pumping set, electric sealing machine, mill making machine, bottle filling machine, mechanical stirrer, ball mill machine and motors. All the machines were power-driven. The total consumption of electricity during 1959 was 17,400 K.W.H. The electricity bill amounted to Rs. 4,500. In addition, coke and firewood were also used as fuel. The quantity of coke and firewood used during 1959 was 177.809 and 24.385 metric tons (175 and 24 tons) valued at Rs. 7,956 and Rs. 544, respectively.

The following statement gives the principal raw materials used during the year 1959. While gur and sugar were locally available, dry fruits, camphor and mercury were imported from outside the district:—

Raw Material (1)	Quantity Kg. (2)	Quantity Lbs. (3)	Value (in Rs.) (4)
Gur	6,62,722.205	14,61,060	49,329
Sugar	18,669.764	41,160	24,288
Dry fruits	5,929.328	13,072	13,072
Camphor	167.376	369	1,830
Mercury	68.946	152	2,200

Though the concern was well-equipped to manufacture *asavas* and *arishtas, arkas, bhasma* and *churna, rasa* and *rasayana* and other patent medicines, it did not undertake the production

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Drugs and Pharmaceuticals.

of all these medicines. The reason was the inadequacy of the raw materials available and its sub-standard quality. This prevented the factory from working to its full capacity.

The following statement gives the relevant details regarding the products of the firm together with their values for the year 1959:—

Product (1)	Quantity (in kg.) (2)	Quantity (in lbs.) (3)	Value (in Rs.) (4)
Drakshasava	25,368.00	56,000	89,600
Ashokarishta	17,395.20	38,400	64,512
Chawanprasha	10,872.00	24,000	72,000
Pranada	9,295.56	20,520	92,340

The market for the products was mainly local. However, its products had a good reputation in inter-state markets. The factory employed 68 workers (including 9 women) whose wage bill amounted to Rs. 61,168 during 1959. In the same year, the rest of the staff comprised 43 persons who received Rs. 56,460 by way of wages and salaries. The money value of other benefits and privileges allowed to the staff accounted for Rs. 9,209.

Bone-meal Factory.

A bone-meal factory engaged in bone-crushing and preparation of manure was established at Kamptee in 1945. It worked throughout the year. The fixed capital, as reported by the factory, was of the order of Rs. 1,06,500 including the cost of plant and machinery which stood at Rs. 75,000. The working capital of the factory amounted to Rs. 4,50,000.

Electricity and steam coal were used as fuel which in 1959 were valued at Rs. 3,600 and Rs. 10,800 (for 12 wagons), respectively. The raw materials required by the mill included raw bones, hoofs, horns and sinews. The total quantity of raw materials used in 1959 amounted to 2,032 metric tons valued at Rs. 5,00,000. These raw materials were purchased from the neighbouring districts of Vidarbha and Madhya Pradesh regions.

The main products of the factory comprised manures, fertilizers and crushed bones. The following statement reveals the turnover of the various products manufactured during 1959:—

Product (1)	Quantity (2) Metric tons	Quantity (2) Tons	Value (in Rs.) (3)
Crushed bones	1,422.50	1,400	4,20,000
Bone grist .. .. / Hoof and horn meal .. .. / Manure of bones and sinews	406.42	400	1,40,000
Bone-meal fertilizers	203.21	200	50,000

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Bone-meal Factory.

The factory did not work to its full capacity. A part of the product, as reported by the factory, was exported to America and a few European countries. The factory faced difficulty in obtaining the requisite quantity of steam coal and corrugated iron sheets.

The factory employed 20 men workers and an equal number of women workers. The men workers were paid Rs. 10,140 by way of wages in 1959, and the women workers received Rs. 3,360. Five persons doing administrative and supervisory work were paid Rs. 3,000.

The machinery and tools consisted of rotary compact disintegrator, automatic rotary sieve, vertical boiler, cylindrical digester, baskets, axes, tools and weighing scales. The approximate price of these machines was placed at Rs. 32,000.

Process.

The bones are obtained in a wet condition when collected from slaughter-houses and beef packers and in dry condition from villages. If the quantity of marrow is negligible, the wet bones are allowed to age open in the sun. However, 10 per cent of recoverable fat, which can be sold at a good price, is found only in healthy cattle bones. Such bones are broken into smaller pieces with a hacking axe and are feeded to the digester having a capacity of 0.508 metric ton (half a ton) at a time. Steam is started till a pressure of about 4.536 to 9.072 kg. (10 lb. to 20 lb.) per square inch (6.451 cm.^{2}) is reached and the valve is then adjusted to maintain that pressure for about half an hour or so. All the greases in the bones get digested during this time. After that the steam is stopped and the water mixed with grease is allowed to flow in a settling tank, where the floating grease is skimmed off (by addition of hydrochloric acid, if necessary), filtered and stored for sale. This oil is useful to tanners as it possesses wonderful carrying and fatliquering properties on leather. The remaining bones are dried in the sun along with other dry bones and are taken up for crushing in exportable sizes. The dry bones are first broken into pieces with an axe, small enough to feed into a crusher and are crushed with 25.4 mm. to 38.1 mm. (1" to 1½") screen and are sieved in the rotating cylindrical sieving machine which separates the bones into different sizes of 4.7625 mm., 12.7 mm., 15.875 mm., 19.05 mm., 22.225 mm. (3/16", ½", ⅝", ¾" and ⅞"). Larger sizes are either sent for recrushing or for digestion for bone-meal.

The digester is charged with 0.508 metric ton (half a ton) of bones at a time. It is a cylindrical tank placed horizontally on the ground with a leakproof detachable door and firm bolts at the rim. The body is thick enough to withstand a steam pressure of 45.36 kg. (100 lbs.) per square inch (6.451 cm^2). Inside a perforated wooden or mild steel platform is fixed at the base, to allow the condensed water and greases from the bones to separate and flow down through the bottom outlet to the settling tank before opening the door after the digestions. The bones are digested at a constant pressure of 36.28 kg. (80 lbs.) per square inch (6.451 cm.^{2}) for one and a half to two hours when the bones get completely soft. The steam is then allowed to escape through

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LARGE AND SMALL INDUSTRIES.

Bone-meal Factory.

the top elevator valve and the condensed water is sent to the settling tank for recovering the marrow or is dumped into a pit to make compost manure which can be sold readily to the farmers. The digested bones are thoroughly dried in the open air and are pulverized with the beater-type of crusher into a fine powder, weighed and packed into bags for sale. Very often the meal is mixed in different proportions with synthetic fertilizers and soil conditioners and sold for different uses as manure. There are various other uses of bone-meal, the most valuable being as cattle feed to increase the milk yield and also as a poultry food.

Wooden Casings and Cappings.

There were six small-scale and 15 cottage factories engaged in manufacturing casings and cappings in Nagpur city. Two small-scale factories were mechanised while others were hand-operated. Wooden casings and cappings are used for electrical fittings and installations in household and industrial establishments.

Three factories in Nagpur had an aggregate fixed investment of Rs. 23,000. Their annual production amounted to 39,624 running metres (130,000 ft.) of casings and cappings in 1958. These units employed 15 workers. The amount of fixed capital per worker in these units varied between Rs. 1,200 and Rs. 2,500. Similarly, the production per worker varied between 2,043.5 and 3,048.0 running metres (6,700 and 10,000 running feet). One of the reporting mechanised concerns had a fixed capital of Rs. 14,000 and a working capital of Rs. 5,000 in 1960. It was situated in rented premises carrying a rent of Rs. 100 per month. It worked perennially, the actual number of working days being 280 in 1960. It employed 13 men workers and paid them Rs. 12,400 annually by way of wages, salaries and other benefits. Electricity was used as fuel and 3,288 K.W.H. of electricity was consumed in a year.

The machinery of the unit included electrically driven bandsaw machine, shaft and pulleys, circular saw, round block making machine, grooving machine, drilling machine and grinder. The total cost of plant, machinery, tools and other equipment stood at Rs. 6,000.

The main raw material required for the industry is teak wood slightly soft and one of direction grain. Teak wood is abundantly available in Nagpur and in the nearby areas. In 1960, one of the concerns consumed 226.535 cubic metres (8,000 cubic feet) of teak wood valued at Rs. 50,000.

The products of the concern included electric casings, battens, boards and blocks, all valued at Rs. 54,500 during 1960. The product catered to the local demand since there were no imports into or exports from the area. Cottage workers engaged in this industry offered competition to the small-scale factories by reducing their prices to the extent of 25 to 40 per cent.

Wooden Shuttles and Bobbins.

There was only one factory in Nagpur manufacturing primarily wooden shuttles and bobbins. It gave sub-contracts to about 10 cottage factories in Nagpur City for semi-finished wooden shuttles to be used in handlooms. The factory worked on double shift and engaged lathes for its manufacturing activities. Wooden shuttles are used by handloom weavers and every loom requires

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Wooden Shuttles and Bobbins.

three shuttles per annum. There is scope for expansion of the industry provided it undertakes the production of shuttles for powerlooms. Each powerloom, on an average, requires four shuttles per year. With two cotton textile mills having 3,012 looms, Nagpur City alone will require 12,048 shuttles per year.

The raw materials mainly include the sheesham wood of semi-hard varieties, tongs and eye-pieces. White sheesham wood was available locally whereas other materials were purchased from importers in Bombay. About 50 per cent of its products were distributed in Bombay, Indore and Bangalore. The factory lacked adequate finance needed for manufacturing metal tongs and for purchasing wood in bulk during the monsoon when it is cheaper than during the rest of the year.

Picture Frames Manufacturing Industry.

In 1958 there were 15 small-scale and 150 cottage factories in the picture frames manufacturing industry. All of them were located in Nagpur city. Cottage factories played a subordinate role in relation to the small-scale factories. Generally they worked as sub-contractors to some small-scale factories. They manufactured picture frames of *salai* wood of 38.10 mm. to 76.20 mm. (½" to 3") width and differing in varieties like plain, marble painted, silver and gold painted. Of the 15 small-scale factories, one was established in 1935, three were established between 1940 and 1950 and six were established between 1950 and 1960. All the reporting factories worked perennially. Their working days varied between 300 and 313.

The fixed capital of the reporting concerns was Rs. 2,78,874 and their working capital amounted to Rs. 5,98,475. The following table gives statistics relating to three small-scale factories in Nagpur city (1958).*

TABLE No. 8

Unit	Number of Workers	Capital (Rupees in thousands)			Production	
		Fixed	Working	Total	Quantity (bundles 000)	Value
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
A	60	15	30	45	60	180
B	70	23	19	42	90	250
C	40	3.7	N.A.	N.A.	45	130
Total ..	170	41.7	N.A.	N.A.	195	560

The machinery of the concerns consisted of drill machine, moulding machine, bandsaws, planing-machine, lathe, grinding machine, sharpening machine, spray gun and compressor. The value of the machinery in the different concerns varied between Rs. 6,000 and Rs. 13,000. However, in the case of one establishment it amounted to Rs. 35,000. The ten reporting concerns employed 632 workers, both men and women. They were annually paid Rs. 4,88,105 by way of wages. Power was used as fuel

*Area Survey Report of Nagpur and Bhandara Districts, 1962, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Government of India.

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Picture Frames Manufacturing Industry.

by larger units. Their bill for consumption of power absorbed Rs. 7,695. The smaller factories used simple type of machinery and hence required lesser fuel.

The raw materials consumed were *salai* wood planks, lithophone, carbon black, paints, gum, lemonchrome, spirit, shellac and sign paper. Except lithophone, everything is locally available. The main raw material of the industry was *salai* wood abundantly available in Nagpur and Bhandara districts. However, its supply being seasonal, it was not available to the units throughout the year at steady prices. The annual consumption of raw materials by the reporting factories was placed at Rs. 9,65,689. The products of the industry were valued approximately at Rs. 17,08,945. They did not face competition from imported goods as the prices of indigenous goods were much lower than those of the imported ones. Nonetheless, the products faced some competition from the cottage factories because their products were still cheaper, though inferior in quality.

The industry found it difficult to obtain adequate quantity of colours, chemicals, and such other non-indigenous raw materials. Secondly, *salai* wood was not available throughout the year at steady prices.

Wood Screws, Wire nails and Panel Pins Industry.

There was only one factory located at Nagpur manufacturing wood screws, wire nails and panel pins.

It has an installed capacity of 2,52,000 gross wood screws, 9.144 metric tons (9 tons) panel pins, 1,250 gross door handles and 334 gross tin containers [each with a capacity of 18.18 litres (4 gallons)]. The demand for wood screws, wire nails and panel pins chiefly emanates from the construction of buildings, railway coaches, wagons, ships, furniture-making, photo-frames, packing cases, etc. Demand for the product was increasing almost continuously on account of rapidly expanding construction activities in the area. The sales of wood screws increased by 44 per cent and those of wire nails and panel pins by 23 per cent during 1956-58. The relevant figures* are presented below:—

TABLE No. 9

Dealers	Sales in 1000 gross of wood screws			Sales of wire nails and panel pins					
	1956	1957	1958	1956		1957		1958	
				Metric tons	Tons	Metric tons	Tons	Metric tons	Tons
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
A	13	15	19	20.321	(20)	22.353	(22)	25.401	(25)
B	31	36	45	23.369	(23)	25.401	(25)	28.449	(28)
C	24	29	35	18.289	(18)	19.305	(19)	22.353	(22)
Total ..	68	80	99	61.979	(61)	67.059	(66)	76.204	(75)

* The statement is compiled on the basis of data furnished by the dealers contacted.

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Nearly 70 per cent of the products were sold locally. The rest was exported to Gujarat and Madhya Pradesh. The production was 53,142 gross in 1954. It rose to 1,21,665 gross in 1958. Existence of idle capacity was mainly attributed to the non-availability of an adequate supply of the chief raw materials.

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Brick-making.

Just like Pottery, Brick-making was also carried on as a cottage industry at many places. The industry mainly met the day-to-day demand for bricks arising from the construction of new houses and repairs to old ones. Where the manufacturing activity was carried on, on a small-scale, the production mainly catered to the local demand. It was a seasonal occupation practised generally by artisans between October and May. Abundant supply of water facilitated the working of this industry. The raw materials required were earth and ash whereas the items of fuel were coal and wood. The furnaces for baking bricks (locally known as *bhattis*) were either rectangular or square in size with a capacity of 50,000 to 75,000 bricks. The length, breadth and height of the rectangular furnace was usually 4·572 metres (15 feet), 3·658 metres (12 feet) and 2·134 metres (7 feet), respectively. The brick with a length, breadth and height of 0.23 metre (9 inches), 0.115 metre (4½ inches) and 0.08 metre (3 inches), respectively required a mould of 0.245 metre (9½ inches) in length, 0.107 metre (4¾ inches) in breadth and 0.905 metre (3½ inches) height, respectively. The process of baking bricks was spread over 15 days. The cost of making 1,000 bricks varied between Rs. 25 and Rs. 27, and their selling price between Rs. 30 and Rs. 35. Mansar, Ramtek, Pavni were the important market places where a large turnover was recorded. Trucks provided the means of transport for carrying bricks to the market places.

Bricks were made with the help of moulds and labourers well experienced in the line were usually hired. They also helped in arranging the bricks into the furnace (this operation is locally known as *bharai*) and in taking them out (locally known *upsai*). In a few cases it was observed that the artisans made tiles side by side with their main product, *viz.*, bricks.

Bidi-making.

Bidi-making was another cottage industry, next in importance to weaving. It provided subsidiary source of income to agricultural labourers who were not gainfully employed throughout the year. As it required little or no capital investment and demanded no special skill, illiterate and unskilled artisans could take to this profession. Besides important bidi-making centres such as Kamptee, Saoner and Nagpur, persons engaged in this calling were scattered in the mofussil area throughout the district.

Generally these workers were employed by contractors who provided them with all the necessary material like tobacco, leaves and thread and asked for bidis in return. The length of the bidis varied and so did the quantity of tobacco. The wages were fixed at Rs. 1·62 per thousand bidis in the municipal areas and Rs. 1.37 per thousand bidis in the non-municipal areas.

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Bidi-making.

These contractors had their feeder factories where they collected bidis from workers and sent them to registered factories. They received agreed commission for their services. The owners of these registered factories gave a fixed quota of necessary raw materials to the middlemen and asked for a fixed number of bidis in return.

In some cases, bidi-making was undertaken by all the working members of a family in their residential premises. In the rainy season, the family busied itself with agricultural operations and the tempo of bidi-manufacturing slowed down. It gathered momentum after the harvest and continued to be brisk till the onset of monsoon.

There were four unions of bidi-workers in the district during the year 1957-58 having total membership of 3,447. Their subscription fees and other receipts amounted to Rs. 5,447 against the expenditure of Rs. 4,681.

Brass Utensils Industry.

This was one of the major cottage industries of Nagpur district. The size of the industry, unitwise, differed considerably. According to 1951 census, there were more than 50 cottage units engaged in this industry and one unit, working on a small-scale, was registered under the Factories Act. Processes carried out in these units were rarely mechanised and generally hand-operated. A major proportion of capital of the small-scale unit was invested in fixed assets.

The dealers in utensils and owners of factories hire artisans on piece-rate basis, the rate varying between Re. 0.87 and Rs. 1.12 per 0.933 kg. (one seer) of brass.* This rate is inclusive of the cost of solder, acid, flux and fuel required for manufacturing process. The daily earnings of a worker varied between Rs. 1.50 and Rs. 2. However, they decreased during the slack season.

Stainless steel utensils offered competition to the brass utensils industry. However, as the imports of stainless steel were restricted in the context of the scarcity of foreign exchange, the prices of the stainless steel utensils were higher. The introduction of glassware, chinaware, plasticware had adversely affected the demand for and consequently the sales of brass utensils. Still, according to the estimates of dealers contacted, the sales of these utensils amounted to 4,47,890 kg. (12,000 maunds) in Nagpur district.

The moderate prospects for the industry as a whole and the unutilised capacity of the existing units precludes the establishment of new units. However, the industry could be placed on sounder footing through the formation of a co-operative society.

Pottery-making.

Pottery-making was one of the important cottage industries of the district. It was the hereditary calling of the *Kumbhars*. The chief artisan was helped by other members of his family. The best earthen vessels produced in the district were at Ramtek,

* It means when the worker turns out utensils weighing 0.933 kg. (one seer) he is paid between Re. 0.87 and Rs. 1.12.

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Pottery-making.

Parsconi and Koradi. The pilgrims coming to the Ambala fair purchased the earthen-wares produced at Ramtek. The number of potters in Nagpur district at the end of 1960 was 556.* The important centres of pottery-making were Narkhed, Saoner, Kalmeshwar and Bhiwapur where a considerable number of *Kumbhar* families were found to be engaged in this industry.

The tools of a potter consisted of a wodden or an earthen wheel (known as "potter's wheel"), brick-kiln for baking earthen pots and wooden moulds of various shapes and sizes for making clay toys. Red as well as black earth was used for making earthen pots. Red earth is at first mixed with horse-dung and soaked in water for some time before earthen pots are finally produced. The mixture is then kneaded properly and trodden twice. The clay is then given the required form by being pressed on the rotating wheel. The pot is enlarged and strengthened by continued handling, turning and application of fresh mud till it acquires the requisite shape. The pots are then dried and a solution of red chalk and black earth is applied externally. The pots are finally baked in the kiln. Rice husk and cow-dung are spread at the bottom of the kiln and the pots are buried in rows below the husk. The kiln is set fire to and the pots are taken out after the husk and cow-dung turn into ashes.

The manufacturing activity is usually in full swing during the summer season, when the labourers are not busy with agricultural operations and the demand also shows an upward trend. During the rainy season, the potters are engaged in making toys, dolls and idols for the festival days.

The earth required in the prepartion of the pots was brought from the neighbouring villages. The price of one cart-load of black earth was one rupee and that of red earth Rs. 1.50. Baking of earthenware valued at Rs. 25 required fuel worth Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 and earth worth Rs. 3 (two cart-loads). A family of eight persons produced during one week earthen pots valued at Rs. 40 for which it consumed earth and fuel worth Rs. 25. Thus the average earnings of a worker per week amounted to Rs. 3 approximately.

The markets for these products, which included *ghagars*, *deras* and *khujas* and small-sized *madkis* was restricted mainly to the district. The demand came from the poorer sections of the society and hence products fetched relatively low prices. In some cases in the mofussil area, the earthen vessels were directly exchanged for grains.

The markets at the various taluka places and commercial centres provided an opportunity for the sale of these articles which could not be carried to distant places as they were exposed to breakage in transit.

* According to the survey conducted by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Government of Maharashtra.

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Weaving and Dyeing.

Weaving was the most important cottage industry of Nagpur district which provided employment to a considerable number of people in rural areas. It was a typical industry giving employment to the landless labourers, having no other means of subsistence. This industry provides a welcome relief to the increasing pressure of population on land and to the hard-pressed people in mofussil area who cannot follow any other profession due to illiteracy and paucity of funds. The weavers, mainly coming from the Koshti community, specialized in the weaving of silk-bordered cloth. As early as 1901, the population of Koshtis was 44,020 which represented six per cent of the total population of the district.

Some of the weavers were reluctant to give up their looms which was tantamount to losing their independence. They were content with lower incomes. Dhapewada (in Nagpur tahsil), Khapa (in Ramtek tahsil) and Nagpur were famous for *sarees* made of dyed yarn. Umrer was renowned for dhotis and *uparane* (shoulder-cloth) with *jari*-border. Bina and Mouda were well-known for good cotton cloth whereas Kalmeshwar specialised in cotton *sarees*. In the first decade of this century, the *Garpagaris* whose hereditary profession was to protect crops from hail-storm, earned their livelihood by making coarse *newar* cloth used for bedding. They resided chiefly in large towns and at Bela in Umrer tahsil. The *Rangaris*, who dyed the cotton yarn for the coloured cloth used to make *jazams* (carpets) and *razais* (Quilts) at Patansaongi, Saoner, Sawargaon, Narkhed and Bhiwapur. Hemp-matting was woven by the *Bhamtas* at Kamptee, Nagpur and Gauri (in Ramtek tahsil). They also made net bags for holding cotton in the busy season. The *Bhamtas* at Nagpur and Makardhokra used to make thick screens (*tarats*) and ropes of san-hemp (flax).

Though there were some important weaving centres like Mouda, Umrer and Khapa, weavers in large number of villages were found to carry on their business with the help of members of their families. Outside labour was rarely employed. But the earnings of families were hardly sufficient to meet their bare necessities of life. While women did the work of warping, drawing in, denting and winding of yarn, men devoted themselves exclusively to weaving. In some cases, the commission agents supplied weavers with yarn and they did weaving for which they were poorly paid.

According to 1951 Census, there were 43,483 handlooms in Nagpur district, supporting 2,17,500 weavers (*Momins* and *Koshtis*). Due to spread of the co-operative movement, weavers were deriving numerous benefits. A considerable improvement was seen in their standard of living.

Dyeing was a cottage industry complementary to weaving and was followed as a profession by a considerable number of people. They used indigenous colours and their methods of dyeing were crude. Almost all the processes were executed by hand labour. While *Rangaris* specialized in the dyeing of cotton yarn for coloured cloth, the *Patwis* (braiders) devoted themselves to dyeing silk. Their incomes varied according to the seasons, but the standard of living in general was poor.

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Leather-working.

Leather-workers (*Chambhars, Mochis*) are found in all towns and in most of the large villages. Though the *Chambhar* holds a very low position in the social scale, he has always held an important position as a craftsman. He is still one of the beneficiaries of the *baluta* system of village economy. After the introduction of the machine-made leather goods, which are finer and superior in quality, this cottage industry has suffered considerably. The large-scale leather factories at Kanpur, Lucknow, Calcutta and Madras have almost captured the market for leather goods. Consequently the economic position of the leather workers has been seriously affected.

The industry provides a source of livelihood to 15,318* persons in the district. Almost all the leather workers in Nagpur district are hereditary *Chambhars* and *Mochis*.

Main centres of this industry are at Nagpur, Umrer, Ramtek, Kamptee, Kanhan, Saoner, Khapa, Katol, Kalmeshwar and Narkhed.

Tanned leather or rubber for soles, chrome leather for uppers, skins, hides, nails, polish, rings and buttons constitute the raw materials for a leather worker. The leather for soles is purchased by the artisans at Nagpur. Chrome leather is brought from Kanpur, Lucknow and Madras.

The tools and equipment of a *Chambhar* consist of *ari* (awl), *rapi* (knife), *airan* (anvil), *hasti* (hammer), *patashi*, *pakkad*, wooden blocks, etc. The entire set of tools costs about Rs. 70. Some of the well-to-do artisans own a sewing machine costing about Rs. 400.

Most of the leather-working establishments are family concerns engaging the services of members of the family. In towns, however, bigger artisans engage workers either on daily wages or on piece-rates. Average earnings of an artisan range between Rs. 2 and Rs. 4 per day. A highly skilled artisan can earn about Rs. 5 per day.

Even though most of the artisans work throughout the year, the rainy season is a period of dull business. Some of the artisans find employment in agriculture during the rainy season and at the time of harvesting.

The leather workers in this district make *chappals*, *vahana*, shoes, slippers, *mots*, *pakhals*, leather bags, etc. The price of a pair of chappals approximates Rs. 4, that of *vahana* Rs. 3.50, of shoes Rs. 14, of slippers Rs. 11, of *mot* Rs. 100, and of leather bag Rs. 10. All these articles find a local market. Since the development of co-operative societies, the sale side of the business has been considerably eased for the artisans. The societies sell the products of the members.

* As per 1961 Census, which includes, in this category leather-cutters, wasters and sewers (except gloves and garments) and related workers. The figure given for shoe-makers and shoe-repairers is 14,740.

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Leather-working.

In 1959, there were 10 co-operative societies of leather workers in this district. The Nagpur District Leather Industrial Co-operative Society, Ltd., which was established in 1945 is the most prominent society. The co-operative societies in the district commanded a membership of 272 and had working capital of Rs. 1,96,536 in 1959. Up to the end of August 1959, they had secured loans to the tune of Rs. 1,18,750 from the Government and the co-operative banks.

Blacksmithy.

Blacksmithy is a hereditary occupation of the *Lohars* and *Panchals* who make and repair agricultural implements, building material, etc. This occupation was an integral part of the rural economy from ancient times. The *Lohar* was formerly a member of the class of *balutedars*.* This industry provides employment to 15,144† persons in this district. The artisans at Nagpur and Kamptee have specialised in the manufacture of buckets, pans, chains and units of measure, etc.

The industry is mainly located at Nagpur, Kamptee, Katol, Saoner, Khapa, Umrer and Ramtek. With the growth of small-scale industries around Nagpur, Kamptee and Kanhan, the local blacksmiths have been finding favourable demand for their manufactures. Services of the blacksmiths are highly in demand for the preparation of accessories, spare parts, repairs, fixtures, etc.

The materials used by a blacksmith comprise iron-sheets with gauge varying from 10 to 30, round bars and flat bars. Old tins and scrap materials are used for repair works.

The blacksmiths usually own their establishments. The capital invested by an individual blacksmith ranges from Rs. 300 to Rs. 500. The tools and equipment of a blacksmith consist of anvil, furnace, bellows, sledge hammers, *sandashi*, files and chisels. Most of the tools are of a rough and primitive nature.

The Block Development authorities impart training in the use of improved tools and refined methods of working at training centres at convenient places in the district.

Blacksmiths in this district make articles such as, axes, spades, furrows, sickles, hoes, axles of carts, cart wheels, frying pans, flat pans, sieves, prongs, nails, etc. All these articles command a local market. There is always a ready demand. Very often the blacksmiths get orders from the agriculturists who sometimes give metal sheets or bars required for making the articles. In such cases the blacksmiths get only the wages for their services.

Daily gross earnings of a blacksmith range between Rs. 5 and Rs. 8. An employed worker gets about Rs. 3 per day. Earnings in the urban areas are far better than those in the rural tracts.

*The Baluta system, which formed part of the socio-economic structure of rural India, meant the payment of wages in kind for the services rendered by the village artisans. The system is, however, fast declining.

†As per 1961 Census, which includes in the category Blacksmiths, Hammersmiths and Forgemen.

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Blacksmithy.

Generally, a skilled blacksmith seldom encounters any threat of unemployment. It is only rarely that he may face casual unemployment due to irregular supply of iron sheets and bars.

The artisans have begun to realise the importance of forming co-operative societies. In 1959, there were 5 co-operative societies of blacksmiths and carpenters in the district. The co-operatives had a membership of 106, share capital amounting to Rs. 4,413 and working capital Rs. 6,310. The co-operative movement has been extending financial as well as technical assistance to the artisans.

The economic conditions of the artisans have shown signs of improvement with spread of the co-operative movement among the artisans in this cottage industry.

Carpentry.

Carpenter was an important member of the *baluta* system which formed an integral part of the rural economy for centuries. Under the *baluta* system, he was paid in kind, i.e., in terms of a certain quota of food-grains, vegetables, etc., for rendering the essential services to the cultivators. These artisans, known as *sutars*, who were hereditary professionals, were engaged in the making of agricultural implements, building materials and furniture.

The occupation has retained its place in the economy in spite of far-reaching changes in the socio-economic structure. In fact, with the increased pace of building activities, the services of the carpenters are highly in demand. They are scattered all over the district, and every village has its own carpenters. The most important centres of the industry are Saoner, Kalmeshwar, Narkhed, Katol, Nagpur, Umrer, Kuhi, Bori, Kondali and Kalamb. Nagpur is the biggest centre of the furniture-making industry in Vidarbha. Carpenters in Nagpur are skilled in wood carvings of excellent designs and artistic patterns. The gateway of the Bhosle's palace at Nagpur and the Rukmini temple which exhibit beautiful carvings and linear decorations bear an eloquent testimony to the Nagpur carpenters' dexterity.

The Gondawana forests which extend over parts of this district produce quite a good quality of timber. Besides, the Chanda forests, which are not far off from Nagpur, are very rich in teak of good quality. The famous Chanda teak, is assembled at and distributed from Nagpur.

This fact has encouraged the development of the furniture-making industry in Nagpur rather than at any other place.

For making packing cases for oranges and photo-frames,* the carpenters use *salai* wood, a peculiar specie of the Satpuda forest ranges.

The cost of teakwood varies from Rs. 12 to Rs. 20 per 0.028 cubic metre (per cubic foot) depending upon the quality; nails cost Rs. 2.50 per kilogram and polish Rs. 4 per bottle.

*Photo-frame making is also one of the major occupations in Nagpur city. There are about 150 establishments engaged in this occupation at Nagpur.

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Carpentry.

The *Sutar's* tools comprise (their prices given in brackets) *wasala* (Rs. 10), *patasi* (Rs. 5), *ari* (Rs. 10), *girmit* (Rs. 5), whet stone (Rs. 2), *karwat* (Rs. 7), *hatoda* (Rs. 2), *gunya*, *chhani* (chisels), *randha*, screw-drivers, *pakad*, etc. The entire set costs about Rs. 150.

Investment by the carpenter is mainly confined to tools and a certain quantity of teakwood, *salai* wood, *babhul* wood, etc. As the quantity of wood with individual carpenters varies, the capital value of it cannot be exactly found out.

The carpenters mainly prepare furniture, agricultural implements such as plough, hoe, coultered drills (*tipnan*), *phawade* and bullock-cart. Building construction provides them with gainful employment. Besides, their services are availed of for repairing these articles.

The carpenters find a demand for their articles in the local areas. The furniture manufacturers at Nagpur export furniture to the nearabout towns.

The daily earnings of an artisan in the urban area range from Rs. 4 to Rs. 7 per day. In rural areas a *sutar* earns between Rs. 3 and Rs. 4 per day.

There is a carpentry Training Centre at Katol where the artisans are imparted training in the use of improved methods of carpentry. Similar facilities are provided by the Block Development authorities at Saoner, Kuhi and Mouda. The Government extends financial assistance to the carpenters through their co-operatives.

Bamboo-working.

Making articles such as chicks, mats, fans and sieves has been the hereditary occupation of *Buruds* and *Mangs*. "Their industry is of some importance in Kalmeshwar, and their average income is Rs. 15 a month. Brushes and mats of date-palm leaves and scale-pans are made by Mangs." The *Kaikadis* who are a nomadic tribe are famous for making baskets from stalks of cotton plants, etc.

The bamboo-working industry is mainly found at Kalmeshwar, Nagpur, Mohpa, Narkhed, Katol, Kondhali, Ramtek, Umrer and Saoner. The expansion of orange cultivation and the subsequent increase in the demand for baskets and *karandis* for packing purposes has led to an increase in the demand for the services of these artisans and their products. In the orange seasons, *viz.*, October, November, April and May, lakhs of *karandis* are exported to all the big cities of India. During the peak of the season hundreds of artisans are busy working over schedule to meet the demand for baskets and *karandis*.

Bomboo which is the main raw material required for this industry, is obtained from the forests in the district. Bamboo strips and strings are taken out with a sickle. Generally men take out bamboo strips and women make the various articles.

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Bamboo-working.

Besides *karandis* and baskets, the *Buruds* and *Mangs* make *duradi* (sieve), *rovli*, *hara*, *sup* (winnowing fan) and *tattya* (bamboo mat). The cost of producing these articles and their selling prices are given below*:—

Article (1)	Cost (2)	Selling price (3)
	Rs. p.	Rs. p.
Sieve (*Duradi*)	0 44	0 62
Winnowing fan (*Sup*)	0 30	0 50
Hara	1 00	2 00
Karandi	0 50	0 75

All the artisans are found to use very crude and outdated tools. Tools and equipment consist of *koyata* (sickle), knife, chisel cutter and wooden blocks. Cost of the set of tools and equipment ranges between Rs. 20 and Rs. 30.

The initial capital investment required by the artisan is small. The earnings of an artisan depend mainly upon his skill. The average daily earnings of an artisan amount to Rs. 1.50. The occupation does not provide them with fulltime employment throughout the year. In the rainy season some of the artisans are required to take recourse to agricultural labour. The economic position of the artisans is miserable. The earnings from the occupation do not allow them even moderate living standards.

Oil-seed Crushing.

It was one of the important cottage industries in the past and its importance has not significantly diminished even with the advent of oil-milling industry on a mechanical scale. The oil-men used to cater to the requirements of oil of the entire population. Almost every village had a few *telis*, who used to follow it as a hereditary occupation. With the mechanisation of the industry, the oil-man found himself a weaker ingredient of the economic structure of the rural as well as the urban areas. Even though the ubiquitous character of the industry is intact, the economic position of the oil-man has been badly affected.

Nagpur district is an oil-seed producing area. The main oil-seeds produced are cotton-seed, linseed, sesamum and groundnut. The annual average production of the oil-seeds is normally as follows: groundnut 4,439.920 metric tons (4,370 tons), sesamum 1,948.688 metric tons (1,918 tons), linseed 7,393.439 metric tons (7,277 tons) and castorseed 66.040 metric tons (65 tons).

Oil-crushing provides employment to many artisans in the district. Almost all the artisans, except a few, are hereditary *telis*.

The main centres of the industry are Nagpur, Ramtek, Mansar, Saoner, Kondhali, Katol, Patansaongi and Kalmeshwar. Ramtek and Umrer tahsils are famous for linseed-crushing, whereas in Katol tahsil groundnut-crushing is found on a larger scale.

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Nagpur District, by Mr. R. V. Russell, 1908, page 182.

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Oil-seed Crushing.

The oil-men purchase the oil-seeds usually at the time of harvesting when the prices are lower. Groundnut, linseed, sesamum and castorseed are purchased from the cultivators, while cottonseed is purchased from the ginning factories. The price of groundnut ranges from Rs. 70 to Rs. 90 for 111.973 kg. (*palla* of three Bengali maunds). The price of cottonseed ranges from Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 per *palla*.

Telghani constitutes the principal item of the equipment required by the oil-men. At most of the places the traditional *Kolu ghani* is used, though a number of progressive oil-men have taken to the modern and improved types, *Nutan ghani*, *Nutan Wardha ghani* and *Erandol Telghani*. The *Kolu ghani* consists of a wooden mortar* which holds seed and a wooden cylinder about 1.219 metres (4′) high fitted right in the centre of the mortar with a heavy cross-beam on the top in a standing position, one end of which rests about 0.305 metre (a foot) from ground. A semi-circular block of wood is attached to the lower part of the mortar with a piece of wood projecting and forming a right angle with the upper beam at the end near the ground. On this piece of wood a large stone is placed which is connected with the upper beam by means of ropes. As the ropes are tightened and the block rises, the pressure of the cylinder is increased. A blind-folded bullock is yoked to the upper beam. As the bullock goes round the mortar the cylinder revolves and thereby the seeds are crushed. Oil is squeezed out and falls to the bottom of the mortar while the residue forms into a solid mass round the sides of the mortar as oilcake. The cost of a *ghani* is about Rs. 300 to Rs. 400.

The process of oil-crushing which requires operations such as threshing and cleaning the groundnut, crushing the seeds and taking out the oil and cake is spread over a period of three to four hours. Consequently an oil-man can turn over only three *ghanis* a day.

The oil contents of groundnut seed range between 30 per cent and 40 per cent, of sesamum between 35 per cent and 40 per cent and of linseed between 28 per cent and 32 per cent.

Very often the oil-man takes the help of family members for operations like cleaning and threshing the oil-seeds and marketing the oil. Some oil-men hire outside labour also. The average daily net earnings of an oil-man amount to Rs. 5 whereas a person employed by him is paid Rs. 1.50 per day.

Oilcake is the main by-product of the industry. Oilcake which is an excellent cattle-feed is purchased by the farmers for feeding bullocks. The price of oilcake ranges from Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per 111.973 kg. (*palla* of three maunds). The poor use the oilcake of sesamum and coconut in the preparations of vegetables.

*The mortar is called *ukhali*, and the wooden cylinder is known as *lat* in Nagpur district.

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Oil-seed Crushing.

The occupation keeps the *teli* (oil-man) busy almost throughout the year.

Government have provided facilities for training the artisans in the improved methods of crushing and use of better implements at Nagpur. In 1959-60, there were 11 oil *ghani* co-operative societies in the district. The co-operatives had a membership of 274 oil-men, a share capital of Rs. 14,276 and a working capital of Rs. 63,075.

Fisheries.

It is now generally accepted that the diet of an average Indian lacks in nutritional values. Fish, which is rich in proteins, can make up the deficiencies in the food and make it wholesome. Taking into consideration this fact, Government has made attempts to encourage fishing and to increase the consumption of fish.

There are no major riverine fisheries in Nagpur district except a seasonal fishery in Kanhan river. Major fishing industry is, therefore, located along the tanks, the Khindsi lake at Ramtek, Telankhedi and Gandhi Sagar tanks at Nagpur and a large number of other smaller tanks in the district especially those stocked with major varieties. Most of the tanks are seasonal and hence not useful for pisciculture.

Various co-operative societies were formed to organise fishermen. One society was established as early as in 1944. The following table gives the detailed information about the existing co-operative societies. (Table No. 10).

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TABLE No. 10.

FISHERIES CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN NAGPUR DISTRICT.

Serial No. (1)	Name of Society (2)	Date of registration (3)	Membership (4)	Share capital in Rs. (5)	Tanks in charge of those societies (6)
1	Fishermen's Multipurpose Co-operative society, Ramtek ..	19-12-44	435	4,552	Ramsagar (Khindsi), Mansar, Chakorda.
2	Machhindra Machhli Co-operative Society, Nagpur ..	29-8-47	441	4,012	..
3	Matsya Vyavasaya Co-operative Society, Kuhi ..	12-1-56	198	2,430	Bhojapur tank.
4	Matsya Yojana Sahakari Sabha, Umrer ..	4-3-57	154	2,767	Gao talao and Pingalai tank, Umrer.
5	Bharatiya Vaidnyanik Matsya Utpadak Tatha Audyogik Sahakari Sanstha, Ambhora.	29-12-59	62	415	Shikarpur, Labhan, Tanda and Sawangi in Nagpur district and 7 tanks in Bhandara district.
6	Kuntalapur Machindra Co-operative Society, Katol ..	14-3-60	35	560	..
7	Jal Kshatriya Shramik Sahakari Sanstha, Nagpur ..	5-1-61	76	1,550	Gandhisagar (Nagpur).
8	Machhli Utpadak Sahakari Sanstha, Ghoti ..	8-7-61	24	520	..
9	Matsya Vyavasaya Co-operative Society, Gumgaon ..	2-10-62	24	520	Dahegaon tank.

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Fisheries.

The Fishermen's Multipurpose Co-operative Society at Ramtek started functioning actively from 1952-53. The Khindsi tank is leased to the society by the Public Works Department and the society has to pay a charge of 10 per cent of the price of the fish caught during a year. The tanks of Mansar and Chakorda are leased to the society by the Revenue Department for which the society pays a charge of Rs. 750 per year.

The fishermen get two-thirds of the actual fish caught while one-third is taken as commission by the society. The society has brought good fingerlings from Calcutta for rearing up in the tanks. Boats are made available to the members at a nominal charge of Rs. 7 per month. Advances are granted to the members to make their own boats. The society makes available nylon thread and nets to the members for catching fish.

The following table gives the quantity of fish caught in different lakes during 1958-59, 1959-60 and 1960-61 and their prices:—

TABLE No. 11.

Year	Khindsi Lake		Chakorda Lake		Mansar Lake	
	Fish caught in q.	Price in Rs.	Fish caught in q.	Price in Rs.	Fish caught in q.	Price in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1958-59 ..	587·65 *(1,574-18)	80,766	8·58 (23-0)	1,351	5·97 (16-0)	1,0081
1959-60 ..	433·44 (1,161-12)	64,795	61·70 (165-13)	13,104	56·46 (151-11)	12,102
1960-61 ..	390·44 (1,046-03)	55,882	43·31 (116-05)	11,658	26·13 (70-00)	0,911

The society disbursed a dividend of Rs. 6.25 per cent during the years 1953 to 1959. The income of a fisherman ranged between Rs. 500 and Rs. 600. The income and the expenditure of the society during 1960-61 was Rs. 39,000 and Rs. 35,255, respectively.

Industrial Estate, Nagpur.

An important scheme for the development of small industries in the district relates to the establishment of an Industrial Estate at Nagpur. One of the main difficulties often faced by a small entrepreneur while embarking on a new venture is the lack of suitable factory accommodation with the required facilities such as water, power, etc. The absence of these facilities sometimes compels him to settle in developed urban areas in order to avail himself of external economies like proximity of markets, speedy and efficient means of transport, supply of raw materials at reasonable prices, availability of skilled labour, etc. The period comprising the First and the Second Five-Year Plans witnessed all-round development in the fields of agriculture, forests, minerals, communications, electricity, water-supply,

*Figures in brackets indicate maunds and seers.

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Industrial Estate, Nagpur.

science and engineering. The problem of location of industries has assumed special importance and efforts are aimed at evolving a planned set-up for industrial development. It has been realised that prerequisites of industrial growth have to be created and maintained. It is against this background that the concept of Industrial Estate has come to stay. An entrepreneur may make his own arrangements for finance, technical knowhow, machinery, etc. But he finds it difficult as an individual to acquire a suitable site for the construction of factory-building. There are quite a large number of industrialists whose funds fall short of the required fixed and working capital. However, they would like to have neatly planned and ready built-up sheds possessing amenities like water and power. The scheme of Industrial Estates envisages helping small-scale industrialists to overcome these and other similar difficulties.

For the creation of an Industrial Estate, suitable sites are selected keeping in view its suitability of location, nearness to a railway station, and availability of power and water. The selected land is acquired and allotted to small-scale industrial units after dividing it into suitable plots according to their needs. Loans are advanced for the construction of factory buildings on a set pattern. Alternatively, suitable factory sheds are constructed and then allotted to needy entrepreneurs on rental, hire-purchase or outright-purchase basis.

The land selected and acquired for the Industrial Estate, Nagpur, is situated at a distance of about 8.047 km. (five miles) from Nagpur on the Nagpur-Kamptee road. It comprises land admeasuring 9.267 hectares (22.9 acres). It is endowed with facilities for the construction of a railway siding as well as a railway station. The construction work on the plot commenced at the close of 1959. It was proposed to construct 63 factory sheds on the site, of which 43 sheds would have a plot area of 36.576 × 18.288 metres (120′ × 60′) and built-up area of 167.225 sq. metres (1,800 square feet). The remaining will have a plot area of 21.336 m. × 9.144 m. (70′ × 30′) and built-up area of 83.613 sq. metres (900 square feet). During the period of the Second Five-Year Plan, 25 'C' type 9.144 m. × 18.288 m. (30′ × 60′) and 12 'B' type 9.144 m. × 9.144 m. (30′ × 30′) factory sheds were constructed. Besides, two wells, an approach road, bridge, internal roads, water and power facilities were also provided for. Up to 31st March 1961, 18 'C' type sheds and 8 'B' type sheds were allotted to various small industries. The Maharashtra State Financial Corporation grants loans to the entrepreneurs under the 'Agency Agreement' system. Financial assistance is also made available through the pilot scheme of the State Bank of India. Arrangements for the supply of machinery on hire-purchase basis are also made for the benefit of small entrepreneurs.

The scheme of the Industrial Estate at Nagpur was estimated to involve an expenditure of Rs. 25 lakhs. This expenditure was to be incurred on the construction of 'B' and 'C' type

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Industrial Estate, Nagpur.

factory sheds, administration block, canteen, quarters for watchmen and overhead tank for supply of water. In the sheds already allotted, by the end of 1961, eight units had commenced production. They were engaged in manufacturing aluminium utensils, wire-nails, exercise books and conduit pipes and buckets. Fifteen more units were expected to go into production, shortly after the completion of the setting up of machinery. Some of these planned to undertake production of transistor sets, malts, wire nettings, sized yarn, etc. 'C' type sheds were let out for Rs. 130 per month as against Rs. 85 for 'B' type sheds. Electricity was supplied to these units by the Nagpur Electric Light and Power Company, Nagpur. Water was provided through two wells constructed for the purpose. But the scheme envisaged supply of water from an over-head reservoir which has been constructed recently.

A common workshop has been housed in four sheds and machinery worth a lakh of rupees was installed in the beginning of 1962. A separate post office caters to the needs of the Industrial Estate. Statistics* regarding industrial estate at Nagpur as on March 31, 1962 were as follows:—

1. Area (in hectares)—8.093.
2. Number of sheds completed—37.
3. Number of sheds allotted—37.
4. Number of sheds occupied—35.
5. Number of sheds working—9.
6. Employment—157.
7. Number of firms from whom production figures have been received—11.
8. Quarterly production (value in Rs.)—4,49,684.

III. LABOUR ORGANISATION

LABOUR ORGANISATION.

Trade Unions.

Nagpur is one of the most industrialised districts of Maharashtra. Next to Bombay and the adjoining suburban area, Nagpur city is by far the most important industrial centre of the State. The textile industry at Nagpur is next only to Bombay. It is the oldest organised industry in the district, which was founded as early as 1877. As trade unionism is conditioned by the degree of industrialisation, Nagpur provided a good background for the growth of trade unionism.

The history of trade unionism in Nagpur dates back to the year 1919 when the workers of the Empress Mills organised and declared a strike. The movement towards unionism took roots first in the textile industry. The Nagpur Textile Union, a representatives union, had submitted a memorandum to the Royal Commission on Labour (1931). The Trade Unions legislation of 1926 went a long way towards giving a good shape

*Source: Industrial Estates in India, 1963 by Dr. P. C. Alexander; Asia Publishing House.

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to the movement. After the thirties, the movement was considerably strengthened due to the growth of organised industries. Trade unionism had, however, to wait till the post-war period (after 1945) for being organised on a sound footing. Till then it was not a force to be reckoned with. Since the Indian Independence, trade unions have rendered a yeoman's service in safegaurding and fostering the interests of the workers. They have been playing an important role in securing higher remunerations and bonus, and in bettering the conditions of service of the working class.

Since the enactment by the Government of India, of the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, the relations between the industrial employees and the employers have been properly regulated. The Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, has provided a machinery for the settlement of industrial disputes either by conciliation or by arbitration.

The following table gives the number, membership, income, expenditure, assets and liabilities of the trade unions in the important industries in the district in 1957-58 and 1958-59.

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TABLE No. 12.

TRADE UNIONS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT IN THE YEARS 1957-58 AND 1958-59.

Name of Industry	No. of units		Membership		Income		Expenditure		Assets		Liabilities	
	1957-58	1958-59	1957-58	1958-59	1957-58	1958-59	1957-58	1958-59	1957-58	1958-59	1957-58	1958-59
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
1. Mining and Quarrying ..	8	6	7,242	7,936	14,870	17,366	17,247	16,454	11,619	11,418	11,619	11,418
2. Manufacture of Food beverages and tobacco.	8	5	2,122	3,170	7,111	5,167	8,108	3,151	6,436	5,932	6,435	5,932
3. Textiles	2	3	10,288	13,164	29,217	45,265	25,587	40,651	27,042	49,278	27,042	49,278
4. Printing, Publishing and Allied Industries.	5	5	1,322	1,284	3,521	11,511	3,014	5,806	1,204	6,884	1,204	6,884
5. Chemicals and Chemical Products	4	4	226	224	724	1,156	522	1,134	301	323	301	323
6. Miscellaneous	6	5	1,405	1,210	2,652	2,705	2,689	2,846	461	171	461	171
7. Electricity, gas, water and sanitary services.	3	2	715	1,810	1,347	4,537	1,056	2,209	2,027	4,214	2,027	4,214

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Trade Unions.

The trade unions in the textile industry commanded the largest membership and the highest income and assets. Next followed the mining and quarrying industry. Trade unions in the industries manufacturing food, beverages and tobacco were also well-organised.

However, trade unionism in Nagpur has shown signs of sluggishness. This can be attributed to a number of causes. The chief among them are: (1) There are only a few organised industries, such as, textiles, mining and printing. This retarded the growth of class-consciousness among the workers. (2) The movement lacked leadership of the right type from amongst the workers. (3) Financial strength of the unions was far from sound. As the economic position of the workers was precarious, their capacity of contributing towards fees of the unions was very poor. The unions were not sound financially, and this weakened their bargaining power. (4) The migratory and unstable character of labour was also an impediment in the way of the growth of unionism. Many of the factories in the district were processing industries, *e.g.*, ginning and pressing, oil-crushing, saw-milling, etc. They worked seasonally, and for the rest of the year, the workers took to other pursuits. This seriously hampered the growth of unity among the workers.

Wages and Earnings.

By an award of the Industrial Tribunal known as the Mangalmurti Award, the basic wage of an employee in the cotton textile industry in Nagpur city was fixed at Rs. 26 per month. An addition of Rs. 6 per month in this basic wage was granted since January 1960 under the recommendations of the Cotton Textile Wage Board (Central). The dearness allowance for the textile industry workers has been stipulated to be linked with the cost of living index. The average dearness allowance admissible to a worker was Rs. 2.53 per day up to July, 1960.

Wages in other industries in the district are not standardised by any award. In the case of a few manufacturing concerns, the wages are fixed by agreement and settlement between the employers and employees.

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948 has been made applicable to a few industries in this district, *viz.*, (1) oil mills, (2) public motor transport, (3) cement, (4) potteries, (5) rice, flour and dal mills, (6) stone-breaking and cutting, (7) leather, (8) glass, (9) bidi-making, (10) cotton-ginning and pressing, and (11) printing.

Industrial Disputes.

A contented labour force and industrial peace are prerequisites for the healthy growth of industries. Cordial relations and a spirit of compromise between labour and management are essential for maintaining continuous industrial production. However, with the increased awakening among the labourers and the growth of trade unionism, occurrences of disputes among the workers and the management are more frequent now than they were before the early forties. Most of the disputes stem from one or the other reasons given below: (i) rates of wages

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and salaries, (ii) payment of bonus and other benefits, (iii) victimisation of workers, (iv) working conditions, such as, lack of safety measures, sanitation and healthy atmosphere, (v) non-recognition of workers' unions, and (vi) use of labour-saving devices and rationalisation of machinery.

In the history of industrial disputes the long drawn out crisis in the management of a textile mill in the district which occurred in 1961 is of special importance. Due to the closure of the mill, hundreds of workers were thrown out of employment for a considerable number of days. This inflicted hardships on the life of the worker. Since 1961 the mill is under the overall control of the Government. The new arrangement has instituted industrial peace in the mill.

The following statement gives the statistics of strikes and loss of working hours in the various industries during the period from 1958 to 1962:—

Year (1)	Industry (2)	Number of strikes (3)	Loss of working hours (4)
1958	(1) Textile	2	7,458
	(2) Bidi	1	20
	(3) Other Industries	3	4,943
1959	(1) Textile	6	3,188
	(2) Oil Industry	2	11
	(3) Other Industries	1	20
1960	(1) Textile	2	411
	(2) Dal Mills	2	191
1961	(1) Textile	3	3,101
	(2) Other Industries	1	78
1962	(1) Bidi	3	932
	(2) Miscellaneous	3	3,600

The following statement classifies the industrial disputes on the basis of causes that led to their occurrence from 1958 to 1962:—

Year (1)	Pay and allowances (2)	Bonus (3)	Leave and hours of work (4)	Gratuity (5)	Miscellaneous matters (6)	Total No. of disputes (7)
1958	17	3	1	..	11	32
1959	19	6	6	..	34	65
1960	40	5	2	1	2	50
1961	23	9	4	2	8	46
1962	41	6	3	3	5	58

In 1958, seven disputes were settled, two were withdrawn and 23 ended in failure. Of the 65 disputes in 1959, ten were settled, two were withdrawn and 53 failed. Of the 50 disputes in 1960, five were settled and 45 failed. In 1961, 12 disputes were settled, seven were withdrawn and the remaining 27 failed. Forty-nine disputes failed in 1962, whereas five were settled and four were withdrawn.

The textile industry which is the best organised industry in Nagpur city suffered the heaviest losses due to strikes in 1961. As many as 1,357 workers in the textile industry at Nagpur were involved in strikes in 1961.

CHAPTER 6—BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

INTRODUCTION.

The present chapter is divided into two parts—(1) Banking, and (2) Trade and Commerce. The first part, *viz.*, Banking chiefly describes the modern joint-stock banks in the district along with a number of other institutions such as the money-lender, the co-operative societies and the insurance companies that play a prominent role in catering to the credit requirements of the district economy. Of these the money-lender had till recently been the most important institution. He still continues to be an important source of credit supply to the people in the district whether as an indigenous banker in the town or as a shopkeeper supplying credit to the village-folk or even as a petty pawn-broker. But the excessive rates of interest charged by him and the malpractices he adopted to exact money from the poor proved detrimental to the economic well-being of the people in the past. It was with a view to put a stop to this evil that the Money-lenders Act of 1946 was passed and applied to the whole of the district. This Act subsequently removed the malpractices of money-lenders and sought to extend protection to the debtors. Another significant trend that helped to restrain the money-lenders' influence was the growth of modern banking in the district following World War I. Especially after the establishment of the State Bank of India the banking business received a further stimulus.

Development in the field of banking was accompanied by a still greater development in the field of co-operation. A large network of co-operative societies spread all over the district covering, as it does, not only the agricultural primaries of the early years but also the modern industrial and service co-operatives of today is, therefore, its natural outcome.

Besides purveying credit to the economy these institutions also collect the savings of the people in the form of premia and invest them in the interest-yielding securities. The insurance and the joint-stock companies need in this context a specific mention. The post-war period found a remarkable progress in case of both these institutions.

The take-over of the insurance business by the State and the legislation enacted by it to reduce the profit-margin of the companies thus details the role played by the State in this regard to secure economy, efficiency and equality of its services. The State also floats loans and raises the funds required for financing its plans and other Governmental outlays. It further extends financial and other aid to industry and agriculture by

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advancing to them loans and subsidies. This active participation of the State in the economic activities is very well marked especially in the Small Savings Movement. An account of these manifold activities on the part of the State has also been discussed elaborately in this part of the chapter.

The financial set-up in the district has got significant bearings on the pattern of its trade and commercial activities. The growth of banking and other financial institutions and increasing facilities made available to the public, help the movement of goods and infuses briskness in trade. Price policies adopted from time to time by the State also affect the market trend and determine ultimately the composition of trade. In the second part of this chapter are, therefore, discussed the factors that have contributed to the development of trade and commerce in the district against its historical background.

Nagpur city, because of its strategic position and ease of communications, forms one of the important centres for the internal and external trade in the Vidarbha region. Much of its internal trade is, however, unregulated. But a number of proposals for regulating it are afoot.

Nagpur is famous as an assembling centre for the outlying fertile areas and a distributing centre of goods to the remote places in the country. Its imports consist of a variety of agricultural produce including oranges, wheat, oil-seeds and chillis and a few manufactured goods from distant industrial centres. Among exports may be mentioned oranges and textile products as important commodities. The juicy oranges for which the district is famous are well-known all over the country and have a good market here as well as outside. The textile products, especially, the handloom sarees, too, are in great demand in other parts of Maharashtra and secure external market. The section describes various aspects of this 'Trade' in Nagpur district, and also gives detailed information about the retail trade.

The district has for a long time a network of roads and railway tracks joining it with the important trade centres in the country. These various trade routes are mentioned separately in a section on the "Trade Routes". It is necessary to develop these routes still further since the prosperity of trade and commerce depends to a very large extent upon the growth, maintenance and efficiency of the communications.

SECTION 1—BANKING AND FINANCE.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Money-lenders.

The institution of money-lenders has come into existence ever since money was accepted as a medium of exchange by the society. The early history of this institution in Nagpur district is very difficult to trace for want of necessary records. At the time the old District Gazetteer of Nagpur was published a number of money-lenders and bankers were operating in Nagpur district. The money-lending classes chiefly included *Banias*, *Kalars* and *Prabhus*. Most of them had proprietary rights in land and were, therefore, in a very strong position in Nagpur.

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Money-lenders.

These proprietors, who were landlords, were wealthy money-lenders. "*Marwari* proprietors amongst them are not model landlords; though by no means so bad as many of their species. The larger *Marwari* trader, who engages in commerce and banking, is a highly respectable and dignified member of the society. But the smaller man of humble origin who came from his native deserts with a brass-pot and loin-cloth and has made his way by petty trade and money-lending, is a veritable Shylock. The *Kalars* have taken extensively to cultivation and money-lending. They show their *Bania* origin clearly and are without exception the most grasping of money-lenders and the hardest of landlords."*

Debtor class.

The debtor class consisted mostly of tenants or tenant cultivators who owed a large amount of chronic debt. The debtor class as a rule was the worst sufferer at the hands of the proprietors or money-lenders and there was for a very long time no legal provision to safeguard the interests of the debtors.

Malpractices of Money-lenders.

Legislative control over money-lenders became necessary as many of the money-lenders were found to be indulging in malpractices. They took unfair advantage, firstly, of their virtual monopoly in the field of finance; secondly, of the illiteracy and ignorance of the villagers; and thirdly, of the absence of any legal control or regulation of their activities by the State. The Indian Central Banking Inquiry Commitee (1931) enlisted the following as some of the malpractices followed by the money-lenders:—

(*a*) demand for advanced interest;

(*b*) demand for a present for doing business;

(*c*) taking of thumb-impression on a blank paper with a view to inserting any arbitrary amount at a later date if the debtor became irregular in payment of interest;

(*d*) insertion in written documents of sums considerably in excess of money actually lent; and

(*e*) taking of conditional sale-deeds in order to provide against possible evasion of payment by the debtor.

Such practices certainly were a serious drag on the agricultural economy as they absorbed a lion's share of the agriculturists' income. The need, therefore, to regulate the business of money-lenders by appropriate legislative measures so as to curtail their domination on rural economy was urgently felt.

Rates of Interest on private loans.

The rates of interest on private loans were also very high especially in the early decades of the nineteenth century though they declined a great deal during subsequent years. In 1827, for example, according to the records of Sir Richard Jenkins, the general rate for money lent on common security was 3 to 4 per cent per month, and never less than 2 per cent on the best security or on the pledge of valuables equivalent to the sum

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Nagpur District 1908, p. 166.

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Money-lenders.

Rates of Interest on private loans.

advanced. But in 1908, when the old District Gazetteer was published, the rate was 12 per cent. per annum for land owners of good position and from 12 to 24 per cent for tenants. On grain loans the rate was usually 25 per cent for the spring crops and 25 to 50 per cent for the autumn crops and for oil-seeds. Loans for seed grains were called *bij* and those for food when the crops were standing *porga*. As a general rule 2 per cent was deducted from the principal sum for measuring fees which the borrower had to pay. Artisans and mechanics of the lower classes had usually to borrow on more unfavourable terms, because they might not be in a position to repay and were charged three or four per cent a month. Small money-lenders were known as *Khurdias*. They either traded for themselves or were employed by bankers and got a percentage on their transactions. Weavers and other handicraftsmen who needed advances had commonly to apply to them and were charged exorbitant rates of interest. Business loans were made on *hundis* or notes-of-hand, usually payable after 61 days. The minimum rate for these was 6 per cent per annum. In Nagpur the bills were cashed by brokers who took commission at the rate of half an anna (i.e., 3 P.) per 100 rupees. *Hundis* or bills of exchange were issued on Calcutta or Bombay and the rate of discount varied from five annas (i.e., 31 P.) to two rupees per hundred in the busy season, while in the rains they often fetched a premium.

The tradition of money-lenders continued for a very long time except that their number as also the nature of their transactions underwent some slight changes. Nevertheless, they continued to dominate the field of finance till recently and tried to exploit their customers.

It was with a view to put a stop to these malpractices of money-lenders and to reduce their influence on rural economy that legal enactment was felt imperative. An act known as the M. P. and Berar Money-lenders Act, 1934 was, therefore, passed by the State Government and made applicable to all the persons in Vidarbha region who intended to carry on money-lending operations. It was in operation till 1956.

Money-lenders Act of 1946.

The Bombay Money-lenders Act of 1946 was made applicable to the Nagpur district just after the reorganisation of the States when Nagpur district formed a part of the Maharashtra State. Following are some of the important provisions of this Act.

Firstly, the State Government is authorised to appoint Registrar General, Registrars and Assistant Registrars of Money-lenders for the purposes of this Act and to define areas of their duties. Secondly, every Registrar is to maintain in his jurisdiction a register of money-lenders. Thirdly, money-lenders should not carry on business of money-lending except for area under licence and except in accordance with terms of licence. Fourthly, the Registrar or Assistant Registrar or any other officer by this Act may require any money-lender to produce any record

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Money-lenders Act of 1946.

or document in his possession which is relevant for his purposes. Fifthly, every money-lender shall keep and maintain a cash-book and a ledger in a prescribed form and manner. Sixthly, every money-lender shall deliver a clear statement to the debtor about the language, amount, security, etc., of his transactions. Seventhly, the State Government is authorised to fix maximum rates of interest for any local area or class of business of money-lending in respect of secured and unsecured loans. Eighthly, molestation of a debtor by the creditor in recovery of loans is treated as offence and is to be penalised. And lastly no debtor who cultivates land personally and whose debts do not exceed Rs. 15,000 shall be arrested or imprisoned in execution for a decree for money passed in favour of money-lenders whether before or after the date on which this Act comes into force.

Amendment to the Act.

The Act was subsequently amended. The important amendments related to the introduction of 4-A and 5-A forms and the "Pass Book" system, provision of calculating interest on *katmiti* system and facilities to certain classes of money-lenders permitting them to submit quarterly statements of loans to the Registrar of Money-lenders. Further amendment was effected in 1955 by which money-lending without licence was made a cognisable offence. In the following year special measures were adopted for protecting Backward Class people. The Registrars and the Assistant Registrars were instructed to take special care while checking the accounts of money-lenders in respect of their transactions with Backward Class people.

Revision of the rates of interest.

The regulations enacted by the Government were not entirely partial to the debtors. In order to ensure a steady supply of credit from the money-lenders, the structure of interest rates was revised as from 5th July 1952. Accordingly the maximum rates of interest were raised from 6 to 9 per cent per annum on secured loans and from 9 to 12 per cent per annum on unsecured loans. The money-lenders were also allowed to charge a minimum interest of Rupee one per debtor per year, if the total amount of interest chargeable according to the prescribed rates in respect of the loans advanced during the year amounted to less than a rupee.

Transactions of Money-lenders.

The following tables give the number of money-lenders who held valid licences in Nagpur district and their transactions from 1936 to 1960:—

TABLE No. 1

NUMBER OF MONEY-LENDERS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT FROM 1936 TO 1960

Year (1)	Katol (2)	Saoner (3)	Ramtek (4)	Umrer (5)	Nagpur 6)	Total (7)
1936	234	534	..	221	675	1,664
1937	79	23	..	28	126	256
1938	3	NA	..	12	10	25
1939	4	NA	..	1	8	13

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Transactions of Money-lenders.

TABLE No. 1—*cont.*

NUMBER OF MONEY-LENDERS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT FROM 1936 TO 1960

Year (1)	Katol (2)	Saoner (3)	Ramtek (4)	Umrer (5)	Nagpur (6)	Total (7)
1940	23	41	..	40	42	146
1941	44	52	..	67	168	331
1942	4	5	..	27	19	55
1943	8	5	6	7	13	39
1944	18	36	11	156	46	267
1945	37	52	21	29	135	274
1946	10	6	10	25	71	122
1947	11	28	9	14	67	129
1948	20	73	13	55	79	240
1949	58	60	39	122	187	466
1950	44	72	48	76	160	400
1951	57	77	58	126	186	504
1952	5	71	71	112	158	417
1953	50	87	62	102	245	546
1954	44	77	74	90	418	703
1955	52	75	84	86	438	735
1956	45	84	85	90	447	751
1957	52	89	90	93	444	758
1958	47	83	88	85	570	873
1959	47	12	80	99	642	880
1960	4	..	13	8	86	111

The above table shows that the number of money-lenders who have obtained licences to conduct their business has been continuously increasing especially after 1947. In addition their transactions and advances have also substantially increased during recent years. This could be seen from the following table:—

TABLE No. 2

TRANSACTIONS OF MONEY-LENDERS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT FROM 1956-57 TO 1960-61.

Year (1)	Number of licensed Money-lenders in the district (2)	Loans given to traders (3)	Loans given to Non-traders (4)
		Rs.	Rs.
1956-57	731	14,49,104	35,86,459
1957-58	768	26,01,260	58,28,503
1958-59	813	23,38,626	48,73,599
1959-60	870	15,22,435	12,91,551
1960-61	111	N.A.	N.A.

The rate of interest for all types of secured loans was 9 per cent, while that for non-secured loans was 12 per cent.

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Co-operative Movement.

The Historical Background.

The Co-operative Movement was started in India as a result of the economic distress caused to peasants during the latter part of the 19th century. The idea of forming co-operative society to solve the problem of rural indebtedness was first suggested by Fredrick Nicholson in his Report of 1895—97. The Famine Commission of 1901 also stressed the necessity of starting credit societies in India on co-operative basis. A real beginning of the co-operative movement was, however, made when the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904 was passed. The object of this Act was to encourage thrift, self-help and co-operation amongst agriculturists, artisans and persons of limited means. Societies formed under the Act were given legal status and were authorised to raise funds and carry on business in a corporate capacity. They were classified as rural and urban; rural societies were bound to accept the principle of unlimited liability while urban bodies were given a free choice of limited or unlimited liability. This Act, however, was deficient in many respects. The Act of 1912 was, therefore, passed to fill in the lacunae of the earlier Act. It regularised certain practices of doubtful legal validity and made provision for further expansion under proper safeguards. The distinction between rural and urban societies was abolished and a more scientific classification based on the nature of the availability of members, whether limited or unlimited, was adopted. Co-operative societies other than credit societies were allowed to be formed. Registration of unions and federal bodies like central banks was expressly legalised and a number of minor improvements were introduced. The simplicity and elasticity of the old Act were at the same time preserved and a wide rule-making power was left to provinces to enable them to develop on their own lines.

The first co-operative society in the Nagpur district was the Nagpur Government Press Co-operative Society registered at Nagpur on 20th September 1907. It was an urban credit society which after working for a period of 17 years went into liquidation. By this time other co-operative societies, especially primary agricultural credit societies, were gradually started in the district. The establishment of the Nagpur Central Co-operative Bank gave an impetus to the organisation of these societies during the period from 1911 to 1930. In the thirties, however, there was a sudden fall in the values of lands which were offered as securities for loans, with the result that overdues of societies went on increasing and the societies suffered great losses.

The war and the post-war period witnessed a considerable progress in the number of societies, their resources and their coverage. In particular, there was a vigorous growth of consumers' movement when the Government decided to appoint co-operative societies as agents for distribution of foodgrains that had run in short supply.

The co-operatives played a vital role after Independence. The rise in prices improved the paying capacity of agriculturists. This had a favourable effect on the position of co-operative societies.

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Co-operative Movement.

The Historical Background.

During the Second Five-Year Plan period i.e. 1956 to 1961 development of co-operative movement was given special emphasis with the guiding principles incorporated in the Rural Credit Survey Report. The principles were -

(1) State partnership at all levels.

(2) Linking of credit with marketing.

(3) Education and propaganda in the theory and practice of co-operation.

Co-operative Societies and Banks.

In the following pages is given the constitution, the structure and the progress of the various co-operative societies in the district:—

Co-operative societies and banks consist of: (1) agricultural co-operative credit societies; (2) multipurpose societies; (3) primary land mortgage banks; (4) non-agricultural credit societies; and (5) the District Central Co-operative Bank.

Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies.

Constitution.

Any ten persons can apply for registration as a rural society. The maximum strength of a society should, ordinarily, not exceed hundred. The area of operation of a society is, as far as possible, restricted to a village. Hamlets and small villages for which separate societies are not feasible can be included in the jurisdiction of a society in the neighbouring village. Membership is open to every resident of that area subject to the bye-laws of the society.

Funds.

Funds are raised in any or all of the following ways: (i) entrance fees; (ii) issue of shares; (iii) receipt of deposits from members and non-members; (iv) raising loans; (v) over-drafts from other co-operative societies or financing institutions; and (vi) donations.

These societies provide short-term and intermediate-term loans to agriculturists mostly for productive purposes such as digging of wells, improvement of land, reclamation of fallow land, construction of houses, seasonal agricultural requirements, etc. Loans are given mostly on personal security of the borrower and two members. The society may accept mortgage of movable property or crops as collateral security.

The rate of interest charged by the societies varies according to their financial position and the rate at which they borrow from other financial agencies. Government helps to lower the rate by giving subsidies to societies to meet their expenses.

There were in all 649 agricultural primary credit societies in 1961. These societies consisted of 23 large-sized multipurpose societies, 72 primary credit societies and 522 service co-operatives. Of these the service co-operatives had come into existence through conversion and reorganisation of 32 primary orange-growers co-operative societies.

Multipurpose Societies.

These societies mark a further stage in the evolution of agricultural credit societies. They are essentially credit societies but their objects are wider in so far as they combine marketing of agricultural produce with the provision of short-term credit. Moreover, they aim at supplying such agricultural requisites as seeds, manures, fodder and arranging for joint sale of the produce. Government has authorised the Registrar of Co-operative Societies to sanction loans at 4 per cent to a multipurpose society undertaking construction of a godown for storing agricultural produce and other requisites. Government also grants loans to newly started multipurpose societies or branches of existing sales societies.

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Multipurpose Societies.

In 1960-61 there were 23 large-sized multipurpose societies in this district. They covered 190 villages. Their membership stood at 5,043. Of these 4,313 were borrowing members.

Primary Orange Growers Societies.

There were in all 32 primary orange growers societies organised mainly with a view to catering to the credit needs of orange growers. These societies covered 315 villages and their membership was 1,155 during 1960-61. The paid-up share capital and the reserve fund of these societies stood at Rs. 75,378 and Rs. 4,558 respectively in 1961. During the same year the societies advanced loans to their members to the tune of Rs. 1,52,333 and effected recoveries to the extent of Rs. 1,10,324. The total outstandings against the members amounted to Rs. 4,73,000 of which Rs. 1,25,425 were overdue. The reasons for the high percentage of overdues may be attributed to the general failure of orange crop in the year concerned.

Grain banks and seed unions.

There were in 1960-61 six grain banks in this district. Membership of these banks and unions was 103, while their share capital was Rs. 400. The total loans outstanding against the members were Rs. 1,794. The working of these societies was not satisfactory due to the apathy of members.*

Non-agricultural Credit Societies.

These are mainly urban societies whose members are traders, artisans, factory workers, etc., residing in towns. They also include urban banks and salary earners' societies.

Constitution.

The area of operation of such a society is restricted to a town or its part or even a department of any institution, private or Government. Membership is open to all the persons residing within the area of operation. The liability of members is limited.

Funds.

Capital is raised by the issue of shares, acceptance of current, savings and fixed deposits and by borrowing from the central financing agency. Borrowing from outside is limited to eight times the paid-up share capital plus the accumulated reserves and building funds minus the accumulated losses.

These societies advance loans to members either on personal security or on mortgage of property or on the security of valuables pledged. These societies, and more particularly, urban co-operative banks also carry on modern banking operations.

*Annual Administration Report of Co-operative Societies, 1960-61.

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Funds

The non-agricultural credit societies in this district comprise the following types of societies:—

(1) urban credit societies,

(2) salary-earners' societies,

(3) mill-hand societies and

(4) factory workers societies.

The salary-earners' societies have made great progress during recent times. The membership of these societies is mainly confined to persons of limited means belonging to middle-class and low-paid salary group. Under present circumstances when the cost of living has gone up considerably these societies provide an excellent source to the middle-class people for satisfying their credit needs. As such there is a spurt in the operations of these societies.

Marketing and Supply Societies.

There are two societies of this type functioning at present in the Nagpur district, *viz.*, (1) The Vidarbha Co-operative Marketing Society Ltd., Nagpur and (2) The Nagpur Co-operative Orange Growers' Association.

Of these the first *viz.*, the Vidarbha Co-operative Marketing Society works as an apex marketing society for the Vidarbha region. Its membership comprises 161 co-operative institutions. Following are the particulars of the society for the years 1959-60 and 1960-61:—

	1959-60	1960-61
	Rs.	Rs.
1. Share Capital	5,17,620	5,19,268
2. Reserve and other Funds	13,63,530	15,72,092
3. Working Capital	51,26,892	63,63,141
4. Purchase	1,26,69,240	1,89,54,981
5. Sales	1,22,38,825	2,08,71,032
6. Profits (Net)	1,46,622	3,11,015

The Nagpur Co-operative Orange Growers' Association.

The Nagpur Co-operative Orange Growers' Association is an apex society. Its membership is confined to the primary orange growers' societies in Nagpur district. The main object of the society is to plan and develop production and marketing of citrus fruits and particularly of the orange crop. With this object in view the Association has undertaken various functions such as supply of pedigree graft, rendering horticultural services for preservation and growth of orange co-operatives and running of sales depots to facilitate profitable marketing of oranges. The Association also undertakes the processing of oranges. For this purpose it has taken a processing plant on 7 years' lease from the Central Hindustan Cold Storage Company Ltd., Nagpur.

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The Nagpur Co-operative Growers' Association.

Following figures indicate the working of the Association:—

Particulars	*Year 1959-60*	*Year 1960-61*
(1) Number of members—		
(i) Co-operative societies ..	43	54
(ii) Individuals	313	355
(2) Share capital—		
	Rs.	Rs.
(*i*) Government	11,50,000	11,50,000
(*ii*) Others	37,500	48,620
(3) Reserve and other funds ..	59,006	1,34,066
(4) Working capital	15,32,312	18,40,559
(5) Profits	58,063	1,78,734
(6) Sale of processed goods	10,74,315	13,16,238
(7) Commission on sale of oranges ..	4,875	6,367

Purchase and Sales Societies.

There were nine primary marketing societies at the beginning of the year 1961. They included seven purchase and sales societies, one chilli growers' society and one betel-leaves growers' society. The activities of these societies were confined to supply and distribution of agricultural requisites and fertilisers, insecticides, agricultural implements, iron and steel. These societies also distributed sugar and foodgrains to the members. In spite of the financial assistance from the Government and the active support of the Co-operative department, these societies failed to carry out "marketing activity" in the real sense of the term. There was on the whole a lack of initiative on their part with the result that efforts to develop co-operative marketing could not attain the expected success.

The following figures indicate the extent of operation and general progress of these societies:—

Membership	422 societies and 1,627 individuals.
Total paid-up capital	Rs. 18,03,588.
Reserve and other funds	Rs. 17,97,030.
Working capital	Rs. 86,47,514.
Purchases made by the Societies ..	Rs. 2,32,06,876.
Sales made by the societies (as owners).	Rs. 2,53,44,130.
Sales made by the societies (as agents).	Rs. 60,90,772.
Profits made by the societies.. ..	Rs. 2,94,954.

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Processing Societies.

Two processing societies have been formed in the district—

(1) Cotton Ginning and Pressing Co-operative Society, Ltd., Nagpur—It has a membership of 234 societies and six individuals. The share capital of the society consists of Rs. 1,56,000 contributed by individuals and societies and Rs. 1,50,000 contributed by the Government.

(2) Kalpana Co-operative Rice Mill—The society was established in 1961 and consists of 18 branches which have contributed Rs. 35,000 towards the share capital of the society. The Government contributed an equal amount towards the share capital of the society.

Both the societies have not started functioning due to non-availability of plant, machinery and site.

Consumers' Co-operative Stores.

There are 266 stores of this category including three multi-purpose co-operative societies. The societies run fair-price shops. These societies, however, are showing signs of decay and degeneration on account of the apathy of consumers. The societies also have failed to raise sufficient finances. They have also not succeeded in meeting the needs of their members. The Nagpur District Consumers Co-operative Federation could also not make much headway in this field of co-operative activity.

This bank was established on 4th November, 1911. Till 1914, the activities of the bank were restricted to Nagpur tahsil only. In 1911, the share capital of the bank was Rs. 13,260, the working capital Rs. 31,563 and its savings Rs. 60. Since 1914, the financial position of the bank went on improving gradually, in spite of the effects of depression in 1930. After Independence the bank showed more progress, especially during the First Five-Year Plan. At that time the bank had four branches, one each at Katol, Saoner, Ramtek and Umrer. There are now nine branches of the bank. The Bank plays a valuable role in the sphere of rural credit. The number of primary credit societies affiliated to the bank on 30-6-1961 was 779. The number of individual share holders at the close of the year was 702. The paid-up capital of the bank was Rs. 23,70,621. The statutory reserves of the bank also increased to Rs. 1,85,000. The loans raised by the bank during 1960-61 amounted to Rs. 1,09,74,000 while the deposits from the societies and individuals held by the bank were Rs. 39,18,491. This perceptible rise in the deposits of the bank was due mainly to the efforts made by the bank to increase its resources and lessening its dependence on the apex agencies.

The loaning operations of the bank registered a good rise during 1960-61. The total loans given to different societies amounted to Rs. 1,38,50,946. The managerial expenses of the bank during 1960-61 were Rs. 2,37,450 and the bank earned a net profit of Rs. 1,86,096.

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Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., Nagpur.

The financial position as well as the progress made by the bank during the First and Second Five-Year Plan periods is given in the statement below. The financial policy of the bank depends on the targets to be attained under the Five-Year Plans.

—	First Five-Year Plan		Second Five-Year Plan	
	1951-52	1955-56	1956-57	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		(Figures in lakhs of Rs.)		
Share Capital	0·79	3·63	6·88	23·63
Reserve and other funds ..	1·04	1·29	1·66	3·89
Owned Capital	1·83	4·92	8·54	27·22
Deposits	5·83	9·79	11·78	28·63
Borrowings from Apex Agency	4·91	17·03	23·86	93·37
Working Capital	10·75	31·14	43·18	159·52
Invested Capital	1·27	2·88	3·34	14·19
Loans	6·09	26·52	39·03	138·89
Credit Societies	256	500	621	709
Number of villages (%) covered by the co-operative movement.	33·7	76·2	25·5	38·99

The Nagpur Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank Ltd.

The long-term needs of the cultivator for such purposes as debt redemption, investment in profitable improvements, etc., cannot be met with either by co-operative societies or by ordinary commercial banks, because neither of them can afford to lock up their funds except for comparatively short periods. Land mortgage banks are specially organised and equipped to perform the essential function of providing long-term credit to the cultivator.

The area of operation of such a bank is a district or a part thereof not smaller than a tahsil. All the residents of that area and all those who, in the case of borrowing members, own land within the area of operation of the bank and co-operative societies within that area can become members.

The main function of the bank is to grant loans on the security of the landed property offered by the borrowers. Loans are given up to 50 per cent of the value of immovable property mortgaged with the bank. The land offered in mortgage by the applicant should be in his absolute ownership, free from any prior encumbrances and not subject to any restrictions and alienations. The repayment of the loans is permitted either on equated or equal instalment system fixed on the basis of the net

The Nagpur Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank Ltd.

repaying capacity of the borrower and the average rental value of the mortgaged property and is spread over a maximum period of 20 years.

The main purposes for which loans are advanced are—(i) redemption of old debts, (ii) improvement of agricultural land and the adoption of improved methods of cultivation, (iii) installation or the purchase of agricultural land and machinery, (iv) purchase of land for the purpose of improvement or more economic cultivation of existing holdings and the reclamation of waste and fallow lands by tenant cultivators.

In Nagpur district, the Nagpur Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank, Ltd., is the only land mortgage bank catering to the needs of cultivators for long-term credit. The following table gives the operations of the bank during 1959-60 and 1960-61:—

TABLE No. 3

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE LAND MORTGAGE BANK IN NAGPUR DISTRICT FROM 1959 TO 1961

Particulars (1)	1959-60 (2)	1960-61 (3)
1. Membership—		
(a) Non-borrowing members	28	24
(b) Principal borrowers	809	893
(c) Joint members	2,364	2,691
2. Share Capital (Rs.)	38,020	46,696
3. Reserve Fund (Rs.)	31,339	21,339
4. Other Funds (Rs.)	10,867	10,795
5. Borrowings (Rs.)	10,58,171	11,46,878
6. Working Capital (Rs.)	12,09,587	13,87,241
7. Loans Advanced (Rs.)	1,57,045	2,47,625
8. Loans Outstanding (Rs.)	10,99,428	12,39,640
9. Loans Recovered (Rs.)	52,050	1,07,413
10. Overdues (Rs.)	1,80,644	3,43,475
11. Profits (Rs.)	19,684	17,845

Industrial Societies.

Nagpur district is well-known for its handloom products, especially sarees. A fairly large section of the population of the district depends on the handloom industry for its livelihood. In 1960-61 there were 37,466 handlooms registered in the district. Out of these 20,384 were under the co-operative fold.

There were 172 primary weavers' co-operative societies in 1960-61. Of these 125 societies were functioning and the rest were either dormant or had stopped working.

Primary Weavers' Co-operative Societies.

The following statement indicates the progress of the handloom weavers' societies in the district:—

Particulars (1)	1959-60 (2)	1960-61 (3)
Number of societies	148	172
Number of members	17,891	18,441
Number of looms	17,904	20,384
Paid-up capital (Rs.)	4,26,154	53,21,862
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	7,88,621	8,53,132
Total production (Rs.)	51,18,218	58,88,888
Sales (Rs.)	62,50,666	65,11,687
Profits (Rs.)	1,12,452	1,67,413

The major requirement of handloom co-operative societies is the adequacy of working capital necessary for the purchase of yarn, dyes and chemicals, and payment of wages to the labourers, etc. The funds for these items are being obtained on instalment basis from the Reserve Bank of India at Rs. 300 per loom and are being channelised through the central financing agencies for one year at the rate of 3 per cent. In 1960-61 there were 33 weavers' societies receiving financial assistance from the Reserve Bank of India. They were granted Rs. 2,23,300 and Rs. 2,95,777 as loans in 1959-60 and in 1960-61, respectively.

Adequate paid-up share capital is also essential for the weavers' societies to enable them to increase their working capital on the one hand and to enhance their borrowing limit on the other. A scheme to make provision for paid-up capital has been implemented recently. Under this scheme Rs. 18.75 per share of Rs. 25 are granted as interest-free loan to individual societies to enable them to become members of weavers' societies. Loan is repayable in two years. During 1960-61 a sum of Rs. 3,195 was advanced to three co-operative weavers' societies.

In order to convert pit looms into frame looms and fly shuttle looms and their allied equipments, 75 per cent subsidy and 25 per cent loan for the total cost of these tools and equipment is generally given. Thus, in 1960-61 Rs. 21,172.50 by way of subsidy and Rs. 7,057.50 by way of loan were sanctioned to eleven societies in Nagpur district. With a view to encouraging the sale of handloom cloth the Government also grants rebate to the societies on sales of handloom cloth produced by the weavers (members) and sold through the societies at the rate of 3 paise per rupee for wholesale and 5 paise per rupee for retail sales. A special rebate is also granted at the time of festive occasion at the rate of 10 paise per rupee. During 1960-61 Rs. 3,92,996 were given as rebate to 120 societies.

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Primary Weavers' Co-operative Societies.

The weavers' societies are also given financial assistance in the form of subsidy to meet the managerial expenses of running the sales depot. During 1960-61 five societies were given Rs. 80,800 as subsidy. The scheme for development of handloom industry also requires financial assistance for dye-houses. Financial assistance is given depending upon the size of dyeing units. During the year 1960-61 Rs. 4,200 were sanctioned under the scheme to three societies as subsidy for dyeing houses.

Conversion of existing looms into powerlooms is also an important measure whereby conditions of weavers can be improved. A scheme for this purpose has been sanctioned under which weavers' societies are given Rs. 4,580.50 per loom as loan and Rs. 218 as subsidy for installation of powerlooms. During 1960-61, Rs. 4,04,507 as loan and Rs. 25,000 as subsidy were granted to eight societies for installation of powerlooms.

At present the important weavers' society working at Nagpur is the Vidarbha Weavers' Co-operative Society, Nagpur which is an apex society organised to facilitate supply of raw material to affiliated primaries and the sale of their finished goods. Two hundred and forty-four societies from the whole of Vidarbha region are affiliated to this society. The society is running 22 sales depots in Vidarbha and three depots outside Vidarbha. It has also started a patterns-making factory so that new patterns according to the taste of consumers could be designed and supplied to primary weavers' societies. The financial position of this society in 1960-61 was as follows:—

	Rs.		Rs.
Share capital ..	1,77,618	Other borrowings ..	2,33,338
Reserve fund ..	2,38,901	Building	4,72,048
Other funds ..	2,93,748	Other investment ..	8,39,871
Government Loan	8,35,910	Loss (accumulated) ..	99,817

Other Industrial Societies.

Nagpur district has a rich industrial potential and can afford wide scope for development of industries because of its strategic central position which connects it with every part of the country. Besides textiles, the major industries of the district are leather-tanning, pottery, brick-making, oil-expelling and bidi-making. Workers in most of these industries are having their own societies as detailed below.

Bee-Keeping Co-operative Society.

This is the only society of its kind in the district with a membership of 24. The share capital contributed by the members is Rs. 440. They purchased raw materials of Rs. 2,880 and produced goods worth Rs. 444 which were sold by the society and earned a profit of Rs. 139 during 1960-61.

Oil Ghani Co-operative Societies.

There were in 1960-61 fourteen societies of oil ghani workers in the district with a total membership of 325. Its paid-up share capital was Rs. 25,734. In addition Government also

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contributed Rs. 17,457 towards the share-capital. The society had purchased raw material worth Rs. 28,599 and manufactured goods at a total cost of Rs. 43,033 earning a profit of Rs. 328. The village oil industry forms the very backbone of village industries. For the development of this industry, therefore, the Government has granted liberal assistance. It also receives loans and grants from the Khadi and Village Industries Commission.

Societies of workers making bamboo and cane articles.

During 1960-61 there were only three societies of workers making bamboo and cane articles. They had a total membership of 157. All of them belonged to backward class. Of the three societies two were working on a sound basis. They provided employment to a number of poor people with fair wages.

Tanners' Societies.

These societies numbered three in 1960-61. Their paid-up share capital was Rs. 7,737. They purchased raw material of the value of Rs. 7,004 and produced finished goods worth Rs. 8,921 in 1960-61 earning a gross profit of Rs. 615

Potters' and Bricklayers' Co-operative Societies.

There were in 1960-61, 18 societies of potters and bricklayers in Nagpur district. They had a total membership of 922. Of these only 12 are functioning at present.

The share capital of these societies amounted to Rs. 21,800 in 1960-61, while their Reserve Fund was Rs. 3,880. The societies produced finished goods worth Rs. 37,383 and sold them with a profit of Rs. 3,105. The wages paid by these societies to their members were Rs. 1,270, while their management expenses amounted to Rs. 6,466.

Printing and Dyeing Societies.

During 1960-61 there were six printing and dyeing societies in Nagpur district. They had a total membership of 199 during that year. The societies had a share capital worth Rs. 13,043, and received financial help of Rs. 6,000 in the form of loan during the same year (i.e. 1960-61). They purchased raw material worth Rs. 24,614 and manufactured finished articles valued at Rs. 37,047. Total sales effected by these societies were worth Rs. 37,497. The societies earned a profit of Rs. 2,331.

Labour Contract Societies.

The labour contract societies numbered 28 during the year 1960-61. They had a total membership of 1,324 persons. The societies had a total paid-up share capital of Rs. 43,569. They also received a loan of Rs. 16,000 from the central financing agency. They earned a net profit of Rs. 9,256 for the construction work they had undertaken during 1960.

Forest Labourers Societies.

There were twelve societies of forest labourers working in the Nagpur district during 1960-61. They had a membership of 535. The total share capital of these societies amounted to Rs. 10,972. The Government also contributed a sum of Rs. 12,000 towards the share capital of four societies. They were, moreover, assisted with a management grant of Rs. 7,200 and a welfare grant of Rs. 9,000.

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Co-operative Movement.

Other Societies.

Besides the above industrial co-operatives, there are other societies such as bidi workers' societies, hosiery societies, tailoring societies, fruit-preservation societies, mechanics societies, rickshaw workers' societies, *parit* (washermen's) societies, etc. There were 37 such societies in Nagpur district during 1960-61. They had a total membership of 2,038. They collected a share capital of Rs. 79,564 and Government extended a loan of Rs. 2,450 to them. By the sale of their manufactured goods some societies in this group earned a net profit of Rs. 6,305 during 1960-61.

Co-operative Farming Societies.

The scheme for organisation of co-operative farming societies was originally sanctioned as Post-War Reconstruction Scheme in 1949, and it was continued (for being implemented) during the First and Second Five-Year Plans. This scheme assumed special importance in the Second Five-Year Plan on account of its three-fold main objectives, *viz.*, (i) increase in agricultural production, (ii) increase in the opportunities for gainful employment in agriculture as well as activities allied to agriculture, and (iii) solution of the social and economic problems of the landless people including Harijans and others by meting out social justice and equity to them, by rehabilitating them on Government land and making them self-reliant.

In 1960-61 there was only one such society in Nagpur district, known as the Premier Co-operative Joint Farming Society Ltd., Khandala. This society was registered on 25th October 1956. It started its work in April 1957. During the intervening period it was engaged in the preliminary work of collection of share capital, execution of lease deeds in respect of lands owned by its members, etc. Government financial assistance by way of share capital contribution amounting to Rs. 4,000 and a loan of Rs. 24,000 was sanctioned to the society for the following purposes:—

	Rs.
(1) Construction and repairing of wells	2,500
(2) Installation of pumping sets	7,200
(3) Purchase of implements, accessories, bullocks, etc.	6,800
(4) Cattlesheds and godowns..	5,000
(5) Bunding and levelling of 70 acres of paddy lands	2,500

In this type of society, cultivation is undertaken jointly, the produce is pooled and the net surplus is distributed after paying wages and expenses proportionately to the wages earned on the farm by the members during the year. The society sometimes faces difficulties due to fragmented holdings or want of consolidation and contiguity of land. The chief advantage of co-operative farming, however, is that landless labourers and those who are socially and economically backward people are encouraged to come together and rehabilitate themselves in most of the collective farms. Their weaknesses such as insecurity of tenure, highly gradient nature of the parts of the lands assigned to them, difficulty of making long-term investment for improvement and of obtaining credits, naturally impede the successful

working of these societies. Moreover, the pressure of working population on lands, lack of subsidiary industries in the rural areas, etc., have got to be counteracted by intensifying cultivation, converting dry lands into irrigated ones and by making provision of cottage and village industries as well as by labour contracts.

Co-operative Farming Societies.

The fact that co-operative farming has been attempted with considerable success in this district is visible from the progress it has made since 1949.

Progress of Co-operative Movement under the Second Five-Year Plan.

The major part of the co-operative programme drawn up for the Second Five-Year Plan related to the implementation of the recommendations made in the All India Rural Credit Survey Report. Accordingly considerable progress was achieved during this period.

In the former Madhya Pradesh State the credit movement was established on sound lines. However, the non-credit movement which grew rapidly during the period from 1944 to 1947, declined after decontrol, i.e. in 1948. During 1948, therefore, a strong apex non-credit institution was started with the Government's direct assistance by way of contribution to its share capital, loan and free services of the Assistant Registrar as its secretary. From 1944 to 1947, that is, when there were controls over several commodities this apex institution, known as the Madhya Pradesh Co-operative Marketing Society had a remarkable achievement as an agency for distribution of foodgrains, cloth, agricultural commodities, etc. Again under the Grow More Food Scheme, this society started 500 storage and distribution centres for procurement and distribution of ammonium sulphate and other chemical fertilizers. This was done through the agency of the primary multi-purpose societies. Arrangements were also made for distribution of pumping sets and oil-engines, for the purchase of which the central bank was approached. Besides this, the society also took up pooling and marketing of improved varieties of cotton in order to secure better and fair prices for agriculturists growing improved varieties of cotton. The society, thus, achieved a sound financial position and established good business contacts.

Co-operative Credit Movement.

Under the Second Five-Year Plan rapid development was evinced in the field of agricultural co-operative credit. An impetus to its rapid growth was given when the Government accepted the principle of state partnership in co-operatives at the apex and district level and also liberally guaranteed the borrowing of the M. P. Co-operative Bank Ltd., Nagpur, for agricultural finance from the Reserve Bank of India. The share capital of the Bank increased from Rs. 10,96,000 in 1951-52 to Rs. 23,69,000 in 1955-56, reserves from Rs. 14,51,000 in 1951-52 to Rs. 20,62,000 in 1955-56, loans advanced to societies from Rs. 1,53,46,000 in 1951-52 to Rs. 4,86,91,000 in 1955-56. Its working capital also rose from Rs. 2,78,85,000 in 1951-52 to Rs. 5,41,05,000 in 1955-56.

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Co-operative Credit Movement.

Under the Second Five-Year Plan the primary credit societies covered 70 per cent of the villages in the district. With a view to expanding the coverage and improving the efficiency of the credit societies it is proposed to organise 25 large-sized, multi-purpose societies by amalgamation of existing societies in the district or by starting new organisations. Where large-sized societies cannot be formed, 30 small-sized multi-purpose societies will be organised. These societies will be assisted by participation by Government in their share capital.

Joint-Stock Banks.

By the beginning of the 19th century a number of native firms were carrying on banking operations in Nagpur district. Some of them used to cash bills and make advances to merchants. One firm also received deposits and made payments and carried out exchange, remittance and other banking operations for the Government. The only bank operating was the branch of the Bank of Bengal. It was established as the first Presidency Bank in 1806. The origin of the State Bank of India can be traced to this year. For, the establishment of this bank was followed by the establishment of the other two branches of the Presidency Banks of Bombay (in 1840) and Madras (in 1843) and it was by the amalgamation of all of them that the Imperial Bank of India was formed.

State Bank of India.

Till the establishment of the Reserve Bank of India in 1935, the Imperial Bank of India was acting as the Central Bank or the Government's Bank in Nagpur district. On 1st July 1955, the State Bank of India was constituted by a special Act and all the undertakings of the Imperial Bank of India were taken over by it. This policy was adopted mainly with a view to extending banking facilities on a large scale to the people in the rural and urban areas. The State Bank, however, also acts as Agent to the Reserve Bank of India and conducts Government transactions. In addition it provides remittance facilities to scheduled banks, co-operative banks and co-operative societies. The role of the State Bank of India in respect of providing agricultural and rural credit facilities in the district at present consists in (a) financing agriculturists by way of advances to them against pledge of gold ornaments, (b) making advances against warehouse receipts, and (c) making advances to co-operative and marketing societies by way of repledge of their stocks with the Bank.

There are three branches and two pay-offices of the State Bank of India operating in Nagpur district. These branches are located one each at Nagpur, Kamptee and Umrer, respectively; while the pay-offices are situated one in Nagpur proper and the other at Katol. Clearing House facilities are also available at Nagpur.

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State Bank of India.

In 1962, there were 11 banks in Nagpur district with 18 branch offices, three sub-offices and one pay office. The names as well as the location of these banks are given below:—

Name of the Bank (1)	*Location* (2)	*Number of Offices* (3)
The State Bank of India	Kamptee ..	1 Branch.
The State Bank of India	Katol ..	1 Pay-office.
The State Bank of India	Umrer ..	1 Branch.
The State Bank of India	Nagpur ..	2 Branches.
The Allahabad Bank Ltd.	Do. ..	3 Branches.
The Bank of India, Ltd.	Do. ..	2 Branches.
The Bank of Maharashtra, Ltd.	Do. ..	3 Branches
The Canara Bank Ltd.	Do. ..	2 Branches.
The Central Bank of India	Do. ..	1 Branch and 1 Sub-office.
The Bank of Baroda, Ltd.	Do. ..	2 Branches.
The Punjab National Bank Ltd. ..	Do. ..	1 Branch and 1 Sub-office.
The United Commercial Bank Ltd. ..	Do. ..	1 Branch and 1 Sub-office.
The State Bank of Bikaner	Do. ..	1 Branch.
The Union Bank of India, Ltd.	Do. ..	1 Branch.

Except the State Bank which has its branches in the city and in the mofussil areas most of the banks are located in Nagpur city only. These banks receive deposits and advance loans on securities. They also extend other banking facilities such as overdraft, deposit, safe-deposit vaults, etc., to meet the requirements of trade, commerce and industry. The rates of interest, charged by them on advances differ according to the purpose for which the advances are made. Generally loans without security are not favoured, and if made, are for small sums and for short durations only. The interest rates in such cases range from 8 per cent to 9 per cent per annum. Such advances, however, are payable on demand and allowed for short duration only. Loans to industries are also given, the rate of interest varying between 7 and 8 per cent per annum. For cloth merchants and hard-ware dealers the rate of interest is between 7½ per cent and 8 per cent. Advances to industries are given priority over those to merchants dealing in seasonal crops like cotton, food-grains, etc. Next preference is given to traders and last to the personal account-holders.

Since the establishment of the Industrial Estate at Nagpur the joint-stock banks have mainly engaged themselves in financing small-scale industries with medium-term finance.

Besides the regular banking operations some of these banks also provided facilities of safe deposit vaults.

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The following tables give the operations of the joint-stock banks in Nagpur district especially as regards their advances for the years from 1960 to 1962 and their deposits at the end of the year 1961.

TABLE No. 4

DEPOSITS OF ALL SCHEDULED BANKS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1962

(In lakhs of Rs.)

Centres	Deposits at the end of December 1961
1. Nagpur City ..	618
	Average of month-end deposit balances in the half year July-December 1961.
2. Kamptee	7
3. Katol	
4. Umrer	

TABLE No. 5

ADVANCES OF ALL SCHEDULED BANKS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT ACCORDING TO SECURITY

(Rs. in '000s)

Nature of Security (1)	March 25, 1960 (2)	March 31, 1961 (3)	March 30, 1962 (4)
I.—FOOD ARTICLES			
Paddy and Rice			
(Total 1 + 2)	5,68	7,15	5,57
1. To Rice Mills	..	1,66	..
2. To others	5,68	5,49	5,57
Wheat (Total 3 + 4)	3,05	1,78	77
3. To Flour Mills	2,68	1,66	..
4. To others	37	12	77
5. Gram	..	13	..
6. Other grains and pulses (including Jowar, Bajra and Maize).	4,37	4,13	5,39
Sugar and Gur			
(Total 7 + 8)	3,50	1,28	7,04
7. To Sugar Factories	..	..	1,28
8. To others..	3,50	1,28	5,76
9. Vegetable oils including *Vanaspati* ..	1,15	2,28	77
II.—INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS			
10. Groundnuts	14	23	13
11. Other oilseeds	3,05	3,76	4,22
Cotton and Kapas			
(Total 12 + 13 + 14)	58,65	63,55	100,48
12. To Cotton Textile Mills	53,17	56,14	85,91
13. To Ginning Factories	4,11	7,39	8,95
14. To others..	1,37	2	5,62
15. Raw Jute	..	..	..
16. Hides and Skins	45	15	30

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TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

ADVANCES OF ALL SCHEDULED BANKS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT ACCORDING TO SECURITY.

(Rs. in '000s)

Nature of Security (1)	March 25, 1960 (2)	March 31, 1961 (3)	March 30, 1962 (4)
III.—PLANTATION PRODUCTS			
17. Tea	..	..	..
18. Cashewnuts	..	..	..
19. Pepper and other spices	41	82	89
20. Coffee	..	..	..
IV.—MANUFACTURES AND MINERALS			
Cotton Textiles			
(Including yarn Total 21 + 22)	1,23,45	1,53,96	1,92,77
21. To Mills	76,82	86,12	1,13,13
22. To others..	46,63	67,84	79,64
23. Jute Textiles	73	41	29
24. Other Textiles (Silk, Art Silk, Woollen, etc.).	1,68	72	1,09
25. Iron, Steel and Engineering Products ..	9,77	47,34	23,83
26. Other Metals and Metal Products ..	5,37	4,58	6,05
27. Coal, Manganese, Mica and other Minerals and Mineral Oils.	1,06,67	50,04	55,55
28. Chemicals, Dyes, Paints, Drugs and Pharmaceuticals.	31	1,28	1,05
29. Electrical Goods	72	2,43	2,15
30. Rubber and Rubber Products	21	13	79
31. Other Manufactured goods	1,95	6,15	5,09
V.—OTHER SECURITIES			
32. Real Estate	10,47	22,09	13,85
33. Gold and Silver Bullion	5,12	4,61	25
34. Gold and Silver Ornaments		8,31	2,97
35. Fixed Deposits	24,36	14,70	1,63
36. Government and other Trustee Securities.	20,05	16,13	18
Shares of Joint Stock Companies.			
(Total 37 + 38)	18,06	8,66	7,62
37. To stock and share brokers and dealers..	..	19	..
38. To others..	18,06	8,47	7,62
39. Debentures of Joint Stock Companies	21,44	22,86	24,15
40. Assets of Industrial Concerns fixed or floating (other than those specified under above categories).	1,42	43	43
41. Other Secured Advances not mentioned above.	61,07	79,36	89,24
42. Composite Advances	8,51	8,61	7,04
TOTAL SECURED ADVANCES			
(Total 1 to 42)	5,01,81	5,38,06	5,61,58

It is clear from Table No. 4 that the total amount of deposits held by the banks as at the end of December 1961 was Rs. 62,50,000. A substantial part of it was owned by the banks' clientele belonging to Nagpur city.

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Table No. 5 reveals that among several groups, the group of Manufacturers and Minerals was in receipt of the largest volume of advances. This was due mostly to the progress made by the cotton textile industry in the district. Naturally among "Industrial Raw Materials" cotton and *kapas* were given first preference in making the advances. It will also be seen that the total secured advances for the different types of commodities were increased by these banks almost every year. This was far more true in case of cotton and kapas than any other commodities.

During recent years significant improvement could be marked in the growth of banking and savings habits of the people in the district. This is evident from the fact that during the last few years almost all the important banks in India opened their offices in Nagpur city. Even in mofussil areas the State Bank extended its activities by establishing its sub-offices. All these banks receive deposits from both, the business men and the middle-class or salaried persons. The banks also accommodate the petty business community in the district by granting it loan facilities. This incidentally leads to a keen competition among banks. However, some of the smaller banks, which are able to attract clientele by providing them liberal facilities, still attract good business.

Insurance.

The Life Insurance Corporation was established by the Government of India on 1st September 1956, after the passing of the Life Insurance Corporation Act of 1956, which nationalised the business of life insurance and made the Corporation the only agency for carrying out life insurance business in the whole of India. General insurance which includes fire, marine, accident and other insurance is, however, kept open to private enterprise. Most of the former insurance companies and societies which used to transact all insurance business including life, have now switched over entirely to general insurance.

Under the new organisational and administrative set-up of the Life Insurance Corporation, Nagpur district is placed under the territorial jurisdiction of the Nagpur Division of the Western Zone together with Akola, Amravati, Bhandara, Buldhana, Chanda, Wardha and Yeotmal districts.

The jurisdiction of the Nagpur branch extends over Nagpur and Bhandara districts. The total number of agents in this branch during each of the years from 1956 to 1960 is given below:—

Date	Total number of Agents in the branch
(i) on 31-12-1956	1,636
(ii) on 31-12-1957	1,705
(iii) on 31-12-1958	1,992
(iv) on 31-12-1959	918
(v) on 31-12-1960	737

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Insurance.

The total business of insurance proposed and completed during this period is given in the following statement:—

THE TOTAL BUSINESS PROPOSED AND COMPLETED DURING THE PERIOD FROM 1-9-1956 TO 30-4-1960.

Period	Proposed		Completed	
	No. of proposals	Sum proposed	No. of policies	Sum assured
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Rs.		Rs.
1-9-1956 to 31-12-1956 ..	1,342	48,00,000	915	30,75,500
1-1-1957 to 31-12-1957 ..	6,124	2,22,85,250	5,188	2,01,02,200
1-1-1958 to 31-12-1958 ..	6,558	2,06,07,500	5,186	2,05,08,500
1-1-1959 to 31-12-1959 ..	7,544	2,48,04,750	6,600	2,03,39,250
1-1-1960 to 30-4-1960 ..	1,730	58,69,750	1,082	31,51,250

It will be seen from the above statement that the number of agents during the first three years since the inception of the Corporation increased gradually. This resulted in an increase in the number of proposals as also the sums proposed during each of the respective years. The increase in the number of proposals corresponded with a still greater increase in the insurance policies and the sums assured against them. It was found, however, that the number of proposals entertained was not uniform throughout the year. Towards the close of every year, especially, in December, there was, on the whole, heavy rush for securing business on the part of the agents since each of them was obliged to complete a specific quota of the insurance business before the end of the financial year.

In the year 1959, for example, the number of policies issued out from January to November was 377 per month on an average, and the sum proposed Rs. 9,58,854. During December 1959, however, the number of policies in which case business was completed was 2,451 and the sum assured Rs. 88,33,000.

Figures of premia also indicate the growth of insurance in this district. Premia figures as per audited trial balance as in 1957, 1958 and 1959 are given below:—

Period	First Year Premiums	Renewal Premiums
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	Rs.
1-9-1956 to 31-12-1957	57,17,010·24	8,37,734·44
1-1-1958 to 31-12-1958	57,48,550·45	53,92,253·11
1-1-1959 to 31-12-1959	32,04,444·97	52,35,336·69

Insurance.

The above figures as on 31-12-1957 and 31-12-1958 are inclusive of Nasik and Satara Divisional Offices, and the figures for the year 1959 are only for Poona Divisional Office, including branches. Branchwise premium figures are not given because no branch except Aurangabad Branch under this division collects renewal premiums.

The over-all annual increase in the insurance business since its nationalisation indicates the growing insurance habits of the people. Likewise, it also reflects the savings potential of the society. It is also an indication of the wholehearted response of the people to the nationalisation of the life insurance business.

Small-Savings Movement.

The Small-Savings Movement was started in India in 1945 with the intention of mopping up purchasing power to fight the inflationary forces in post-war years. The Planning Commission later adopted it as an important means to finance its expenditure on capital schemes included in the Five-Year Plans.

Categories of Small-Savings.

Following categories of investments have been classified as small-savings investments:—

(1) Post-office Savings Certificates.

(2) 12-Year National Plan Savings Certificates, issued from 1st June 1957 including past holdings of 12-Year and 7-Year National Savings Certificates as well as 10-Year National Plan Certificates issued before June 1957.

(3) 15-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates issued from 1st June 1957 including past holdings of Treasury Deposit Certificates issued before that date.

(4) 15-Year Annuity Certificates.

(5) Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

Post-Office Savings Banks.

The Post-Office Savings Banks constitute an important source for the collection of small savings, especially from people of small means. The agency of post-office savings banks is well-suited to the rural areas where there are meagre banking facilities. Moreover, as an agency of the Government, they enjoy complete confidence of the people. Keeping savings banks accounts constitutes one of the functions of the post-offices and can, therefore, be carried on economically which is not possible in case of other banking institutions.

The post-office savings scheme is one in which even the poorest can participate. A person can open his account with Rs. 2 at any post-office which does savings bank work. An account may be opened by an individual himself or by two persons, jointly, payable to (i) both, or (ii) either. Interest allowed for this deposit on individual and joint account is 2½ per cent on the sum exceeding this amount. The maximum amount that can be deposited is Rs. 15,000 in case of an individual and Rs. 30,000 in case of joint account. Non-profit-making institutions and co-operative societies derive the same

facilities as are enjoyed by individuals from post-office savings banks. There are no limits to the amount of investment by such institutions in the public account at post-offices. It is desirable in national interest that all non-profit-making institutions keep their surplus funds in the post-office savings banks. Commanding Officer of a unit, District Superintendent of Police, Chairman or a President of District Board or Municipality may open a single account, called the "conjoint account" on behalf of employees under them. In all these cases withdrawals are permissible twice a week.

By 1962-63, there were 57 sub-post offices and 68 branch offices doing savings bank work in Nagpur district. The following table (No. 6) indicates that the total investment made in the postal savings banks from 1960-61 to 1962-63 amounted to Rs. 65,408,044. Although the number of account holders in each of these years increased the net withdrawals from the banks increased considerably, diminishing the balance at the end of financial year.

TABLE No. 6

WORKING OF THE POST OFFICE SAVINGS BANKS, NAGPUR DISTRICT

Year	Number of account holders at the Bank	Bank balance at the end of the financial year	Investments during the year	Net withdrawals during the year
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1960-61	81,378	42,73,744	2,19,40,151	1,76,66,407
1961-62	89,041	17,96,039	2,24,69,867	2,06,73,828
1962-63	95,000	3,05,094	2,09,98,026	2,23,03,120

TABLE No. 7

AMOUNT INVESTED IN AND WITHDRAWN FROM NATIONAL SAVINGS CERTIFICATES OF DIFFERENT MATURITIES

Year	Investments			Withdrawals			Net
	5-Year	7-Year	12-Year	5-Year	7-Year	12-Year	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
			Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
1960-61	..	..	80,20,770	..	9,70,105	..	70,50,665
1961-62	..	..	54,85,760	..	9,81,461	..	45,04,299
1962-63		..	56,05,575	..	19,97,724	..	36,07,841

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Small-Savings Movement.

Post-Office Savings Bank.

TABLE No. 8

FIGURES SHOWING NET COLLECTIONS OF SMALL SAVINGS

Name of the Certificate	Year 1960-61	Year 1961-62	Year 1962-63
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
12-Year National Plan Savings Certificates and National Defence Certificates.	70,50,665	45,04,299	36,07,841
10-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates and Defence Deposit Certificates.	5,43,500	5,16,450	6,37,195
15-Year Annuity Certificates ..	42,160	73,815	26,600

Savings Deposits.

The Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Scheme.—Of the important small savings schemes the Ten-year Treasury Savings Deposit Scheme is one. It was started in 1951. Originally the deposits were to be multiples of 100 only with a ceiling on the maximum amount that may be invested, the ceiling varying according to the nature of the holders. From January 2, 1958, deposits have been accepted in multiples of Rs. 50 only. These were available at the Reserve Bank of India, branches of the State Bank of India doing treasury work and treasuries and sub-treasuries. The deposits are repayable at par on the expiry of ten calendar years from the date of deposit and till June, 1957 the rate of interest allowed on them was 3½ per cent per annum. The same was raised to 4 per cent from the said date. Interest is paid annually on the completion of each period of twelve calendar months from the date of deposit. No interest is allowed for any period of less than a year. At the option of the depositors, the deposits are refundable at any time after the expiry of one year after deducting a discount at a graded rate, the latter decreasing as the maturity approaches. The interest earned is not liable to income-tax. The certificates can be pledged with the scheduled banks and co-operative societies and banks to secure advances against them thus enabling the small savers to tide over temporary difficulty without encashing them prematurely.

The following statement shows the amounts of net collections of small savings in the Nagpur district from 1960-61 to 1962-63.

Year	Amount Collected
	Rs.
1960-61	5,43,500
1961-62	5,16,450
1962-63	6,37,195

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Savings Deposits.

Twelve-Year National Plan Savings Certificates.—The Government discontinued the 7-Year and 12-Year National Savings Certificates and 10-Year National Plan Certificates and issued the 12-Year National Plan Savings Certificates with effect from June 1957. The amounts invested and withdrawn in the 12-Year National Savings Certificates are given in Table No. 7. The latter are available at all postal savings banks in the denominations of from Rs. 5 to Rs. 5,000. They yield an income-tax free simple interest of 5.41 per cent and compound interest of 4.25 per cent at maturity, that is at the end of twelve years. Before and after the period of non-encashability, any certificate can be transferred as security to: (1) Government Gazetted Officer, (2) Reserve Bank or Scheduled bank or co-operative society or co-operative bank, (3) Corporation or a Government Company and (4) local authority.

The accompanying table (No. 8) shows that from 1960-61 to 1962-63 the total amount invested in the 12-Year National Plan Savings Certificates amounted to Rs. 1,91,12,105. There were no withdrawals during these years.

Fifteen-Year Annuity Certificates.—These certificates were issued since 2nd January, 1958 and are sold in multiples of Rs. 1,330 up to Rs. 26,600 and yield the amount together with compound interest of approximately 4.25 per cent every year by way of monthly payments, spread over 15 years. If the investor dies during the period, the amount may be paid to his legal heir. Jointly one could invest up to Rs. 53,200. These certificates are also available at such places where Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates are sold.

The foregoing table (No. 8) indicates that from 1960-61 to 1962-63 the total amount invested in Annuity Certificates in Nagpur district was Rs. 1,42,575. The sale was more pronounced in 1961-62.

State-Aid to Agriculture.

The system of granting *tagai* loans to the needy agriculturists and farmers is not new. Even before the British rule, it was being operated, although on a small-scale, to help agriculturist tide over years of famine or drought. Later the system was applied almost invariably even during normal years. Under the British administration, a number of Acts were passed between 1871 and 1879. Substantial financial assistance, however, was granted only after the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883 and the Agriculturists' Loans Act of 1884 came into force. The former Act is broadly concerned with long-term loans while the latter deals with short-term accommodation.

Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883.

Loans under this Act are granted to cultivators for works of improvement on land such as construction of wells and tanks, preparation of land for irrigation, drainage, reclamation of land from rivers or other waters and protection of it from floods or erosion. The Collectors, Prant Officers and Mamlatdars are authorised under this Act to grant loans—each to a specific extent and charge on all loans an interest at the rate of 8.50

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Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883.

per cent, *i.e.*, 16 pies (*i.e.*, 8 paise) per rupee per annum. The Government, however, may charge in particular case, a reduced rate or charge no interest at all. The loan is given when the grantor is satisfied as to the security with a margin of safety. When the value of the applicant's interest in the land to be improved clearly covers the amount of the loan with interest and the cost (if any) likely to be incurred in making the same, collateral security is not required at all. Generally immovable property is demanded as security against loan if amount advanced is large. Personal security may be accepted, even that of one person, provided that his solvency is certain.

Loans during early period.

From 1874 to 1905-06 a sum of about Rs. 2.50 lakhs was advanced under this Act in Nagpur district. Of this about Rs. 40,000 were advanced in the famine of 1896-97 and Rs. 1,50,000 in the famine of 1899. Prior to 1896-97 the amounts advanced were insignificant while in five years from 1901 they averaged about Rs. 5,000 per annum. Improvements on land for which loans were advanced were mainly in the nature of construction of embankments on sloping land, the sinking of wells and the building of tanks in the rice tracts. During the fifteen years ending 1904 a total of 216 *sanads* or certificates were issued for works of improvement on land. Of these 98 were given for construction of wells, 15 for tanks and 103 for field embankments. There were other minor improvements for which certificates were not given such as small works costing less than Rs. 50 and maintenance and repairs. During the 30 years' settlement, the sums expended on improvements for the first fifteen years, from 1864 to 1880, came to Rs. 1.18 lakhs and for the next fifteen years to Rs. 2.21 lakhs, thus showing a substantial advance during the later period of the settlement[1].

Loans under Five-Year Plans.

The extent of financial assistance was considerably enlarged during subsequent years and substantial amounts of *tagai* loans were advanced during the implementation of the Five-Year Plans. During the First Five-Year Plan Rs. 6,36,104 were advanced to cultivators as *taccavi* or *tagai* loans for constructing or improving 1,021 wells and an additional area was brought under irrigation. This scheme was known as the "Minor Irrigation Scheme". Loans to the extent of Rs. 15,31,320 for the purchase of 832 pumping sets and oil-engines were also advanced and 186·155 hectares (460 acres) were brought under irrigation. During the Second Plan Period, it was proposed to construct 1,080 wells which were expected to bring 874·121 hectares (2,160 acres) under irrigation. Of this 150 wells were constructed in 1956-57 which brought an area of 222·577 hectares (550 acres) under irrigation. A special and concerted drive for accelerating the well-sinking programme was launched in 1957-58 and Rs. 3,11,740 for the construction of 543 new wells and Rs. 77,200 for repairing 281 wells were advanced as first instalment of loans. These wells were expected to provide water for irrigation to 1,011·715 hectares (2,500 acres) of additional land. During 1958-59

[1]. Settlement Report, 1899, para. 103.

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State-Aid to Agriculture.

Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884.

Rs. 7,02,101 were advanced as *tagai* loans for sinking wells, Rs. 36,525 for construction of tanks and Rs. 9,925 for building of bunds on paddy fields. In addition a sum of Rs. 3,58,253.77 was given for ploughing fields with tractors, Rs. 1,19,320 for installation of pumping sets and Rs. 4,297.48 for application of the Japanese method of paddy cultivation.

Under this Act loans may be granted to holders of arable lands for—(a) purchase of seed, fodder, cattle, agricultural stock, agricultural implements, hire of agricultural implements or cattle, etc., (b) rebuilding houses destroyed by fire, flood or any other calamity, (c) maintenance of cultivators while engaged in sowing or tilling their lands prior to the next crop, (d) any other purpose not specified in the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883, connected with agricultural objects. Collectors, Prant Officers and Tahsildars are authorised to grant loans up to specified limits. Loans above Rs. 2,500 have to be referred to Government for approval. Interest of 8½ per cent, *i.e.*, 16 pies (i.e., 8 paise) in the rupee per annum is charged on all loans, but Government on the recommendation of the Collector may in particular cases authorise a reduced rate or charge no interest at all. Terms as regards security are the same as under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883.

Loans during early period.

During the last decades of the 19th century advances under the Agriculturists' Loans Act were comparatively small in normal seasons. Between 1888 and 1905, a total of Rs. 1.79 lakhs had been advanced, the bulk of which was given out during the bad years between 1896 and 1902. From 1902 to 1906 the sums lent were only to the tune of about Rs. 3,000 per annum. Practically, the whole sum due for repayment under both kinds of loans had been recovered as it fell due.

However, amounts that were very small were not recovered at all.

Loans under Five-Year Plans.

As in the case of loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883, the scope of financial assistance under this Act has also been considerably increased during recent years as will be seen from the figures of *tagai* loans granted during 1958-59. During this year, Rs. 41,839.50 were advanced to the cultivators for the purchase of seeds and Rs. 1,42,946.07 for the purchase of manure, respectively. That is, both these sums were granted to meet the current farm expenditure. It should be remembered, however, that loans under both these Acts—the Land Improvement Loans Act and the Agriculturists' Loans Act—are sanctioned on proper security and on joint responsibility. In case where loans are sanctioned on collateral security, land is hypothecated. Where, however, the loans are granted on joint responsibility and the individual borrowers are responsible for repayment of loans to each other, 95 per cent of loans are sanctioned on collateral security and 5 per cent on joint responsibility. Generally, loans to the extent of half the amount of the solvency of the borrower are granted to the cultivators under these Acts.

During 1961-62 fairly large amounts of loans were granted to the agriculturists under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883 and the Agriculturists' Loans Act of 1884. The actual amounts disbursed under these acts were Rs. 2,87,053 and Rs. 1,93,393, respectively. During the same period a total sum of Rs. 3,55,377 was advanced under the Grow More Food Campaign. Of this, Rs. 3,50,377 were given by way of loans and Rs. 5,000 by way of subsidy. The following tables (Nos. 9 to 14) give the details of the *tagai* loans granted to the agriculturists in the Nagpur district. They indicate, in the first instance, the total number of applications received and sanctioned as well as the amounts of loans asked for, sanctioned and actually disbursed during the period. Secondly, they indicate the purposes for which these loans were granted. Thirdly, they indicate the time-lag between the date of application, the date of sanction and the date of disbursement of these loans. Lastly, these tables indicate the reasons as to why in a number of cases the applications for loans were turned down by the Government.

TABLE No. 9

GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE, NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1961-62

Particulars	Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883	Loans under Agriculturists' Loans, Act, 1884	Financial assistance Under Grow More Food Campaigns	
			Loans	Cash subsidies
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4-A)	(4-B)
1. Applications pending at the beginning of the year.	5	121	..	..
2. Amount involved in 1 (Rs.)	9,900	72,012·50	..	..
3. Number of applications received during the year.	1,197	393	..	..
4. Total amount applied for by these applicants (Rs.).	6,15,396·60	2,16,000·00	..	..
5. Number of applications sanctioned.	675	393	..	..
6. Total amount asked for in 5 above (Rs.).	2,91,876·60	1,95,682·50	..	..
7. Total amount actually sanctioned (Rs.).	2,87,053·00	1,93,393·16	..	..
8. Total amount actually disbursed during the year. (Rs.).	2,87,053·00	1,93,393·16	3,50,377	5,000
9. Total loans repaid during the year (Rs.).	4,93,223.89	2,23,521·93	..	..
10. Total loans outstanding (Rs.)	36,45,598·32	10,30,237·36	..	..

TABLE No. 10

GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PURPOSE, NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1961-62

Purpose for which financial assistance is given	Loans under L. I. Loans Act, 1883	Loans under Agri. Loans Act, 1884	Financial Assistance under Grow More Food Campaign	
			Loans	Cash subsidies
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4-*a*)	(4-*b*)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. For current farm expenditure—				
(*a*) Seed	..	17,074·31	1,549·00	..
(*b*) Fodder..	..	..	..	..
(*c*) Manure	..	21,859·49	21,859·49	..
(*d*) Farm Implements ..	..	..	..	..
2. Purchase of draught animals.	..	..	..	..
3. Well-digging and other irrigation projects.	1,60,950·00	1,15,140·00	2,76,090·00	..
4. Land Improvement ..	63,976·40	..	58,976·40	5,000·00
5. Consumption	..	..	..	..

TABLE No. 11

GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE, NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1961-62

Date of applications	Number of applications	Amount applied for	Amount sanctioned
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
		Rs.	Rs.
On the same day	..	..	..
Less than one month	355	93,400·00	86,287·06
1—2 months	342	2,22,500·00	1,62,175·00
2—3 months	539	4,12,900·00	1,53,950.00
3—4 months	..	..	..
4—5 months	..	..	..
5—6 months	..	..	..
6—7 months	7	3,750·00	3,750·00
7—8 months	98	30,796·60	30,796.60
Over 8 months	..	..	..
Not ascertainable	..	..	..
Total ..	1,341	7,63,346·60	4,36,958·66

TABLE No. 12

GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE, NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1961-62

Time-lag between the date of sanction and the date of disbursement (1)	Number of applications (2)	Amount sanctioned (3)	Amount disbursed (4)
		Rs.	Rs.
On the same day	299	1,88,496·60	1,88,496·60
Less than 1 month	659	2,53,467·06	2,41,422·06
1—2 months	..	..	..
2—3 months	..	..	..
3—4 months	..	..	..
4—5 months	..	..	..
5—6 months	..	..	..
6—7 months	..	..	..
7—8 months	..	..	..
Over 8 months	..	..	..
Not ascertainable	..	..	..
Total ..	958	4,41,963·66	4,29,918·66

TABLE No. 13

GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE, NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1961-62

Duration of loan (1)	Number of applications (2)	Amount (3)
		Rs.
Less than 3 months..	..	..
3—6 months	..	..
6—9 months	..	..
9—12 months	..	..
1—2 years	120	26,201·65
2—3 years	..	..
3—4 years	..	..
4—5 years	..	..
5 years and above	838	4,03,717·01
Those who have not stated the duration.. ..	..	..
Total ..	958	4,29,918·66

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TABLE No. 14

GOVERNMENT FINANCE FOR AGRICULTURE, NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1961-62

Reasons for rejection (1)	Number of applications (2)	Amount (3)
		Rs.
1. Lack of security or adequate security	114	87,250·00
2. Purposes of loan not approved of	70	2,555·00
3. Old dues to Government	420	2,91,060·00
4. Miscellaneous	28	11,500·00
Total ..	632	3,92,365·00

The foregoing tables are indicative of quite a few facts. It will be seen, for example, that although the Government had sanctioned about fifty per cent of the applications for the *tagai* loans, it squarely met with the demands for loans made in them. The position of the repayment of loans was fair during the year and shows a substantial rise over former years. As regards the purposes for which the *tagai* was granted, it could be observed that "irrigation and land improvement" were foremost since substantially large amounts were paid for well-digging and other irrigation projects as also for making improvements on land. It may be noted here that the Government was very prompt during this period in dealing with cases of loans, or disposing them of or disbursing the amounts to the applicants. The time-lag between the sanctioning of a large number of applications and the disbursement of loans was a short one. Most of the applications were sanctioned within three months after receiving them while the amounts were disbursed only within a month after the sanction was made.

Of the total number of applications for *tagai* loans 632 were rejected on various grounds. An important reason for the rejection of applications was the non-payment of the old dues by the agriculturists. About four hundred and twenty applications or over 66 per cent of the total number of applications were rejected on this ground. Lack of security or inadequate security on the basis of which loans were demanded was another important reason for rejection of loans, as nearly 18 per cent of the total number of applications rejected fall under this category.

State-Aid to Industries.

Since Independence, Government have actively participated in the industrial field. The Second Five-Year Plan assigned important place to the small-scale industries. It emphasised that the sector represented by these industries should be viewed more as a progressive rather than a static part of the economy. In conformity with this policy the Government have been

adopting different plans and measures to develop these industries. One such measure is to render financial assistance to them. A number of schemes have been chalked out accordingly under which financial assistance is granted by the State to artisans and their co-operative societies. According to the orders of the Government, finance required for long-term purposes by industrial co-operatives such as for purchase of tools and equipment and/or machinery, is to be provided by Government. The central financing agencies are generally requested to provide working capital for these societies either on the strength of their own funds or on the strength of marginal guarantee varying between 20 and 40 per cent given by the Joint Registrar of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries. The Maharashtra State Co-operative Bank, too, offers on a small-scale, such assistance to these industries.

Financial Assistance under the Rules, 1935.

Financial assistance to industries is given under the State-aid to Small-scale and Cottage Industries Rules, 1935. Loans, accordingly, are granted for the following purposes:—

(1) Construction of buildings, godowns, warehouses, wells, tanks and other works necessary for industrial operations and for purchase of land;

(2) Purchase and erection of machinery, plant and appliances;

(3) Purchase of raw materials;

(4) Working capital; and

(5) Fishing.

The Government have been a pioneer in the development of cottage and small-scale industries. From 1948, the Government undertook to implement a progressive industrial policy. Since then the Government have been taking keen interest in the development of these industries as one of the effective antidotes to the problem of unemployment. It was also decided by the Government to develop these industries on a co-operative basis and to reserve a separate field for cottage and smal-scale industries. The amendment to the State-aid to Industries Rules, 1935, was effected in 1955 with a view to bringing the liberalised policy adopted by Government to give a fillip to the development of cottage and small-scale industries. The Central Government have placed a sum of Rs. 10 lakhs at the disposal of the State Government.

The important changes introduced by recent amendment are—

(1) Loans to small-scale industries will be granted by the Department of Industries up to Rs. 75,000 in each case and in exceptional cases up to Rs. 1,00,000.

(2) The former rate of 5½ per cent compound interest is brought down to 5 per cent compound interest per annum subject to a stipulation that if the instalments are not paid in

time a penalty of ½ per cent shall be levied on all amounts including the principal and interest of the period for which arrears are unpaid.

(3) Loans are advanced to the extent of 75 per cent of the security offered instead of 50 per cent as provided in the earlier rules. Loans are given also against personal security of persons other than borrowers.

Financial Assistance under the Rules, 1935.

(4) The period of repayment of the loans on account of machinery and equipment is up to ten years; such period in respect of that part of the loan which is meant for working capital would not ordinarily exceed five to seven years.

The following table indicates the amounts of loans granted to the different industries between 1948 and 1955 in Nagpur district.

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State-Aid to Industries.

Financial Assistance under the Industrial Rules, 1935.

TABLE No. 15

STATISTICS OF LOANS DISBURSED IN NAGPUR DISTRICT

Name and address of the loanee (1)	Name of Industry (2)	Amount of loan granted (3)	Terms and conditions (4)	Date of disbursement (5)
		Rs.		
B. R. Paonikar, Nagpur	Textile	50,000	5 per cent equal annual instalments of Rs. 10,000 each.	12-8-55
Nagpur Glass Works, Nagpur ..	Glass	1,34,000	5 per cent 15 equal annual instalments of Rs. 8,933·34 each.	29-3-56
Commercial Engineering Works, Nagpur	Cycle spare parts	1,00,000	5 per cent 6 equal annual instalments of Rs. 16,666·69 each.	2-4-56
Central Hindustan Orange and Cold Storage Co. Ltd., Nagpur.	Fruit preservation	5,00,000	4 per cent 11 annual instalments (1st and 11th of Rs. 50,000 each).	22-1-48
M. P. Silk and Rayon Twisting Industries, Nagpur.	Silk yarn twisting	5,00,000	4½ per cent and 2nd to 10th of Rs. 1,00,000 each.	25-7-49
M/s. Gondwana Paints and Minerals Ltd., Nagpur.	Paints	75,000	5 per cent 8 annual instalments (first five of Rs. 9,000 each and the remaining of Rs. 10,000 each).	24-3-58
M/s. Nava Samaj Ltd., Nagpur ..	.. .. ..	6,60,000	Have been invested in the form of shares ..	..
		50,000	Have been invested in the form of shares ..	..

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It will be seen from the table that within a period of ten years from 1948 to 1956 the total amount of loan granted to the industries in Nagpur district was Rs. 20,69,000. All these industries were located at Nagpur and included Textiles, Glass, Cycle spare parts, Fruit Preservation, Silk-yarn twisting and Paint.

State-Aid to Fisheries.

Development of fisheries forms a part of the "Grow More Food" programme. Nagpur being an inland district, the development potential is restricted to proper exploitation of inland fisheries. Stocking of inland waters with suitable varieties of fish fry, which have a rapid growth and which attain a marketable size in a comparatively short time, is an important scheme in this regard.

Joint-Stock Companies.

Public Limited Companies.

There was not a single public limited company in the Nagpur district till 1911. The first such company in the district was the Nagpur Electric Light and Electric Supply Power Company established at Nagpur in 1911. Most of the companies that exist at present have been established subsequently. In 1959, there were in all 26 such companies in Nagpur district.

The primary object with which these companies start functioning is to engage themselves into some form of productive activity and thereby earn profit. These companies require capital for any or for all of the purposes mentioned below:—

(i) Acquisition and maintenance of plant, equipment, buildings and other assets;

(ii) Holding of current assets in the form of—

(a) inventory of finished products pending sales as well as raw materials and stores required for production;

(b) liquid assets such as cash balances and Government and industrial securities required to pay current or future liabilities and to tide over lean times; and

(c) accounts receivable comprising advance tax payment and credit extended to customers and others.

The funds required may be obtained from internal or external sources. Internal sources represent balance of profits left after all the expenses, taxes and dividends are paid plus accumulated reserves.

External resources may be classified into stock capital, loans and accounts payable, etc. These companies channelise their funds collected from these sources into some kind of productive activity such as manufacturing, trading or transport undertaking.

These companies are classified according to the nature of their work into either of the following three groups: (1) Manufacturing, (2) Trading, and (3) Miscellaneous. In Nagpur district 12 companies belonged to the 'Manufacturing' group, 10 companies belonged to the 'Trading' group and three companies

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Joint-Stock Companies.

Public Limited Companies.

belonged to the 'Miscellaneous' group in 1962. Their financial position during that year was as follows:—

Type of Company (1)	Paid-up Capital (2)	Subscribed Capital (3)	Authorised Capital (4)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Manufacturing	52,11,225	1,18,97,405	1,35,50,000
Trading	73,20,771	95,50,310	1,35,00,000
Miscellaneous..	5,25,744	9,59,800	15,00,000
Total ..	1,30,57,740	2,24,07,515	2,85,50,000

Private Limited Companies.

A large number of private limited companies are also working in Nagpur district. The first such company in the district was the Wali Private Limited, which was engaged in building and construction activities. It was established in 1919. Most of the companies that are operating at present were started after 1950. In 1959 there were 82 private limited companies in the Nagpur district. Most of them have their headquarters at Nagpur proper.

Like Public Limited Companies, these companies can also be classified according to the nature of their work into: (1) Manufacturing, (2) Trading, (3) Transport, and (4) Miscellaneous groups. The companies belonging to these groups numbered 23, 34, 4 and 21, respectively. The following statement gives the financial position of these companies:—

Type of Company (1)	Paid-up Capital (2)	Subscribed Capital (3)	Authorised Capital (4)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Manufacturing	33,76,870	1,41,10,000	1,42,10,000
Trading	47,76,670	2,37,30,000	1,56,30,000
Transport	76,000	11,70,000	11,75,000
Miscellaneous..	15,37,770	56,07,500	63,93,000

SECTION II—TRADE

TRADE.

Nagpur had been an important trade centre for several centuries. It owes its importance to a number of factors: (i) It enjoys a central position in India from the geographical point of view; (ii) It is a centre of the rich outlying agricultural area. Agricultural produce (*e.g.*, cotton, oranges, oilseeds, grains and timber etc.) flows into Nagpur in large quantities; (iii) Rich mineral deposits and coal mines are situated in its vicinity; (iv) It has a historical background as a capital city for centuries; and (v) It enjoys numerous transport facilities. Rail and road-ways run in almost all directions connecting Nagpur with all the important cities and towns of the country. It is also an airport.

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TRADE.

Historical background.

As a trade centre Nagpur has a historical background as well. In the 16th century Nagpur was under the Gond kings. The members of this community were civilized and politically conscious. They were also good cultivators. In 1702 the Gond king Bakhta Buland inhabited Nagpur City. In 1706, it was made the capital of the Gond kingdom and this area flourished. In 1743 Nagpur came under the Maratha kings, the Bhosles. "The general tendency of trade under the Marathas was to increase; but there were three prominent causes at work to prevent the rapid development of commerce. The first was the difficult nature of the country and the wretched means of communication, impeding equally import and export. The second was the feeling of insecurity from the greed of the rulers of the State or their agents. Forced loans were frequently taken from wealthy merchants and bankers without any pretext whatever except that the State wanted money, with the full understanding on both sides that the amount was to be wholly or partially left unpaid. The result of the system was to make the merchant hoard his surplus wealth and secrete it in the form of bullion and jewels, instead of embarking it in profitable but visible mercantile investments. The third was the existence of certain regulations trammelling the free export of grain and the establishment of vicious systems of private monopolies and transit dues.

"Up to and some time after the construction of the railways, Nagpur was not a trading centre of any importance; the cotton of the Nagpur tahsil mostly went to the great entrepot of Hinganghat and that of the Katol tahsil to Amaraoti*." Nagpur cotton fetched high prices in the market. The policy of road-making initiated by Sir R. Temple in 1862, the opening of the railway to Nagpur in 1867, the rise of the cotton industry ten years later, the simultaneous opening of markets in other parts of India, the further extensions of the Chhattisgad line in 1882 and of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway in 1889 have all contributed to the enormous increase in trade. Till then the exports from the Nagpur station included the whole of the produce brought by cart from Bhandara, Balaghat and Chhattisgad. From 1870 rail and road communications were gradually built in various directions and Nagpur has now a network of roads radiating in all the directions and connecting this central place with almost all the market towns of the country, *viz.*, Delhi, Madras, Calcutta, Bombay etc. From 1853 Nagpur came under the British. Then in 1854 it was made into a district. From 1861 Nagpur was the capital of Madhya Pradesh for about a century. It is the chief centre of Vidarbha region, and is now included in the Maharashtra State.

Trade Routes.

Nagpur is the entrepot of trade for the outlying fertile area. The Grand Trunk Express running north-south between Delhi and Madras runs through Nagpur. The Bombay-Nagpur-Howrah Express; the Nagpur-Itarsi; the Nagpur-Nagbhir-

*C. P. District Gazetteers, Vol. A, Nagpur District, 1908, p. 190.

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TRADE.

Trade Routes.

Gondia; the Nagpur-Itwari-Kamptee-Ramtek; the Nagpur-Khapa-Chhindwada-Seoni-Nainpur; the Nagpur-Umrer-Bhiwapur-Chanda railway routes join Nagpur with the nearby agricultural areas and with the distant market towns. Nagpur, Khapa, Katol, Saoner, Ramtek, Kamptee and Bhiwapur are the railway stations in the district. Besides, National Highways and State Highways add to the rail communications. The Nagpur-Jubbulpore; the Bombay-Jalgaon-Bhusawal-Nagpur; the Nagpur-Chhindwada, the Nagpur-Chanda; the Nagpur-Bhandara and the Nagpur-Wardha Roads provide easy communications.

Oranges.

Nagpur oranges have acquired a special name for their flavour and taste. The oranges are in great demand at the important markets in the country as also outside. The oranges have to be transported speedily. These are, therefore, transported by the express trains to Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras, etc. The annual transactions of the Nagpur Santra Market amount to about one crore of rupees.

Minerals.

Locations of coal mines are numerous in Vidarbha, especially in Wardha district and Kamptee-Saoner tract of the Nagpur district. The State mining operations in Kamptee-Saoner tract visualise possibilities of crores of tons of coal. Rich manganese ore is found in considerable amounts in the north-eastern part of the district and especially near Ramtek tahsil. Manganese is aptly termed as "black-diamond" when its potentialities for industrial uses are taken into consideration. The Nagpur-Ramtek railway is chiefly instrumental for the exploitation and transport of minerals and their ores. Prospects of finding iron ore and lime in Chanda and Yeotmal are not remote. The district also has good quality clay, building stone etc.

Timber.

About 3561236.800 hectares (88 lakh acres) of the Vidarbha land is under forests. Of these, most of the forests are in Chanda, Nagpur, Bhandara, Amravati and Yeotmal districts. The Chanda teak is famous all over the country for its fine quality. Timber of all sorts is gathered at Nagpur where there are a number of saw-mills and furniture marts. The timber from Chanda forests comes to Nagpur by the Nagpur-Chanda railway line.

Grains.

The rice from Bhandara is carried to Nagpur by the Nagpur-Bhandara Road. The Nagpur-Bhiwapur line has heavy traffic in chillis.

Cotton.

Vidarbha is famous for cotton cultivation. Lakhs of people are engaged in growing cotton, ginning and pressing, weaving and dyeing mills. In Nagpur district, Saoner and Nagpur tahsils are important cotton-growing areas. Cotton is assembled at Nagpur, where there are two famous cloth mills, *e.g.*, the Empress Mills and the Model Mills. Handloom weaving is also undertaken at Nagpur with remarkable skill.

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Trade Routes.

Cotton.

Thus, a number of factors make Nagpur an industrial and a trading centre. Nearness to rich agricultural areas, ample mineral wealth, easy communication facilities all point to its further development provided its power potentialities and mineral wealth are harnessed increasingly. The City of Nagpur has adequate banking facilities with a branch office of the Reserve Bank and branch offices of 25 other commercial banks.

Nagpur City enjoyed the status of being the capital of Madhya Pradesh. It is now the monsoon headquarters of the Maharashtra Government.

Besides the City of Nagpur, there are other main centres of trade, which are located at railway junctions, *viz.*, Umrer, Bhiwapur, Ramtek, Khapa, Katol, Saoner, and Kamptee.

Extent of Employment.

The census statistics of 1951 reveal that trade and commerce provided livelihood to 1,24,988 persons in the district. Of these, 33,578 persons were self-supporting, 81,418 non-earning dependents and 9,992 were earning dependents. The following tables show (Nos. 1 and 2) the number of self-supporting persons as engaged in various trades in Nagpur district in the year 1951 and 1961.

TABLE No. 16

NUMBER OF SELF-SUPPORTING PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS TRADES IN NAGPUR DISTRICT (1951)

Sub-divisions (1)	Employers (2)		Employees (3)		Independent Workers (4)		Total (5)
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	
Retail trade otherwise unclassified	17	683	139	1,475	833	3,095	6,242
Retail trade in food-stuff (including beverages and narcotics).	127	1,108	320	2,364	3,911	10,292	18,122
Retail trade in fuel (including petrol)	15	158	60	362	184	504	1,283
Retail trade in textile and leather goods	16	471	44	879	779	1,710	3,899
Wholesale trade in food-stuffs	..	11	..	91	157	273	532
Wholesale trade in commodities other than food stuffs.	4	63	285	162	64	347	925
Real estate	..	1	4	5	1	15	26
Insurance	..	12	3	336	..	175	526
Money-lending, banking and other financial business	4	52	386	1,238	182	161	2,023
Total for all Groups ..	183	2,559	1,241	6,912	6,111	16,572	33,578

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Extent of Employment.

TABLE No. 17

NUMBER OF SELF-SUPPORTING PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS TRADES IN NAGPUR DISTRICT (1961)

Categories (1)	Total (2)	Men (3)	Women (4)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Retail trade otherwise unclassified ..	38,078	32,725	5,353
Retail trade in food-stuffs (including beverages).	18,210	14,499	3,711
Retail trade in fuel (including petrol) ..	963	816	147
Retail trade in textile and leather goods..	5,084	4,981	103
Wholesale trade in food-stuffs	1,300	1,272	28
Wholesale trade in commodities other than food-stuffs.	1,313	1,304	9
Real estate	111	102	9
Insurance	738	691	47
Money-lending, banking and other financial business.	1,827	1,782	45
Total ..	67,624	58,172	9,452

Of the 33,578 self-supporting persons, 7,535 were from rural areas and the remaining 26,043 from urban areas. This shows that commercial activity is mainly centred in the urban areas of the district.

The table below, compiled from census reports, gives the number of persons engaged in trade in 1911, 1921 and 1931:—

TABLE No. 18

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN TRADE IN NAGPUR DISTRICT IN 1911, 1921 AND 1931

Category of trade (1)	Number of persons engaged in (2)		
	1911	1921	1931
1. Textiles	2,821	1,848	2,135
2. Skins and leather	390	207	95
3. Wood	107	24	127
4. Metals	26	40	35
5. Pottery, bricks and tiles	14	9	182
6. Chemical products..	157	187	1,818
7. Hotels and restaurants	502	335	582
8. Food-stuffs	13,309	13,761	12,261
9. Clothing and toilet articles ..	310	219	624
10. Furniture	296	180	171
11. Building material	144	34	41
12. Means of transport	186	108	160
13. Fuel	318	1,982	724
14. Articles of luxury and arts ..	978	678	996
15. Others	719	780	3,194
16. Brokerage and commission ..	288	398	428
Total ..	20,565	20,790	23,573

In the absence of a uniform basis for the different censuses, such a statement fails to give a true picture of the change in the employment in trade. Nevertheless, it is calculated to serve as a partial presentation of the occupational trends.

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Changes in the pattern and organisation of Trade.

Unforeseen changes have taken place in the general economic set-up of the country in general and of the district in particular. Trade is not an exception to it. The village self-sufficient economy has given way to regional and national economy which have closely interwoven the economic lives of the people. Mainly instrumental in such a change are the following factors: improvement in the means of transport and communication, production on a large scale, use of scientific methods of production including use of motive power, betterment of the economic lot of the common man etc. These changes could not have but affected the conditions of trade as they existed in a region or a part thereof.

Nagpur enjoyed the status of being an entrepot of trade for the Vidarbha region from olden times. However, a great transformation has taken place in the pattern, composition and organisation of trade since then. Factors like improved means of communications, technological advance and growth of the banking facilities have contributed to this change.

Laying of roads and construction of railways were started in this region in the late nineteenth century and gradually a network of rail and roadways connected Nagpur City with the various market places in the country. The increasing facilities for goods traffic made possible the speedy transport of goods and have thus promoted the trade activity. Quickening of the transport system has made possible the transport of perishable goods like oranges, betel-leaves etc. These goods which formerly had only a local market now reach the distant market places in the country.

The technological advance made in several industrial undertakings since the beginning of this century has affected both the extent and composition of the goods traded. Use of machinery and power has brought in its trail large-scale production and standardisation of goods. Formerly a major portion of the exports from Nagpur consisted of raw materials, *e.g.*, cotton, oil-seeds etc. With the establishment of industrial concerns like cotton mills, oil mills, a vegetable ghee factory, a paper mill, saw-mills etc. processed and semi-processed goods are sent out.

The growth of banking facilities has further facilitated trade. The trade associations help to foster the trade by creating common interest among its members and helping them to overcome the difficulties experienced by them in the trade.

Imports and Exports.

The availability of easy communication facilities at Nagpur has influenced the pattern of the import and export trade carried on at this centre. The fact that Nagpur is joined to the nearby areas either by rail or by road and further that it is joined to the distant trading markets in the country makes Nagpur both as assembling and a distributing centre. Grains, cotton and other agricultural products, timber of good quality etc. are assembled at Nagpur from the neighbouring areas of the

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Imports and Exports.

region, where they are either distributed for consumption in the district, or are utilised in mills and factories. The rest are sent out to other places in the country. On the other hand articles covering large categories of goods and including sugar and gur, salt, spices, grains, textiles and hosiery, drugs and chemicals, jute goods, iron and steel goods etc. are assembled at Nagpur from all over the country and then distributed either in the district or in the neighbouring districts of Vidarbha.

Imports

The chief articles of import in the district are grains, cotton, timber, textiles of fine variety, salt, sugar and gur, kerosene, coconuts, arecanuts, spices, dyes and chemicals, iron and steel goods, machinery, drugs and medicines, wool and woollen goods, leather goods, jute goods, stationery, cutlery etc.

Cotton is assembled from all parts of the Vidarbha region at Nagpur where it is used in the ginning and pressing factories and textile mills. Some of it is, however, exported to Bombay and Sholapur. Rice is chiefly brought from Bhandara. Oil-seeds like groundnuts, linseed, til, cotton-seed etc. are brought to Nagpur, where there are a number of oil *ghanis*. Nagpur has no doubt some good forests lying in the north-eastern part of the district, especially in Ramtek tahsil. However, timber from the adjoining districts is assembled at Nagpur in large quantities. Chanda features prominently among these districts. Timber is cut to suitable sizes in the various saw-mills at Nagpur and the wholesalers of the Nagpur Timber Market export it to all parts of Maharashtra. Nagpur itself is a centre of the textile industry. However, most of the cloth produced here is of a medium or coarse variety. Finer varieties are, therefore, imported from Bombay, Ahmedabad, Madras as well as from abroad. Sea-salt is chiefly brought from Bombay. Sugar and gur are brought from Ahmadnagar, Satara and Kolhapur and some from the north. Kerosene is brought from Bombay. Coconuts are brought from Bombay and Malabar, arecanuts from Ratnagiri, spices from Malabar and Africa (Zanzibar); cardamom from Malabar, dyes and chemicals from Bombay and Calcutta, tea from Bombay and Calcutta and coffee from Malabar; iron and steel goods and machinery from Bombay, Kirloskarwadi and Jamshedpur; drugs and medicines from Bombay, Calcutta, Panvel, Bangalore and Baroda; wool and woollen goods from Kanpur and Kashmir, jute goods from Calcutta, stationery and cutlery from Bombay and Calcutta and leather goods from Kanpur and Calcutta.

Exports

The chief articles exported from Nagpur are cotton and cotton goods, oil-seeds, wheat, fruits like oranges and sweet limes, betel-leaves from Ramtek, timber, manganese ore etc.

The Empress Mills and the Model Mills of Nagpur produce textiles of all variety which are exported all over the country. Handloom sarees of Nagpur are in great demand all over Maharashtra. Among the oil-seeds exported are cotton-seeds, groundnuts, linseed and *til*. Quality timber especially good for

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Imports and Exports.

Exports.

building and furniture purposes is sent out to all parts of Maharashtra. Nagpur orange is an important item on the export schedule of the district and oranges are exported to all the important cities in the country, *viz.*, Bombay, Madras, Delhi, Calcutta, etc. Ramtek betel-leaves are popular all over Maharashtra, but are prized greatly by the *pan*-eaters of North India. Manganese ore is increasingly exploited under the various mining undertakings. The manganese ore of Nagpur has helped the country to earn foreign exchange. The rich coal and iron mines when fully harnessed will almost change the face of this district and the adjoining areas through industrialisation. Plenty of ready-made goods will then find their way through Nagpur to various places in the country.

Wholesale Trade.

Oranges, cotton, chillis, timber and to some extent grains including rice, wheat, jowar, *tur*, *udid*, *mug* (green gram), groundnuts, linseed and *til*, etc., are the important commercial crops in Nagpur. Handloom cloth also is an important commercial item. Since Nagpur is centrally situated and lies on the Madras-Delhi and Bombay-Calcutta railway routes it is advantageously placed as a trade centre. Nagpur is also connected by road to all nearby towns and villages and goods not only from Nagpur district but also from neighbouring districts are assembled at Nagpur. Umrer, Bhiwapur, Saoner and Katol are other important wholesale markets in the district.

Orange trade being a speciality of Nagpur district a separate and comprehensive note is given about the assembling and marketing of oranges.

The following are the various wholesale markets in Nagpur, of which except the Katol Cotton Market all are unregulated.

Bhiwapur Chilli Market.

The Bhiwapur Market is the largest chilli market in the district. Bhiwapur is a railway station on the Nagpur-Nagbhir narrow gauge line. The market is held once a week on every Friday. It is managed by the Janapad Sabha, Umrer. The first chilli season starts late in November and continues till April when half dried red chillis are brought to the market. From May onward dried chillis are brought. About 98 per cent of the produce brought to the market is exported. The remaining is disposed of locally. Fifty per cent of the produce gathered is consumed in the district and in the adjoining districts of Vidarbha and Madhya Pradesh and the rest is sent mainly to Delhi, Madras and Calcutta.

System of Marketing.

Petty merchants visit villages and purchase chillis to sell them in the Bhiwapur Market. In case of village sales the rates are arrived at after considering the transport charges and profit margin. There were in 1961 about 25 brokers at the Bhiwapur market each paying a licence fee of Rs. 5 per annum. There were about 30 weighmen. When the rates are settled the

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System of Marketing.

chillis are weighed in the drying yards. As the market is not regulated there is a wide range of variation in the rates and market charges leading to faulty weigiment and unauthorised charges. There are a number of well-built godowns at Bhiwapur.

Volume of Trade.

About 25,950 cart-loads of chillis valued at Rs. 28,62,500 arrive annually at the Market. The average price per cart of chillis is about Rs. 111 (each cart weighing about 373 kg. (ten Bengali maunds).

Umrer Chilli Market.

The Umrer Chilli Market is a part of the Umrer Grain Market. It is managed by the Municipal Committee, Umrer. The market is held once a week. The season begins in December and ends in March. There were about 33 licensed brokers in 1961. The transactions are carried on the same lines as those of the Bhiwapur Chilli Market.

Umrer Grain Market.

Umrer town lies on the Nagpur-Nagbhir narrow gauge line. The Umrer Grain Market is under the control of the Municipal Committee, Umrer. There were in 1961 about 30 purchasers and 28 brokers in the market. The brokers pay Rs. 10 per annum as a licence fee and the weighmen (numbering 35 in 1961) a licence fee of Rs. 12.50 per annum. The coolies are also licensed. The stock received in the market is sold by open auction. The produce is heaped in an open place and is given to the highest bidder. Payment is usually made on the same day.

Volume of Trade.

The estimated arrivals of different commodities at the Umrer Grain Market are as follows:—

Commodity (1)	Estimated arrivals in carts (2)	Bags in carts (3)	Approximate weight of a bag in Bengali maunds (4) M. Kg.	Average price per Bengali maund (5)	Price of one cart (6)	Total estimated value (7)
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Rice	2,000	6	2½ 93·31	25·00	375	7,50,000
Wheat	1,500	6	2½ 93·31	19·00	285	3,27,500
Gram	75	6	2½ 93·31	12·00	180	14,500
Jowar	1,500	6	2½ 93·31	10·00	150	2,25,000
Tur	500	6	2½ 93·31	13·00	195	97,500
Lakh	300	6	2½ 93·31	11·00	165	49,500
Linseed ..	3,000	6	2½ 93·31	20·00	300	9,00,000
Til	1,000	6	2½ 93·31	34·00	510	5,10,000
Chillis ..	15,000	..	10 (3.73 quintals)	13·00	130	19,50,000

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Volume of Trade.

The produce assembled in the market is disposed of as follows:—

Commodity (1)	Local Consumption (percentage) (2)	Export to other places (percentage) (3)
Rice	75	25
Wheat	50	50
Gram	100	..
Jowar	60	40
Tur	10	90
Lakh	50	50
Linseed	30	70
Til	..	100
Chillis	..	100

Katol Grain Market.

Katol is a railway station on the Nagpur-Itarsi railway line, 61.15 km. (38 miles) from Nagpur. Its situation has led to the development of a grain market at Katol. There are a number of godowns at Katol. Katol Grain Market is managed by the Municipal Committee, Katol. The produce is assembled in the market by the producers themselves or by the village merchants. Bulk of the produce (*i.e.*, 85 per cent) is assembled by the producers. There were in 1961 about 15 regular purchasers and three brokers each of whom paid a licence fee of Rs. 15 and Rs. 50, respectively. There were 28 weighmen and *hamals* in the market. The stocks received in the market are sold on cart basis in open auction, the stock going to the highest bidder. In case of groundnuts heaps are arranged and auctioned. Payment is made on the same day.

Volume of Trade.

Estimated annual arrivals of different agricultural commodities at the Katol Grain Market are as follows:—

Commodity (1)	Estimated arrivals (2)		Bags in carts (3)	Approximate weight of a bag. (4)		Average price per Bengali maund (5)	Price of one cart (6)	Total estimated value (7)
	Quintals	Maunds		Kg.	Mds.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Jowar ..	12,596.85	33,750	6	93.31	2½	11.50	172.50	3,88,125
Wheat ..	2,799.30	7,500	6	93.31	2½	17.50	262.50	1,31,250
Tur ..	8,397.90	22,500	6	93.31	2½	13.50	202.50	3,03,750
Mug ..	1,399.65	3,750	6	93.31	2½	12.00	180.00	45,000
Gram ..	1,399.65	3,750	6	93.31	2½	12.75	191.25	47,812
Udid ..	1,399.65	3,750	6	93.31	2½	15.50	232.50	38,125
Groundnut	26,126.80	70,000	10	37.32	1	16.50	165.00	11,55,000
Total ..	54,119.80	145,000	..	..	..	..	..	21,09,062

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Wholesale Trade.

Volume of Trade.

The produce assembled in the market is disposed of in the following proportion:—

Commodities (1)	Local consumption (percentage) (2)	Exports (percentage) (3)
Jowar	40	60
Wheat	90	10
Tur	30	70
Mug	15	85
Udid	10	90
Gram	25	75
Groundnut ..	25	75

Saoner Grain Market.

Saoner is connected with Nagpur by rail as well as by road. It is 35·405 km. (22 miles) from Nagpur and 85·29 km. (53 miles) from Chhindwada. The grain market at Saoner is managed by the local Municipal Committee, Saoner. The bulk of the stock received at the market is assembled by the producers while only a small portion is handled by the village merchants. There were in 1961 about eight regular purchasers and ten *dalals*. The latter pay a licence fee of Rs. 25. The stock is received in the market yard where it is sold by auction. Payment is made on the same day.

Volume of Trade.]

The estimated annual arrivals at the Saoner Grain Market are as follows:—

Commodity (1)	Estimated arrivals (2)		Bags in a cart (3)	Average price per Bengali maund (4)	Price of one cart (5)	Total estimated value (6)
	Quintals	B. maunds		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Jowar	4,870·78	13,050	6	11·20	168·00	1,46,160
Wheat ..	134·36	360	6	18·60	279·00	6,696
Tur	9,903·92	26,535	6	13·00	195·00	3,44,955
Mug ..	951·76	2,550	6	13·80	207·00	35,190
Udid	251·94	675	6	13·60	204·00	9,180
Gram	291·13	780	6	12·80	192·00	9,984
Linseed ..	772·61	2,070	5	21·00	252·00	34,776
Total ..	17,176·50	46,020	..	..	..	5,86,941

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Volume of Trade.

The produce assembled in the market is disposed of in the following proportion:—

Commodity (1)	Local consumption (percentage) (2)	Exports (percentage) (3)
Jowar	40	60
Wheat	100	..
Tur	30	70
Mug	15	85
Udid	10	90
Gram	25	75
Linseed	10	90

Nagpur Grain Market.

The Nagpur Grain Market was established in 1928 and is situated 6·44 km. (4 miles) away from the city. It is locally known as *Bagad Ganj*. It is under the supervision of the Nagpur Municipal Corporation. The market is held throughout the week except on Sundays. The stock is assembled from Nagpur, Bhandara, Chanda and Wardha districts.

Arrivals.

On an average the total annual arrivals are about 60,000 carts (each of 15 mds. *or 5.598 quintals). Of the total annual arrivals about 70 per cent are received between December and May. The average annual arrivals of different commodities are as follows:—

Commodity	*Percentage*
Rice ...	25
Wheat ...	35
Jowar ...	10
Tur ...	15
Linseed ...	5
Gram ...	2
Mug ...	3
Miscellaneous ...	5
Total ...	100

The produce is arranged in heaps and then sold by open auction. The rate is fixed per quintal of the produce.

In 1961, licensed functionaries working at the market yard were 90 *dalals*, 60 weighmen and 200 *hamals*.

A seller pays various market taxes and other charges for labour, cleaning and *dharmadaya* etc. The buyer pays the commission charges, stitching and carting charges etc.

*1 maund is equal to 80 lbs. The Bengali maund, which is equivalent to 82-2/7 lbs., is not used in the Market.

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Wholesale Trade.

There are a number of godowns at Nagpur owned by the merchants.

Arrivals.

The stock is assembled in the market by the producer as well as by the village merchant, the bulk of the produce (about 70 per cent) being assembled by the producer.

Saoner Cotton Market.

There are four cotton-ginning factories at Saoner. The Saoner Cotton Market comes under the jurisdiction of the Saoner Municipal Committee. There were in 1961 about seven purchasers and 14 *dalals* each paying a licence fee of Rs. 20 and Rs. 25 per annum, respectively. The produce is assembled in the market by the growers and village merchants. Of the total stock brought to the market, practically the entire quantity of ginned cotton is sent to Nagpur, Bombay and other places.

Volume of Trade.

It is estimated that about 5,598 carts of cotton valued at Rs. 16,95,430 arrive in the market every year. The varieties of cotton sold are *Deshi, Jarila, 197/3* and *Buri*.

Nagpur Cotton Market.

There is a big and well-established cotton market in Nagpur. The growers from the neighbouring villages assemble the produce. The market is controlled by the Nagpur Municipal Corporation. There were in 1961 about seven purchasers and 75 commission agents.

Volume of Trade.

About 19,677 cart-loads of cotton valued at Rs. 59,03,100 arrive at the market each year. The different varieties of cotton sold at the market are the *Jarila, Buri* and *H. 420*. The *Jarila* variety constitutes about 90 per cent of the total annual arrivals at the market. Of the total stock brought to the market about 60 per cent is consumed by the Empress Mills and the Model Mills at Nagpur and the remaining is sent out.

Nagpur Vegetable Market.

The Nagpur Vegetable Market supplies vegetables to about ten sub-markets in the city. Chillis from Bhiwapur and Umrer and potatoes are exported to other districts.

Volume of Trade.

About 5,77,775·52 quintals (15,48,000 maunds) of vegetables and fruits are received in the market every year. The produce assembled in the market is disposed of in the following proportion:—

Commodity (1)	Local Consumption (percentage) (2)	Exports (percentage) (3)
Vegetables ..	90	10
Fruits	100	..
Dry onions ..	100	..
Potatoes	50	50
Garlic	60	40
Dry chillis ..	40	60

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Volume of Trade.

The Nagpur Vegetable Market is under the Nagpur Municipal Corporation. It has a separate yard for chillis. There were in 1961 about 197 *dalals* and 67 weighmen who were all licensed. The market has about 97 shops. The produce is sold by open auction and the payment is made on the same day. The market is held daily except on Friday.

Trade of Nagpur City.

The wholesale trade of the Nagpur City is mainly in *Itwari, Gandhi Baug, Grain Ganj, Mangalwari, Lakad Ganj, Sakkardara* and Tahsil wards and in the Cotton Market and the *Santra* Market. The commodities traded at the respective market places are shown below:

Name of the Market Place	*Commodities Traded*
Itwari	Grocery, stationery, medicines, ready-made clothes, automobile goods, electrical appliances, confectionery, gold and silver (at *Saraf ali* in *Itwari*).
Gandhi Baug	Cloth, handloom sarees, *khans* and cut-pieces, electrical appliances, etc.
Grain *Ganj*	Foodgrains (market is under the control of the Nagpur Municipal Corporation).
Mangalwari	Wooden planks, saw dust, photo-frames, etc.
Lakad Ganj	Timber.
Sakkardara	Chillis.
Tahsil Ward	Hardware and bangles.
Cotton Market ..	Cotton goods.
Santra Market ..	Oranges.

Co-operative Marketing.

The existence of a long chain of middlemen between the producer and the ultimate consumer was a dominant feature of the system of marketing prevalent so far. The marketing of agricultural produce in the hands of non-cultivating middlemen added to the costs of the consumer without any advantage to the producer. The farmer has not only to pay for the services of the middlemen but he is also subject to unfair exactions which go to reduce his hard-earned earnings. With a view to removing these disabilities in respect of rural finance and marketing of agricultural produce, regulated markets and marketing co-operatives have come to be established. The former are intended to provide for fair and open dealings in a free market; the latter, through marketing services, aim at ensuring to the agriculturists the best available returns for their produce and facilitating the recovery of their production finance. Regulated markets and marketing societies are interdependent and complementary. No regulated markets can be developed

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Co-operative Marketing.

without the support of marketing co-operatives. In turn no co-operative marketing can develop unless it is supported by the regulated markets. This perhaps explains why the purchase and sales societies in Nagpur district could not carry on the marketing work successfully in spite of the financial assistance and support they received from Government. There is only one regulated market in the district, *viz.*, the Katol Cotton Market.

The marketing societies are established for the purchase and sale of various commodities. There are also sales societies dealing in single commodities, such as cotton, fruits, chillis etc. The main functions of the marketing societies are: (i) marketing of agricultural produce, (ii) distribution of fertilisers, improved seeds and agricultural implements and (iii) distribution of consumers' goods such as kerosene, crude-oil for pumping engines, matches, etc.

The existence of a co-operative marketing society in a regulated market will not alone help the development of co-operative marketing. The factors essential for the successful working of societies are that these should be well managed and should be financially sound to meet the requirements of the agriculturist members adequately. To augment their resources Government aid in different forms, *e.g.*, Government share contribution and annual subsidy towards managerial costs for the first three years is given to such societies. The absence of the capacity of our agriculturist to withhold produce for some time after harvesting makes it difficult for him to obtain a fair price for his produce. Government thus gives liberal loans and subsidies to marketing societies for godown construction.

Of the numerous such societies the Vidarbha Co-operative Marketing Society Ltd., Nagpur and the Orange Growers' Co-operative Association Ltd., Nagpur could be cited as examples of societies working satisfactorily. These societies receive Government financial assistance for extending the scope of their activities. The taluka agricultural associations in Nagpur have adopted bye-laws of purchase and sale unions and undertake marketing activities.

The Vidarbha Co-operative Marketing Society works as an apex marketing society for Vidarbha region. In 1960-61 its membership comprised 161 co-operative institutions. The sales and purchases of the society in the year 1959 were as follows:—

Commodity	*Purchases in* Rs.	*Sales in* Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)
Foodgrains	6,71,000	5,52,900
Groundnut	80,600	92,900
Cotton	2,52,200	1,97,500
Insecticides	76,500	74,300
Sugar	1,58,40,000	1,80,33,100
Iron and Steel	3,23,900	3,66,500

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Co-operative Marketing.

The society also works as the sole distributor of fertilisers for Vidarbha. It distributed 22,627,336 tonnes (22,271 tons) of fertilisers during the year 1960-61 valued at Rs. 80,10,000 through the affiliated co-operative institutions. The sale of oil-engines, electric pumping sets and spare parts amounted to Rs. 14,00,000. The society has a branch in the wholesale grain market at Nagpur.

The Nagpur Orange Growers' Association is an apex marketing society for the marketing of oranges. It has primary orange growers' societies in the district as its members. The society aims at planning and developing production of, and marketing of *citrus fruits* in general and oranges in particular. It undertakes the supply of pedigree grafts, renders horticultural services for preservation and growth of orange co-operatives, manages sale depots to facilitate profitable marketing of oranges, etc. It also runs a plant for processing of oranges.

In 1960-61 the society dispatched oranges worth Rs. 2,54,537; purchased oranges worth Rs. 2,75,125: distributed insecticides worth Rs. 22,061 and fertilisers worth Rs. 49,030.

In 1960-61 there were nine primary marketing societies in the district. These included a chilli growers' society and a betel-leaves growers' society.

Orange Trade.

The 'Nagpur Orange' is well-known all over the country and outside for its special flavour. Orange cultivation is said to have been first introduced in Nagpur by Raja Raghuji Bhosle II about the end of the 18th century. The saplings came from Aurangabad. The soil and climate of Nagpur and its adjoining areas are well suited for orange cultivation. This crop is found to grow well in the well-drained black cotton soil known as *morund* soil. In this soil a greater percentage of lime occurs both as finely distributed in the soil and also in the form of calcareous nodules (*Kankar*). The tract has a temperate climate, ordinarily ranging between 13.3° C. (56° F.) and 27.8° C. (82° F.) in the cold season and from 28.9° C. (84° F.) to 42.8° C. (109° F.) in the hot season which agrees well with this crop. The fruit ripens to perfection under these conditions and acquires a coveted flavour.

The area under oranges in the districts of the Vidarbha region steadily increased from 3119·310 hectares (7702 acres) in 1929-30 to 11271·960 hectares (27832 acres) in 1951-52 showing an increase of 361 per cent in 22 years. With the opening of Nagpur-Itarsi and Nagpur-Kazipeth railway lines Nagpur was joined with the important markets of north and south India resulting in an easy transport of the fruit. This led to an increased demand for it. The fall in cotton prices after 1923 was another important factor which gave an impetus to the cultivation of the orange. At present, Nagpur claims about more than half the total area under orange in the Vidarbha region [i.e., about 7249.500 hectares (17,900 acres) out of area 12150 hectares (30,000 acres) in Vidarbha region]. In

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the district, the cultivation is more concentrated in Katol tahsil followed by Saoner and Nagpur tahsils as will be seen from the following statement:—

Name of the Tahsil	Area					
	1956-57		1957-58		1958-59	
	Hectares	Acres	Hectares	Acres	Hectares	Acres
Nagpur ..	1,328·179	3,282	1,379·979	3,410	1,375·932	3,400
Ramtek ..	670·565	1,657	472·673	1,168	657·210	1,624
Katol ..	2,964·325	7,325	3,130·246	7,735	3,121·343	7,713
Umrer ..	177·657	439	176·038	435	168·349	416
Saoner ..	1,828·371	4,518	1,891·907	4,675	1,887·051	4,663
Total	6,969·097	17,221	7,050·844	17,423	7,209·885	17,816

The average for three years comes to 7,076·339 hectares (17,486 acres).

Ordinarily, orange plants flower three times a year. The three blossoms (*bahars*) are *ambia, mrug* and *hatti* or *hasta*. The third blossom is not of commercial importance as the fruits of this blossom do not hold. The fruit of the *ambia* crop are delivered to the market from September to January and that of the *mrug* crop from February to June. The growers allow the trees to bear only one blossom in full by special treatment of fertilisers etc., instead of having two seasons of fruit-bearing. This depends upon the type of the soil and the availability of water. The *ambia bahar* crop comprises 30 to 40 per cent and the *mrug bahar* crop constitutes about 60 per cent of the total annual orange production of the district. The average total annual production of the crop is estimated to be about 101600 metric tons (one lakh tons) worth about Rs. 3 crores. On an average, the crop provides an annual gross return of about Rs. 2,000 per 0.405 hectare (1 acre).

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Arrival

The Nagpur orange market is the biggest orange market not only in India but in the whole of the east. About 60,000 to 1,00,000 orange carts (1 cart = 298.593 kg. i.e., 8 maunds) arrive in the Nagpur market every year. The percentage of arrivals in Nagpur market during different months is as follows:—

	Per cent
September	1·0
October	5·0
November	9·5
December	6·5
January	10·0
Total for *ambia* ..	32·0
February	21·0
March	27·0
April	18·0
May	2·0
Total for *mrug* ..	68·0

There are six important assembling orange markets in the district. All the markets are unregulated at present. The arrivals in these markets are as follows:—

Name of the Market	*Approximate arrivals in carts*
Nagpur	60,000 to 80,000
Kalmeshwar	8,000 to 10,000
Kohli	5,000 to 6,000
Kalamb	1,000
Narkhed	12,000 to 15,000
Katol	8,000 to 10,000

Exports.

Of the total production about 90 per cent is exported to the consuming markets *viz.*, Delhi, Calcutta, Madras, Kanpur, Bombay, etc. The exports from various stations in Nagpur district from 1954—59 were as given below:—

Name of Railway Station	Exports in Wagons				
	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Nagpur	789	880	397	800	327
Kalmeshwar ..	84	219	..	206	75
Kohli	37	90	8	61	73
Metpanjra ..	22	15	5	1	18
Katol	92	192	69	187	212
Kalamb	121	256	35	137	155
Narkhed	212	543	64	342	272
Total ..	1,357	2,195	578	1,734	1,132
Average	..	..	1,399		

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Exports.

Besides, every year, about 1,500 wagon load of oranges are exported on small consignment basis. Thus about 3,000 wagons are exported annually from the district. The destinations of the exports are:

Destination	*Percentage of Exports*
Dehli	35
Calcutta	40
Madras	5
Bombay	5
Other stations	15
Total ..	100

Marketing.

Types of Sellers: There are three types of sellers who assemble the produce in the market.

	Percentage of produce handled
(1) Growers or producers	35
(2) Contractors and wholesale merchants.	60
(3) Nagpur Orange Growers' Co-operative Association.	5
Total ..	100

About 60 per cent of the crop is being handled by the contractors and 40 per cent by the producers and the Nagpur Orange Growers' Co-operative Association. A majority of the orchard owners sell the standing crop partly due to the need for ready cash and mostly due to their being preoccupied with other farm work. The contractors are mostly local people. They visit the orchards in July and August when the crop is in its early stage of maturity and negotiate the transactions. After the transactions are over the purchaser has to look after and protect the crop from pests and diseases and pilfering. The fruit when ripe is gathered and brought to the market by the purchaser. The responsibility of the contractor ends once the produce is auctioned in the market. Wholesale merchants also purchase the standing crop and assemble it on their own.

Generally the price offered by the contractor for the standing crop is substantially lower than the market price. Estimates reveal it to be lower by about 40 per cent. This 40 per cent covers the transport and the market charges and the contractor's profits, etc.

	Per cent
Transport charges ..	15
Marketing charges ..	15
Margin of profit, loss and risk,	10

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Marketing.

The produce is brought to the market in a bullock cart where it is unloaded. Then the damaged and very small fruits are sorted out. The residue, which is better in the whole lot, is arranged into a circular conical heap called the *dheri*. On an average a heap consists of 25 per cent *thulli* (small), 50 per cent *mall* (medium), 20 per cent *Mondha* (big) and 5 per cent *pola* or loose jacket fruits. Then the bargains are effected by auction. Each purchaser puts his own mark on the heap purchased by him. When the auction is complete the purchaser gathers his heaps and arranges them in a rectangular heap. The fruits are sorted out according to size. The damaged fruit called *chura* are sorted out and disposed of locally.

As stated before, there are two marketing seasons: (1) *ambia* from September to January and (2) *mrug* from February to June. Peak months for *ambia* are from November to January and for *mrug* from February to April.

Transport.

Transport facilities.—The Vidarbha Orange Transport Advisory Committee: The then Government of Bombay constituted the Vidarbha Transport Advisory Committee. During the orange season i.e., from October to May the Committee provides transport facilities and suggests ways and means to remove the possible difficulties encountered by the traders.

Grading.

Graded oranges receive preferential treatment in the consuming markets in respect of prices. The graded fruit fetches a higher price (about 5 to 10 per cent higher) than the ungraded one. Grading of oranges was, therefore, started and the number of merchants taking advantage of the scheme are on the increase. The shifting of the Directorate of Marketing from Delhi to Nagpur has helped much in the grading work.

The Nagpur Orange Growers' Association.

The Nagpur Orange Growers' Association.—Taking into consideration the scope of the citrus fruit industry in this region the Government sponsored the scheme for the co-operative marketing of oranges. The scheme was included in the Second Five-Year Plan. The implementation of the scheme is entrusted to the Nagpur Orange Growers' Co-operative Association. The Association is doing important work in three fields, *viz.*, orange cultivation, marketing and processing. It has so far organised 43 orange growers' co-operative societies and has a membership of 1,650 which includes individual growers' and orange growers' societies. The area covered by these co-operative societies stood at 2772·099 hectares (6850 acres) in 1960. The association financed its members to the extent of Rs. 3,10,770 during the year 1957-58. In 1958-59 the sum of Rs. 6,14,069 was disbursed through the Central Co-operative Bank, Nagpur and Morsi.

In 1958-59, the association started its own packing centres at Nagpur, Kohli, Katol, Narkhed and Warud. The members close by these packing centres take advantage of the facilities of grading and despatching the fruit to the consuming markets

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The Nagpur Orange Growers' Association.

provided by these centres. Recently, the marketing of other fruits besides oranges has been undertaken by the sales branch of the association in Delhi.

In 1960, the association sold insecticides and fungicides worth Rs. 9,000. It also supplies manures and fertilisers. The horticultural section of the association supplies orange plants to the needy growers within and outside the State.

The association has procured a processing unit on lease from the Central Hindustan Orange and Cold Storage Company Ltd., Nagpur. The unit consumes about (50,000 maunds) about 1,866 quintals of oranges every year in preparing orange juice, orange concentrate and canned orange segments.

Nagpur orange trade at present is handicapped by a number of difficulties *viz.*, (i) wide variation of soils necessitating advice on plantation; (ii) poor nursery practices; (iii) want of perennial rivers and major irrigation projects; (iv) pest damage and tree diseases mainly *citrus psylla;* (v) multiplicity of middlemen and unregulated markets (both assembling and consuming); (vi) lack of adequate and efficient transport facilities, both rail and road; (vii) the need of the cultivator for ready cash; and (viii) lack of adequate processing facilities.

Nagpur district, situated in the heart of the country, is an ideal centre for the distribution of this fruit. All the consuming markets like Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, etc., are situated within a radius of about 1126·54 km. (700 miles). The potentials for production of orange in the district and the nearabout region are virtually unlimited provided adequate steps are taken to improve cultural methods, marketing and processing.

Regulated Markets.

As observed by the Royal Commission on Agriculture (1927), the prosperity of the agriculturists and the success of any policy of general agricultural improvement depends to a very large extent on the facilities which the agricultural community has at its disposal for marketing its surplus produce to the best advantage. Indian agriculturists are generally illiterate and traders are found to take advantage of the illiteracy prevalent among them. To help agriculturists in such an unfortunate state the Central Provinces Agricultural Produce Market Act, 1935 as amended by Act No. VII of 1937 and the Central Provinces Cotton Market Act, 1932 as amended by Acts of 1936 and 1937 were enacted. These are in force in the Vidarbha region of the Maharashtra State.

The Acts aim at establishing equity in the bargaining power of agriculturists and merchants, promoting mutual confidence, preventing malpractices and giving a fair deal to the farmers. The Acts seek to regulate the various features of agricultural

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Regulated Markets.

marketing in regulated markets. The main features of the Acts are: regulation of market practices, clear definition of market charges and reduction of excessive charges, licensing of market functionaries e.g., buyers, brokers and weighmen, use of standard weights and measures, settlement of disputes, appointment of market committees representing growers, traders, local authority and Government, publishing of reliable and up-to-date market information, Government control over markets and market committees, etc.

The Acts provide for establishment of Market Committees consisting of not less than ten and not more than 16 members. The commodities that are regulated are specified and all transactions in these commodities outside the purview of the regulated market are prohibited.

Katol Cotton Market.

So far, Nagpur district has only one regulated market *viz.*, the Katol Cotton Market. The Katol Market was regulated in 1940 under the Central Provinces Cotton Market Act. It is managed by the Cotton Market Committee, Katol, and covers an area lying within a radius of 6.437 km. (four miles) from the Cotton Market Yard, Katol. In 1958-59 the total amount of trade at the Katol Cotton Market was 27438·36 quintals (73,514 Bengali maunds) valued at Rs. 7,07,388. The market committee controls the market price and the market charges, thus leaving no scope for malpractices and the trade is conducted on a sound basis to the benefit of the growers. The annual income and expenditure of the Cotton Market Committee, Katol as in August 1959 was Rs. 5,612 and Rs. 5,803, respectively, and the permanent fund was Rs. 115. The income of the Committee consists of market fee, licence fee etc. and the expenditure comprises the establishment charges and maintenance of the market yard etc.

Factors responsible for slow progress.

In Nagpur, the slow progress in the field of regulated marketing can be attributed to a variety of factors: (1) Non-availability of suitable lands for market yards and lack of finances for the development of market committees. (2) The rules under the Market Acts concerning the transfer of the surplus of the market committees to the municipal committees and concerning the payment by the market committees for the wear and tear of roads to the municipal committees in addition to the wheel tax, terminal tax, etc affect the financial position of the market committees. (3) The proverbial poverty of our agriculturist prompts him to dispose of his produce immediately after it is harvested. This gives the trader a better hand in the bargain and he often purchases the produce at a lower price. The regulation of agricultural produce thus suffers to a great extent. (4) Often there is a tough opposition from the trading community to the smooth functioning of regulation work which aims at equalising the bargaining power of the agriculturists and the merchants thus reducing the profit margin earned by the trader. Acting together the traders may bid very low to the inconvenience and disadvantage of the grower.

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Regulated Markets.

Proposals.

A number of markets in the district are proposed to be regulated within the next few years. They are—

(1) Nagpur Grain Market.
(2) Nagpur Orange Market.
(3) Nagpur Cotton Market.
(4) Nagpur Vegetable Market.
(5) Umrer Grain Market inclusive of Chillis.
(6) Bhiwapur Chilli Market.
(7) Saoner Grain Market.
(8) Saoner Cotton Market.
(9) Katol Grain Market.
(10) Katol Orange Market.
(11) Kalamb Orange Market.
(12) Kalmeshwar Orange Market.
(13) Kohli Orange Market.
(14) Narkhed Orange Market.

Market Places.

Places where periodical markets are held in assembling and distributing goods come next in importance to the chief trade centres.

In many towns and villages a market is held on a fixed day (usually once a week). The following is the list of towns and villages where periodical markets are held.

Katol tahsil	..	Katol, Narkhed, Mowad, Sawargaon, and Kondhali.
Ramtek tahsil	..	Heora, Mansar, Mauda, Navegaon, K airi, Deolapar. Gowari, Parseoni, Pauni, Kachurwahi, Panchala, Aroli, Nimkheda, Dahegaon Joshi, Kodamendi and Nagardhan.
Umrer tahsil	..	Bhiwapur, Bela, Pipra, Sirsee, Nand, Besur, Kargaon, Bahmni, Borgaon Kh., Titur, Makardhokra, Champa, Thana, Panchgaon, Kuhi, Salwa, Mandhal, Pachkhedi, Adam, Chapegadi, Veltur, Jiwanpur and Dongarmauda.
Saoner tahsil	..	Saoner, Mohpa, Kalmeshwar, Khapa, Patansaongi, Wakodi, Badegaon, Pipla, Kamptee, Nanda, Kelod, Bichwa, Nagal w a d i, Kothulna, Dhapewada and Kohli.

Of these markets the important ones are those held in Katol, Narkhed, Mowad, Kondhali, Mansar, Mauda, Pauni, Dahegaon Joshi, Kodamendhi, Bhiwapur, Bela, Sirsee, Kuhi, Mandhal, Veltur, Saoner, Mohpa and Kalmeshwar.

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Fairs.

In the past, a large turnover of goods invariably constituted a regular feature of the village fairs. In the absence of regular and established markets for the sale of their products the village merchants and village artisans sold their produce at the fairs. The villager also had no choice but to buy his necessities at the fairs. Now with the establishment of regular markets and retail shops in far-off villages the importance of village fairs is declining. Still there are quite a large number of fairs held all over the district.

Usually these fairs are associated with important deities and religious festivals and sometimes considerable quantities of agricultural and other commodities are brought for sale. Only those fairs which are important from the point of view of the turnover of goods that takes place are considered here. In the absence of reliable records about the turnover of goods at the fairs the statistics that are given reflect only a broad picture of the situation.

Tahsil (1)	Name of the Fair (2)	Village or Town (3)	Turnover (4)
			Rs.
Umrer	Chaitanyadhar ..	Ambhora ..	60,000
Umrer	Hariharswami ..	Ambhora ..	60,000
Umrer	Dattajayanti ..	Bela ..	2,00,000
Saoner	Adasa ..	Adasa ..	4,000
Saoner	Dhapewada Phandari Devasthan.	Dhapewada ..	2,500
Saoner	Heti Nandaji ..	Heti ..	700
Ramtek	Tripuri ..	Ramtek ..	1,00,000
Ramtek	Ramnavami ..	Ramtek ..	50,000
Ramtek	Manbhav (Krishnaji)	Mansar ..	5,000
Ramtek	Bhoisan ..	Bhoigad ..	7,000
Katol	Mahashivratra ..	Lokholi ..	700
Nagpur	Jagdamba ..	Koradi ..	3,000
Nagpur	Ramnavami ..	Maburari ..	700
Nagpur	Phg. Vad. 5 ..	Lava ..	1,000
Nagpur	Mahashivratra ..	Bhoogaon ..	1,400
Nagpur	Vitthal Rakhumai ..	Vyahad ..	700
Nagpur	Devichi Jatra ..	Digdoh ..	500
Nagpur	Ramnavami ..	Gumagaon ..	500

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Fairs.

The various goods offered for sale at a fair include fruits and vegetables, sweetmeats and other eatables, potteries, groceries, wooden and other toys, utensils, bangles, ready-made clothes, country blankets etc. Pedlars, vendors and retail shop-keepers assemble these goods. The buyers are usually the residents of the village and its neighbourhood and pilgrims from distant places if such a fair is a religious one. The transactions are mainly done on a cash basis.

Pedlars.

In respect of local trade, next in importance to weekly markets and religious fairs are the pedlars. The pedlars go from village to village selling their merchandise. This class still plays an important part in the trade of the district though the volume of their trade has undergone considerable change in recent years in view of the growth of transport facilities, industrialisation and new technique of production and advertisement etc. The growing importance of weekly bazars and fairs has also restricted the scope of their activities. The villagers and townsmen who used to buy from them, now many times prefer to visit the periodical market for personal choice, variety and bargain. This has led to a decline in the number of pedlars. Even then, the system of peddling from place to place still continues to exist in all the tahsils of the district.

The pedlars belong to no particular caste. Besides those who purchase articles in urban centres and sell them in remoter areas, there are pedlars who belong to professional classes such as oilmen, farmers, gardeners, weavers, tailors etc. who sell their own produce. They move from village to village during fair weather and generally return to their places before the monsoon breaks. From October to June and especially during the festivals and marriage season their trade is brisk. Most of the pedlars belong to the district itself; however, sometimes pedlars from other adjoining districts trade in the various tahsils on the border. The pedlars obtain their goods from the nearby market places in the district *e.g*, Katol, Nagpur, Umrer, Baranapur, Kolapur etc., or from the adjoining districts. Pedlars carry goods usually on their persons but sometimes use a bicycle, a bullock cart or a hand-cart and even some domestic animal such as a pony or an ass. At times, for going long distances they convey goods in State Transport buses or railways. The pedlars are generally known to their customers. They mostly cater to the needs of the customers in a compact area. Most of their transactions are done on a cash basis though credit transactions cannot be ruled out. Different types of pedlars deal in different types of goods *e.g.*, the farmers in food grains; grocers in groceries and spices; gardeners in fruits and vegetables; coppersmiths in copper and brass utensils; oilmen in oil and ghee; potters in earthenware; *dhangars* in country blankets; tailors in ready-made clothes etc. Among other things brought for sale are sweetmeats, herbal medicines, mats, carpets, clay and wooden toys and handloom fabrics etc. In most cases their

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success in the transaction depends on their power of impressing the customer regarding the quality of their product and the price that is charged.

Pedlars.

The approximate number of pedlars in the various tahsils of the district is as follows: Nagpur 400; Saoner 450; Umrer 280; Ramtek 57 and Katol 200.

Hawkers.

Like pedlars in rural areas, their counterpart in the urban areas, namely hawkers, play an important part in the retail trade of the district. The hawking system seems to prevail in almost all the municipal towns of the district though in varying degrees. The hawkers move from place to place hawking their merchandise. They carry their goods either on their person or on hand-carts. Some use bicycles. The goods which are sold by them include milk, vegetables and fruits, sprouted pulses, coconuts, betel leaves, pulses, fish, bread and biscuits, eggs, sweets, dry fruits, metal utensils, crockery, ice-creams and *sharabats*, earthenware, stationery, cloth, ready-made clothes etc.

With a view to regulating the activities of hawkers the Nagpur Corporation and Ramtek Municipality have introduced the system of licensing the hawkers. The Nagpur Corporation collects a licence fee of Rs. 5 per annum from the hawkers selling tea and sweetmeats and Rs. 2 from the hawkers selling butter. There were in 1960, 27 hawkers selling tea, 82 selling sweetmeats and ten selling butter. Others were not licensed.

The number of hawkers as reported by the following municipalities was as follows in 1960:—

Municipality		*Hawkers*
Nagpur (Corporation)	...	119
Ramtek	...	164
Mohpa	...	10
Saoner	...	6
Umrer	...	9
Katol	...	3

Other municipalities did not report any hawkers in their towns. None of the municipalities, except Nagpur Municipal Corporation and Ramtek municipality has the practice of licensing the hawkers.

Retail Trade.

Retail trade in the district is carried on by numerous shops located in various towns and villages. Their number and concentration generally depend on the population and demand for the goods kept for sale. Retail shops form a link between the consumer and the wholesaler. Many a time these shops keep a variety of goods for the convenience of their customers and thus secure handsome business. Their stock-in-trade is usually limited but is rapidly replaced when sold out. Retailers usually purchase from wholesalers in the town itself or from nearby

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areas. This is generally so in case of perishable goods like vegetables and fruits, mutton, eggs, etc., and in case of goods like grains where there is not much differentiation in quality. Goods like cloth, ready-made clothes, medicines and medical appliances, confectioneries such as chocolates and biscuits, stationery etc., are brought from places which have acquired a special name for their production.

In the absence of authentic records about the retail shops at different places a correct picture regarding the number and distribution of the retail shops and employment provided by them could not be obtained. The following account is based on local enquiries at various towns *viz.*, Nagpur, Ramtek, Khapa, Narkhed, Katol, Umrer etc., and will serve to give only a broad picture of the retail trade of the district.

Dispersion of Shops.

In all the towns of the district the retail shops are fairly distributed. Thus, grocery, pan and bidi, cloth, charcoal, wood and fuel and vegetable shops are found in almost all localities. Shops dealing in stationery, books, general merchandise, fruits, sweetmeats etc., are not so well distributed, demand for these being less frequent. Goods which serve needs which are still less frequently felt *e.g.*, metal utensils, hardware, building material, perfumes etc., have each their own particular locality or a separate place in the market where these shops are concentrated. The concentration of shops selling mutton, fish, beef and eggs is mainly due to municipal regulations and food taboos observed in some communities.

Groceries.

Among the retail shops the grocery group is very important. In regard to the number of shops, it stands next only to the *pan-bidi* group. All sorts of cereals and pulses, *gul*, sugar, oil, ghee, spices and condiments, tea, coffee, matches and other items of grocery are kept for sale in these shops. The average monthly stock-in-trade of individual shops varies from about Rs. 300 or Rs. 400 to about Rs. 15,000 and even more. Most of the shops are medium-sized having stocks worth only between Rs. 500 and Rs. 5,000. Shop-keepers mostly buy their commodities at the wholesale trade centres in the district itself *viz.*, Saoner, Katol, Umrer, Nagpur, Bhiwapur etc. Only occasionally commodities are purchased from outside the district. The average yearly turnover ranges from Rs. 3,800 to about Rs. 5,200 and more depending on the size of the establishment. The sales show a decline in the rainy season and at the end of every month and indicate a rise during the dry season and especially so during the marriage season. Capital requirements being considerable in case of big shops, shop-keepers usually purchase their goods on credit or approach banks for loans. Petty shop-keepers usually borrow from their relations and friends. Servants (one or more depending upon the size of the establishment) are engaged for handling, sieving and weighing commodities. The large shop-keepers sometimes engage clerks and accountants for maintaining account books.

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Pan, Bidi Cigarette and Tobacco.

These shops are wide-spread and common and are seen to occupy almost all possible corners in a busy area or in other public places like cinema houses etc. Most of these are small establishments and are handled by a single person. *Pan, bidis,* chewing tobacco, betelnuts, catechu, matches and some petty articles of everyday use are kept for sale at these shops. The stock-in-trade is obtained from the local wholesalers. Its value varies from Rs. 10 to Rs. 500. The business is usually slack in the rainy season.

Cloth.

Cloth shops stand next to grocery shops as regards their wide distribution and their utility to the consumers. Most of these shops are owned by the traditional merchant communities, sometimes in partnership otherwise individually. Except very small shops in small villages these shops stock and sell all kinds of textiles, cotton, woollen and silk, *viz.*, coatings, shirtings, sarees, dhotis, chaddars, towels etc. Usually paid servants are engaged for measuring and cutting cloth and packing and handing it to the customers. The capital invested in these shops varied from Rs. 5,000 to almost 15 to 20 times as much. Capital requirements being so big, banks are approached for loans in most cases. Cloth is brought from Nagpur, Ahmedabad and Madras. From October to May and especially during festivals and marriage season trade is brisk.

Hosiery and Ready-made clothes.

These shops are run on the same lines as those of the cloth shops. The variety of clothes kept for sale is increasing day by day. Petty shops keep self-made clothes or clothes made locally while shops in towns and city usually bring clothes from distant places.

Wood, Fuel and Timber.

Wood and fuel shops deal in firewood and charcoal, dried dung-cakes etc. Firewood and charcoal are brought from the local forests on the hill sides. Timber shops which sell timber generally stock timber from Chanda district. Chanda teak is famous for its quality and is bought all over Maharashtra. Most of this teak is assembled at Nagpur City, where a number of saw-mills are located. Timber is cut in blocks of suitable sizes and then exported to different areas. Trade in firewood is brisk just before the monsoon as people are in a great hurry to store fuel for the rainy season. Timber is in good demand in the dry season, which is a season for house-building.

Stationery, Cutlery, Bangles and Provisions.

Demand for stationery articles is restricted as compared to articles of human necessity. A number of these shops, therefore, keep for sale some other articles of common use *e.g.*, cutlery, bangles, cosmetics and such other provisions. Majority of these goods are brought from Nagpur City where there are a number of industries producing these articles. They are also assembled from Bombay, Madras and Calcutta. From October to May is the brisk season. The trade in the rainy season is usually dull. The stock-in-trade at these shops varies from Rs. 200 to about Rs. 1,000. Cases with shops having stocks worth Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 10,000 though not ruled out are rare. Majority of the shops are located in the bazars and busy places.

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Retail Trade.

Fruits, Vegetables and Flowers.

Most of these shops are small units managed by one or two persons. The stock of these goods is generally limited because of their perishable nature. Generally localities in the immediate neighbourhood are served. Fruits and vegetables are brought from surrounding rural areas and from the distant centres *viz.*, Poona, Nasik, Bombay, etc. Nagpur district is famous for its juicy oranges. The fruits for sale are generally mangoes, grapes, guavas, figs, bananas etc., depending upon the season. Trade in vegetables is also seasonal.

Leather Goods and Footwear.

Some shops deal exclusively in leather while others deal exclusively in footwear and leather goods. Footwear includes chappals of all sorts, sandals, shoes, etc., and leather goods include suitcases, handbags, straps, leather accessories, etc. The big shops in the towns sell goods of some well-known footwear company, *e.g.*, Bata, Flex, etc. Uttar Pradesh Government Footwears are in good demand all over the district. Shops in towns have a decent appearance and are provided with show-cases for the display of their goods, chairs and sofas for the comfort of their customers and wooden shelves all around the wall to hold the goods. Others are petty establishments and usually sell goods made by local artisans. Many a time artisans are attached to the big shops. The value of the stock-in-trade usually varies from a couple of hundred rupees to a few thousands depending upon the size of the shop and the sales. In the case of big shops it is even more, ranging from about 10 to 15 thousand rupees. Business is generally steady throughout the year and in striking contrast to most of other goods not at all slack in the rainy season.

Hardware and Building Material.

These shops are to be met with in all towns and villages but are usually concentrated in a particular locality. The bigger shop-keepers make their purchases direct from the manufacturers and the smaller ones purchase either from the bigger shop-keepers in the town itself or from wholesalers at other places. The articles for sale include steel-bars, nails, screws, metal sheets, wires, etc.

Medicines and Drugs.

Shop-keepers in this category include chemists, druggists and dispensers. They sell a variety of drugs, allopathic, homoeopathic, ayurvedic and other indigenous medicines. These shops also sell medical and surgical appliances. A large part of the chemicals, drugs and stores stocked are imported from other countries. Those manufactured in India are brought from places, where drug-manufacturing companies are located, *e.g.*, Calcutta, Poona, Bangalore, Baroda and Ahmedabad.

Nagpur City.

The retail trade of Nagpur City deserves special mention. Nagpur City, favourably situated as it is, is connected by rail and by roads to all the important cities of north, south, east and west. It is also an airport. It is the main assembling centre for the agricultural produce of the Vidarbha region *viz.*, cotton, oranges, timber etc. A number of textile industries have

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clustered in the city. Besides, there are a number of saw-mills, glass factories, a cement factory and paper mills. All this trade activity attracts a great number of people. The monsoon head-quarters of the Maharashtra State Assembly at Nagpur makes it still more important a place. The population of Nagpur City is more than a third of the population of the whole district. With the increasing importance of the city the population is on the increase. To meet the needs of this expanding population a number of new retail shops have come in existence. They have a considerable trade and replace their goods as and when sold out. The goods for sale show a wide variety to meet the choice of its varied population, *e.g.*, business magnates, industrialists, workers and other middle class people. The retail shops show a fair degree of dispersion throughout the city. However, concentration is visible in the *Sitabuldi*, *Itwari*, *Mahal*, *Sadar* and *Gandhi Baug* areas of the city. The retail shops keep a large stock to meet the increasing demand for the variety of goods. Some of the cloth shops, drug stores, laundries, restaurants and stores etc., are well-equipped and fashionable. Some of these shops sell footwear and others a variety of woollen goods assembled from Uttar Pradesh. The cloth shops sell fine cloth from Ahmedabad, Bombay and Madras besides that made in local mills. Drugs from Bombay, Baroda and Calcutta, imported machinery, electrical goods from Bombay, Calcutta and some from abroad, hardware from Bombay and Calcutta, fruits from the surrounding region and from north India all find a good market at Nagpur. The existence of these numerous shops and the constancy of transactions that take place therein, buzz the areas of Nagpur City, where they are located.

Registered Dealers under the Sales Tax Act.

The following statement about the dealers in Nagpur City registered under the Sales Tax Act in the year 1958-59 gives an idea about the voluminous trade that takes place there:—

Number of dealers registered in Nagpur City under the Sales Tax Act and their gross turnover as in 1958-59.

Food-stuffs—No. 618, Rs. 24,21,92,005.

Clothing—No. 766, Rs. 15,16,37,094.

Transport Vehicles and spare parts—No. 100, Rs. 6,55,48,987.

Machinery—No. 67, Rs. 98,34,087.

Fuel and Power—No. 125, Rs. 2,79,85,136.

Industrial Commodities—No. 230, Rs. 6,07,07,313.

Building Material—No. 192, Rs. 3,50,57,088.

Miscellaneous—No. not available, Rs. 6,88,42,125.

Total—No. 2,098, Rs. 66,18,03,835.

State Trading.

When as a consequence of World War II (1939—45) there was scarcity and maldistribution of various essential articles, such as food-stuffs, cloth, sugar and kerosene, Government undertook the control of prices of these articles and the regulation of their

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production, supply and distribution. Some of the controls were continued for some years after the end of the war. In Nagpur, there was 'Monopoly Procurement of Jowar' followed by the 'Compulsory Levy System' during and immediately after the World War II, with complete rationing in Nagpur City and rural provisioning in the rest of the district from 1944 to 1947. In December 1947 the Government of India decided to follow a policy of gradual decontrol and as a first step in this direction rationing in Nagpur City was replaced by the Provisioning Scheme, and the Compulsory Levy System of Procurement by Partial Compulsory Procurement Scheme. This continued till 1953. The general food supply position considerably improved during the following years and all forms of control were removed till in 1956 in view of the rise in prices the fair price shops scheme was introduced in the district. Under this scheme the 'Household Card System' was started in the City from October 28, 1958 for equitable distribution of food-grains, particularly rice, through fair price shops.

In 1960, Nagpur City had 186 fair price shops and the rest of the district 224. The quantum of rice was fixed at about 699.83 gm. (12 chhataks) per adult per week and about 349.91 gm. (six chhataks) per child (below six years). For wheat the quantum was 37.324 kg. (one Bengali maund) to one consumer in one transaction.

Fair price shops are allotted to (i) co-operative societies duly recommended by the Assistant Registrar, (ii) village panchayats, (iii) municipalities and registered institutions, and (iv) private dealers on their fulfilling certain conditions. In the city, a fair price shop is allotted on the basis of units, one such shop for every 9,000 units. In the interior, the allotment depends on the availability of the stock and the public demand.

Trade Associations.

At Nagpur, a considerable assembling and distributing trade is carried on in a variety of goods. A number of associations of traders have been organised in recent times to protect the interests of its members, who are connected with different trades, industries and business at the important centres of trade in the district. The important among these associations are the following:—

(i) The Nag-Vidarbha Chamber of Commerce, Nagpur.
(ii) Nagpur Itwari Kirana Merchants' Association, Nagpur
(iii) Oil Merchants' Association, Nagpur.
(iv) Timber Merchants' Association, Nagpur.
(v) Fruit Merchants' Association, Nagpur.
(vi) Handloom Cloth Merchants' Association, Nagpur.
(vii) Retail Cloth Merchants' Association, Nagpur.
(viii) Nagpur Petrol Dealers' Association, Nagpur.
(ix) Electrical Goods Merchants' Association, Nagpur.
(x) Iron and Steel Merchants' Association, Nagpur.
(xi) *Pan* Merchants' Association, Nagpur.
(xii) Press Owners' Association, Nagpur.

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Trade Associations.

Most of these associations have been formed with a view to bringing about close co-operation amongst the members of the trading or industrial community concerned laying out a common policy and devising ways and means to promote the trade. Disputes among the members are referred to these associations for amicable settlement.

Nag-Vidarbha Chamber of Commerce.

The Nag-Vidarbha Chamber of Commerce occupies a pre-eminent position among these associations and deserves special mention. In the early forties of this century a need was felt for an organised body which would speak for the merchants of the region as a whole. The Chamber thus came to be established in the year 1944. Its main task is to secure and further the interests of the Indian business community in general and of Vidarbha in particular. The Chamber undertakes a thorough study of the difficulties experienced by its members and seeks for solutions for them as far as possible. It also makes representations to Government and some public agencies, *e.g.*, transport authorities etc., on behalf of its members so as to secure removal of certain difficulties encountered in trade operations or to obtain some concessions and facilities to traders. It also collects and disseminates statistical information for the benefit of its members.

The membership consists of three classes, (i) ordinary members of which there are three types:—

(a) individual merchants; (b) joint stock companies; and (c) associations.

(ii) honorary members and (iii) patrons. The Chamber had a membership of 220 in 1960.

The Chamber has been included in the list of Associations and Chambers of Commerce and Trade recognised by the State Government as well as by the Government of India. The Chamber is now represented on the following official bodies—

Central Railway Consultative Committee, Nagpur.
Central Excise Divisional Advisory Committee.
Regional Employment Exchange.
State Advisory Council of Industries, Bombay.
Nagpur City Bus Service Traffic Advisory Committee, Nagpur.
Food Advisory Committee, Nagpur.
Nagpur University.
Telephone Advisory Committee, Nagpur.

Dissemination of Market News.

Dissemination of information regarding the current market prices goes a long way in protecting the interest of the producer as also the consumer. Market prices of agricultural produce prevalent throughout the State of Maharashtra are broadcast every evening on the A. I. R. Bombay. Besides, the Marketing Research Officer, Bombay, issues a weekly market news bulletin for this purpose. The respective market committees in the district announce the current market prices on the microphone or on notice boards for the benefit of the buyers as well as the sellers.

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Weights and Measures.

The weights and measures till recently differed from place to place all over the country and some times with each commodity at the same place. This created considerable difficulties in the inter-regional trade. To put an end to such a situation a uniform system of weights and measures was adopted by the Government of India by enacting the Standard of Weights and Measures Act, 1956. The then Government of Bombay enacted complementary legislation *viz.* the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958 for the enforcement of the Standard Weights and Measures based on metric system in the State and the necessary rules thereunder. Adoption of this system began in 1958 and is scheduled to be completed by the end of 1966.

In Nagpur district the provisions of the Act have been in force in the Nagpur City from 1st October, 1960 so far as the metric weights are concerned. The enforcement was extended gradually and on 1st April, 1962 metric weights came in force throughout the district. The units of length and capacity in Metric System were enforced in the district since 1st October, 1962 and 1st April, 1963, respectively.

Weight.

The following are the conversion tables concerning weights and measures, area and volume.

1 Tola = 11.6638 grams.

For grains—
1 Seer = 25 tolas = 291.595 grams.
1 *Adheli* = 2 seers = 50 tolas = 583.19 grams.
1 *Payali* = 2 *adhelis* = 100 tolas = 1,166.38 grams.
1 *Kudo* = 8 *payalis* or 10 seers = 2.916 kilos.
1 *Khandi* = 20 *kudos* = 5 maunds = 38.319 kilos.

For Sugar—
1 *Pasari* = 127½ tolas = 1.487 kilos.
1 Maund = 8 *pasaris* = 11.897 kilos.
1 *Khandi* = 10 maunds = 118.971 kilos.

For ghee—
1 *Pasari* = 1½ seers = 120 tolas = 1.4 kilos.
1 Maund = 12 seers = 8 *pasaris* = 11.197 kilos.
1 *Khandi* = 20 maunds = 223.95 kilos.

For gur—
1 *Pasari* = 130 tolas = 1.516 kilos.
1 Maund = 8 *pasaris* = 13 seers = 12.130 kilos.
1 *Khandi* = 20 maunds = 242.607 kilos.

For salt—
1 *Pasari* = 150 tolas = 1⅞ seers = 1.750 kilos.
1 Maund = 8 *pasaris* = 15 seers = 13.997 kilos.

For spices—
1 *Pasari* = 106¼ tolas = 1.239 kilos.
1 Maund = 8 *pasaris* = 9.914 kilos.

For gold—
1 tola = 12 *masas* = 40 *wals* = 11.6638 grams.
gunja (the seed of *Abrus precatorius*).

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Gold was also weighed with *gahu* (wheat seeds), *jondhala* (jowar seeds) and *tandul* (rice seeds). In rural areas gold was weighed with rupee, eight, four and two anna pieces.

Length.

1 Inch = 0.0254 metre = 2.54 centimetres.

1 Foot = 12 inches = 0.3048 metre = 30.48 centimetres.

1 Yard = 36 inches = 0.9144 metre = 91.44 centimetres.

1 Furlong = 660 feet = 220 yards = 201.168 metres.

1 Chain = 20.1168 metres.

Area.

1 sq. inch = 0.00064516 sq. metre.

1 sq. foot = 144 sq. inches = 0.092903 sq. metre.

1 sq. yard = 9 sq. feet = 0.83613 sq. metre.

1 sq. mile = 640 acres = 258.999 hectares.

Volume.

1 Cubic inch = 16.3871 cubic centimetres.

1 Fluid ounce = 28.4132 cubic centimetres.

1 Gallon = 277.420 cubic inches = 4.54596 litres.

1 Litre = 1000.028 cubic centimetres.

Even with the enforcement of the Act old units of measure and weight such as seer, *adheli*, *payali*, *kudo*, *khandi*, *pasari*, maund etc., are still prevalent in some parts of the district. With the passage of time and acclimatisation of the people with the new system the same will be gradually replaced.

CHAPTER 7—COMMUNICATIONS

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

INTRODUCTORY.

THE CHAPTER DEALS WITH THE HISTORICAL AND STRUCTURAL aspects of the various means of transport and communications, *viz.*, railways, roads, post and telegraphs and radios. And as such, an attempt has been made to give a detailed description of railways, roads and the facilities regarding public transport. Our findings reveal that there has been considerable progress in the field of transport facilities available to the public since the last two decades. The development activities under the auspices of the five-year plans have contributed a lion's share towards the development of roads and railways since 1950-51.

RAILWAYS.

Nagpur occupies a central and strategic position regarding railway communications. Nagpur is advantageously situated on Bombay-Calcutta rail link and Delhi-Madras Grand Trunk route, affording easy movement of goods.* Nagpur is the junction of the Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur-Howrah line, the Nagpur-Itarsi line (Grand Trunk route), the Nagpur-Chhindwada line, the Nagpur-Ramtek line and the Nagpur-Chanda line. Nagpur district takes pride of place as it is being served by railways from 1867. The length of the railway routes in the district is about 354.056 km. (220 miles) of which 215.652 km. (134 miles) are broad gauge and 138.404 km. (86 miles) are narrow gauge. The district has 86.905 km. (54 miles) of railway line per 258.999 km² (100 sq. miles). A similar proportion for the Indian Union is only 72.52 km² (28 miles). Whereas the Indian Union has 16.0934 km. (10 miles) of railway line per lakh of population this district has about 27.3588 km. (17 miles).*

As a result of regrouping of the Indian Railways, the Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur route and the Nagpur-Itarsi route which were formerly under the Great Indian Peninsula Railway were grouped in 1952 under the Central Railway. The other routes in the district which were formerly under the Bengal-Nagpur Railway System were grouped in 1952 under the South-Eastern Railway.

Railway Routes.

Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur-Howrah Route.

The portion of the Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur route falling within Nagpur district was opened for traffic in 1867. The double line was constructed between 1918 and 1922. The length of the line is about 43.4523 km. (27 miles) in Nagpur. The Nagpur-Howrah line was originally constructed on the metre gauge in 1881 as the Chhattisgad State Railway. In 1888 the line was

*Socio-Economic Review and District Statistical Abstract of Nagpur District, 1958-59, Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Government of Maharashtra, Bombay.

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Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur-Howrah Route.

converted, under the auspices of the Bengal-Nagpur Company, to the broad gauge and carried through to Calcutta.* Its length in the district is about 57.718 km. (34 miles).

The Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur-Howrah route traverses the Buldhana, Akola, Amravati and Wardha districts of Vidarbha before entering Nagpur. It enters Nagpur after leaving Sindi railway station in Wardha district. It runs through the heart of the district. The topography through which this line passes is plain with a few hills and is more dry than green.

From Nagpur onwards the line passes through a countryside rich with manganese ore and orange orchards. It touches the ancient and important town of Kamptee.

The stations on this route (with their distance from Bombay) are. Borkhedi 801.45 km. (498 miles), Buti Bori 809.50 km. (503 miles), Gumgaon 819.16 km. (509 miles), Khapri 825.59 km. (513 miles), Ajni 833.64 km. (518 miles) and Nagpur 836.86 km. (520 miles).

Nagpur is an important station and a junction on the Central Railway as well as the South-Eastern Railway. It has a magnificent station building with one spacious III Class waiting hall, three Upper Class waiting rooms, and three retiring rooms which are well-equipped. There are five platforms for broad gauge trains and one for narrow gauge trains. All these platforms are paved, covered and electrified. Fans and clocks have been provided on the platforms. There are separate booking offices for Upper and III Class passengers at the station, while there are city booking offices at Sitabuldi and Itwari. Amenities like enquiry office, reservation of seats, public call office, cloak room, cold water, book stalls, etc., have been provided at Nagpur. There are four tea stalls, one vegetarian and one non-vegetarian refreshment rooms. The station is situated in the heart of the city and convenient transport facilities such as a city bus service, taxis, tongas, rikshaws, etc., are always available at the station.

Nagpur is the headquarters of the Nagpur Division of the Central Railway and also of the South-Eastern Railway. It occupies a strategic position, as the Delhi-Madras Grand Trunk Railway route and three other railway routes pass through it. There is a huge passenger as well as goods traffic to and from Nagpur. Since the opening of the railway route, huge quantities of manganese ore and other minerals are exported from Nagpur. It has also assumed an added importance due to the transport of oranges. Nagpur is said to be the biggest orange market in India. Oranges are exported to Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, etc.

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Nagpur District, Vol. A, 1908, page 198.

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Railway Routes.

Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur-Howrah Route.

The passenger trains running daily on this railway route are: (1) Bombay-Howrah Mail *via* Nagpur, (2) Bombay-Howrah Express, (3) Bombay-Nagpur Express, (4) Bhusawal-Nagpur Passenger, (5) Bhusawal-Nagpur Passenger, (6) Bhusawal-Nagpur Fast Passenger, (7) Delhi-Madras Janata Express, (8) New Delhi-Madras Biweekly De-Luxe Express and (9) Grand Trunk Express.

The following is the statement showing the number of passengers booked and tonnage of goods traffic from the stations on this route within limits of Nagpur district during the year 1958-59.

TABLE No. 1

PASSENGER AND GOODS TRAFFIC FROM VARIOUS STATIONS DURING THE YEAR 1958-59

Station	Number of passengers booked	†Tonnage of goods cleared (in Metric tons)		Chief items of export
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
*Borkhedi ..	43,964			
Butibori ..	74,824	807·755	(795)	Miscellaneous items.
*Gumgaon ..	68,181			
Khapri ..	32,104			
Nagpur ..	9,26,072	40,654·193	(40,012)	Foodgrains, orange, timber, bidi leaves, cotton, cotton seed, etc.
*Nagpur city booking office.	51,723	·		
Itwari (Nagpur).	..	63,091·625	(62,095)	Rice, pulses, timber, bidi leaves.

TABLE No. 2

NUMBER OF PASSENGERS BOOKED FROM THE STATIONS* IN NAGPUR DISTRICT DURING 1959-60 AND 1960-61

Station (1)	1959-60 (2)	1960-61 (3)
1. Nagpur	5,74,359	6,80,547
2. Itwari	10,96,277	10,59,647
3. Kamptee	9,66,819	9,52,407
4. Kanhan	1,08,124	1,04,565
5. Dumri Khurd	38,118	37,287
6. Mansar	32,122	26,109
7. Ramtek	1,61,090	1,60,077
8. Salwa	39,435	40,368
9. Chacher	42,323	47,667
10. Tharsa	53,885	72,974
11. Rewral	43,132	47,918
12. Khat	71,240	66,000

*Goods are not booked at these stations.

†Figures in brackets indicate tons.

TABLE No. 3

STATEMENT OF GOODS BOOKED FROM VARIOUS STATIONS* DURING 1959-60 AND 1960-61

[Figures in metric tons]

Station	Manganese Ore		Rice		Grains and Pulses		Timber	
	1959-60	1960-61	1959-60	1960-61	1959-60	1960-61	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Itwari	..	36,524·184 (35,949)	2,280·932 (2,245)	1,450·919 (1,428)	64,223·615 (63,219)	3,252·38 (3,201)	1,47,935·609 (1,45,599)	97,776·523 (96,232)
Kamptee	..	..	2,495·219 (2,456)	Metric tons 10,252·961 (10,091)	884·980 (871)	961·183 (946)	353·585 (348)	23,628·093 (23,255)
Kanhan	28,515·043 (28,065)	38,711·605 (38,100)	..	233·691 (230)	..	..	..	..
Dumri Khurd	2,302·209 (2,266)	Metric tons 14,651·441 (14,420)	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ramtek	8,59,863·506 (8,46,281)	9,05,595·205 (8,91,290)	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tharsa	2,255·631 (2,220)	..	..	36·578 (36)	355·617 (350)	283·478 (279)	..	..
Khat	..	..	..	..	353·585 (348)	381·019 (375)	..	..
Rewral	..	..	..	..	979·472 (964)	2,290·166 (2,254)	..	..

Station	Oilseeds		Bidis		Iron		Cement	
	1959-60	1960-61	1959-60	1960-61	1959-60	1960-61	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)
Itwari	116·846 (115)	110·749 (109)	..	551·715 (543)	1,787·227 (1,759)	2,244·354 (2,209)	53,408·668 (52,565)	1,151·135 (1,133)
Kamptee	83·316 (82)	53·850 (53)	12,506·954 (12,309)	18,539·964 (18,247)	6,415·335 (6,314)	8,781·720 (8,643)	38,132·501 (37,530)	32,897·667 (32,378)
Kanhan	..	..	812·840 (800)	201·178 (198)	57,322·693 (56,417)	44,536·370 (43,833)	9,345·628 (9,198)	2,432·451 (2,394)
Dumri Khurd	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ramtek	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tharsa	..	..	293·638 (289)	103·637 (102)	..	20·321 (20)	..	..
Khat	..	..	1,086·107 (1,069)	263·157 (259)	..	..	..	..
Rewral	3·048 (3)	4·064 (4)	..	..	..	..	..	..

*These stations are under the South-Eastern Railway.
Figures in brackets indicate tons.

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Railway-Routes.

Nagpur-Itarsi Route.

The portion of the Nagpur-Itarsi Grand Trunk railway route passing through this district was opened for traffic between 1923 and 1924.[1]

Starting from Nagpur, it runs towards the north-west through the Nagpur and Katol tahsils. It crosses a distance of about 93.342 km. (58 miles) and enters Chhindwada district of Madhya Pradesh. The stations on this line (with their distance from Nagpur) are: Bharatwada 12.8748 km. (8 miles), Kalmeshwar 24.1402 km. (15 miles), Kohli 37.0149 km. (23 miles), Metpanjra 51.499 km. (32 miles), Katol 61.155 km. (38 miles), Kalambha 70.811 km. (44 miles) and Narkhed 86.905 km. (54 miles).

This is a broad gauge 1.677 metres (5′ 6″) line with good foundation. The countryside through which it passes is even and plain. It has opened up the rich cotton tracks and orange orchards around Katol. It is of great importance to Nagpur district in as much as it has facilitated goods and passenger traffic to North India. It has made possible direct access to Delhi. Besides Nagpur, Kalmeshwar, Katol and Narkhed are the important stations.

The passenger trains running on this route are: (i) Grand Trunk Express, (ii) Madras-New Delhi Bi-weekly De Luxe Express, (iii) Madras-Delhi Janata Express, (iv) Nagpur-New Delhi Passenger, (v) Nagpur-Jubbulpore Passenger, and (vi) Nagpur-Betul Passenger.

All the stations are provided with buildings, booking offices and quarters for the staff. Kalmeshwar, Katol and Narkhed stations are provided with light refreshment stalls.

The following is the statement showing the number of passengers booked and tonnage of goods traffic from the stations on this route within limits of Nagpur district during the year 1958-59:—

TABLE No. 4

PASSENGER AND GOODS TRAFFIC FROM VARIOUS STATIONS ON THIS ROUTE DURING THE YEAR 1958-59

Station[2]	Number of Passengers booked	Tonnage of goods cleared in Metric tons	Chief items of export
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Bharatwada	28,663		
2. Kalmeshwar	45,724	19·305 (19 tons)	Foodgrains.
3. Metpanjra	20,621		
4. Kohli	34,069		
5. Katol	1,22,868	20321 (2000 tons)	Cotton, cotton seed, foodgrains.
6. Kalambha	41,499	20·321 (20 tons)	Miscellaneous.
7. Narkhed	1,36,025	1018·082 (1002 tons)	Hemp, foodgrains, groundnut.

[1] History of Indian Railways: Ministry of Railways, Government of India.

[2] All these are exporting stations of oranges. The statistics of orange export are not available.

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Communications.

RAILWAYS.

Railway-Routes.

Nagpur-Ramtek Route.

This broad gauge route runs in common a distance of 19.3121 km. (12 miles) from Nagpur with the Nagpur-Howrah main line and branches off at Kanhan to proceed to Ramtek towards the north. Near Mansar the line bifurcates, one branch leading to Ramtek on the east, while the other, turning to the west, follows a difficult line among the Mansar hills to gain access to the extensive manganese mines in the neighbourhood. The route from Kanhan to Ramtek is 24.1402 km. (15 miles).

This route is under the jurisdiction of the South-Eastern Railway. Local train services are run daily between Nagpur and Ramtek.

Satpuda Railway.

The Nagpur-Nagbhir, the Nagpur-Chhindwada and the Saoner-Khapa railway sections passing through this district are grouped under the Satpuda Railway.* These sections were constructed between 1904 and 1911. Formerly the Satpuda Railway formed an integral part of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway. After the regrouping of the Indian Railways in 1952 it was regrouped under the South-Eastern Railway.

The Satpuda Railway line was calculated to explore and open out the agricultural and mineral resources of the areas which were practically cut off from the main routes of communications. It was expected to enrich the economy of the area which had a considerable trade potential. It was also meant to provide a means of protection to the inhabitants in times of famine. The Nagpur-Chhindwada line gives an outlet to the numerous manganese mines in this tract, and also connects the Chhindwada coal-fields with Nagpur.

The Nagpur-Nagbhir section of the Satpuda Railway runs a distance of about 77.0471 km. (47 miles and 7 furlongs) in Nagpur district. It joins Nagpur to the Wardha-Kazipet-Vijayawada route through Chanda. The Nagpur-Chhindwada section covers a distance of about 54.3150 km. (33 miles and 6 furlongs) in this district and connects Nagpur with Chhindwada in Madhya Pradesh. The Saoner-Khapa section which emanates from Saoner on the Nagpur-Chhindwada route is 7.242 km. (four miles and four furlongs) long.

All the sections of this railway are narrow gauge 0.760 metres (2′ 6″). The reason for the construction of narrow gauge was that the alignment had to cross ranges of hills and rivers of considerable width. The countryside through which they pass is very uneven at some places. This would have involved heavy capital as well as operating expenses while the estimated income from the railway routes did not present very bright prospects.

*This railway is the combination of three lines formerly known as the Gondia-Chanda, Jubbulpore-Gondia and Nagpur-Chhindwara extension. History of Indian Railways: Ministry of Railways, Government of India, P, 29.

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RAILWAYS.

Railway Routes.

Satpuda-Railway

The following statement shows the number of passengers booked and tonnage of goods cleared from important stations of this railway in Nagpur district:—

TABLE No. 5

NUMBER OF PASSENGERS BOOKED AND TONNAGE OF GOODS CLEARED FROM IMPORTANT STATIONS IN 1960-61

Station	Number of passengers	Tonnage of goods (in Metric tons)
(1)	(2)	(3)
1. Motibagh	N.A.	36,090·341 (35,520)
2. Khaperkheda	2,05,127	12,598·401 (12,399)
3. Patansaongi	82,000	557·806 (549)
4. Saoner	2,34,512	40,862·483 (40,217)
5. Khapa	71,811	263,285·988 (2,59,127)
6. Bhiwapur	53,073	1,829·916 (1,801)
7. Umrer	98,966	12,092·456 (11,901)
8. Bamhni	55,554	2,155·037 (2,121)
9. Kuhi	1,11,724	11,878·641 (11,691)
10. Titur	60,147	10,486·656 (10,321)
11. Dighori	51,002	1,935·580 (1,905)

ROADS.

Nagpur occupies a central position in respect of communications since the past. A good number of roads emanate from Nagpur. The following is the description of road routes[2] existing by the beginning of this century.

There were five main metalled roads radiating from Nagpur like the spokes of a wheel. The Great Northern road leading to Jubbulpore through Kamptee and Seoni was the finest road in the Province. It was perhaps the only road which was bridged throughout its length (with the exception of the Narmada river). The section in Nagpur district led through Kamptee and Mansar to the borders of Seoni district (now in Madhya Pradesh). There was a magnificent bridge over the Kanhan river near Kamptee, perhaps the finest masonry bridge in India. The bridge had 12 spans of 24.38 metres (80 feet) elliptical arches. The work was completed at a cost of Rs. 12½ lakhs in the year 1873. The intention of constructing this bridge was to carry the metre-gauge railway line to Chhattisgad over it, alongside the road, but subsequently a second railway bridge was constructed. This highway bore very high traffic of manganese, timber and forest produce.

[1]Figures given in brackets are in tons.

[2]The description is based on the account of roads given in the Central Provinces District Gazetteers—Nagpur District, Volume A, 1908, pages 200-02.

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ROADS.

A branch road emanated from the Great Northern road at Kamptee which led to Dahegaon on the Nagpur-Chhindwada road at a distance of 16.09 km. (10 miles). Another branch road emanated at Mansar leading for about 8.047 km. (5 miles) to Ramtek.

The Nagpur-Itarsi road and the Nagpur-Chhindwada road ran in common a distance of 37.01 km. (23 miles) up to Saoner. The road length (known as the North-Western road) as far as Saoner was metalled and provided with culverts and causeways. Beyond Saoner, the Itarsi road and the Chhindwada road were also metalled afterwards.

The Nagpur-Chanda road led through Umrer and Bhiwapur. As far as Umrer in the 30th mile (48.28 km.) this road was metalled and bridged throughout with the exception of two rivers in the 12.87 km. and 43.45 km. (8th and 27th miles), respectively. The Nagpur-Kalmeshwar-Katol road was unbridged beyond Kalmeshwar, and traffic in the rains used to suffer from much inconvenience. The Great Eastern road leading through Bhandara and Chhattisgad to Sambalpur in Orissa was metalled and bridged throughout the section in Nagpur district except for the Kanhan river in 33.80 km. (mile number 21). This river was crossed by a temporary bridge in the dry season, but it used to get submerged in the rainy season.

Till 1908 there was no good road communication with the district of Wardha nor with the Berar. The old road to the south through Bori was allowed to sink into complete disrepair. This road was then reconstructed and metalled. After 1908 the construction of a first class road metalled and bridged throughout from Nagpur to Amravati, the then capital of Berar, was undertaken. In addition, a number of road routes aggregating to about 514.99 km. (320 miles) were taken up for construction.

Roads are classified according to their importance into four categories, *viz.*, (i) National Highways, (ii) State Highways, (iii) Major District Roads, and (iv) Other District Roads.

The statement below gives the statistics of the four categories of roads in Nagpur district.

TABLE No. 6

[1]STATISTICS OF ROADS IN KILOMETRES AND THEIR BREAK UP ACCORDING TO SURFACE

Category of roads	1951					1956					Total distance in Kilometres by the end of the Second Five-Year Plan
	Cement concrete	Asphalted	Water bound macadam	Other surface	Total length	Cement concrete	Asphalted	Water bound macadam	Other surface	Total length	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
		Km.	Km.	Km.	Km.	Km.	Km.	Km.	Km.	Km.	Km.
1. National Highways	..	78·858 (49-0)	141·4231 (87-7)	..	220·2791 (136-7)	..	214·2441 (133-1)	1·6093 (1-0)	..	215·8531 (134-1)	215·8531 (134-1)
2. State Highways	..	5·4315 (3-3)	148·6635 (92-3)	..	154·0950 (95-6)	..	105·0093 (65-2)	77·8525 (48-3)	..	182·8619 (113-5)	201·5703 (125-2)
3. Major District Roads	..	..	86·3009 (53-5)	4·2233 (2-4)	90·3241 (56-1)	..	41·8429 (26-0)	54·3150 (33-0)	4·0233 (2-4)	100·1813 (62-2)	238·5853 (148-2)
4. Other District Roads	0.8046 (0-4)	78·6571 (48-7)	38·8304 (24-1)	5·2303 (3-2)	123·5170 (76-6)	1·2070 (0-6)	94·7501 (58-7)	36·2102 (22-4)	12·0700 (7-4)	144·2379 (89-5)	231·5441 (143-7)
Total ..	0·8046 (0-4)	162·9463 (101-2)	415·211 (258-0)	9·2537 (5-6)	588·2146 (365-4)	1·2070 (0-6)	455·8463 (283-2)	169·9879 (105-5)	16·0934 (10-0)	643·1359 (399-5)	887·5546 (551-4)

[1]Figures in brackets indicate miles and furlongs.

National Highways.

National highways are defined as main highways serving predominantly national, as distinct from State needs and purposes, running through the length and breadth of India, and together forming a system connecting capitals of States, major cities, foreign highways, and State highways.

There are two national highways passing through Nagpur district, *viz.*, the Dhulia-Jalgaon-Nagpur-Calcutta road and the Varanashi-Nagpur-Cape Komorin road. They cross each other at Nagpur.

Dhulia-Jalgaon-Nagpur-Calcutta Road.

This highway starts from Dhulia on the Bombay-Agra road, runs through Dhulia, Jalgaon, Buldhana, Akola, Amravati and Wardha districts and enters Nagpur district to run through its entire length in west-east direction through Nagpur and Ramtek tahsils. Leaving Nagpur district it traverses Bhandara and runs beyond to Raipur and to Calcutta. It covers a total distance of 111.246 km. (69 miles and 1 furlong) in Nagpur.

The highway is divided into two sections, *viz.*, Nagpur-Amravati and Nagpur-Bhandara.

(*i*) *Nagpur-Amravati road*:

The road takes off from 0.8046 km. (mile number 0/4) near the Sitabuldi Police Station of Nagpur and runs due west through Nagpur and Katol tahsils to enter Wardha district at 60.15 km. (mile number 37/3).

It touches the following places in its stretch:—

Gondkhairi	.. ..	(19·711 km.)	.. (12/2)
Bazargaon	.. ..	(33·98 km.)	.. (21/1)
Kondhali	.. ..	(46·87 km.) R.H.*	.. (29/1)

The road crosses the Wunna river in 23.54 km. (mile 14/5) over a submersible bridge, the Bor in 37.82 km. (mile 23/4) over a high level bridge, again the Bor in 41.84 km. (mile 26) over a narrow high level bridge with two high parapets. It also crosses the Jam in 47.07 km. (mile 29/2) over a high level bridge.

Going from east to west the Kharangna-Kondhali and the Kondhali-Katol-Chincholi State highways emanate from it at 48.28 km. and 49.89 km. (mile 30 and 31), respectively.

This highway has an asphalted surface and is motorable throughout the year except interruption during heavy monsoon at the submersible bridge over the Wunna in 39.63 km. (mile 24/5).

(ii) *Nagpur-Bhandara-Raipur road*:

This road starts from the obelisk at the foot of the Sitabuldi fort, runs towards the east through Nagpur and Ramtek tahsils and enters Bhandara district at 51.10 km. (mile 31/6).

It touches the following places in its stretch—

	Km.
Mahalgaon	16·90 (10/4)
Vadoda	27·16 (16/7)
Mathni	34 R.H. (21/1)
Mauda	37·62 (23/3)
Kharbi	46·66 (29)

*R. H.=Rest House.

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National Highways.

The road crosses the Nag river in 13.88 km. (in mile 8/5) over a high level bridge. There is a high level bridge in 17.30 km. (mile 10/6) and a causeway in 24.54 km. (mile 15/2). There is also a submersible bridge across the Kanhan river at 34.80 km. (mile 21/5) where traffic is interrupted in heavy monsoons.

It crosses the Varanashi-Nagpur-Cape Comorin road near Kasturchand Park in Nagpur.

This highway has an asphalted surface and is motorable throughout the year except interruption at the submersible bridge over the Kanhan during heavy monsoons.

Varanashi-Nagpur-Cape Comorin Road.

This national highway (also called the Great Northern road) starts from Varanashi, runs through Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh and enters the north-east boundary of Nagpur district. Leaving Nagpur it passes through Wardha district. It covers a total length of 123.72 km. (76 miles and 7 furlongs) in Nagpur.

It is divided into two sections, *viz.*, Nagpur-Jubbulpore and Nagpur-Bori-Hinganghat.

(i) *Nagpur-Jubbulpore road*:

The road emanates from the obelisk at the foot of the Sitabuldi fort and runs towards the north-east through Nagpur and Ramtek tahsils until it crosses the border of Seoni district in Madhya Pradesh in 78.054 km. (in mile 48/4). This section covers a length of 78.054 km. (48 miles and 4 furlongs).

It touches the following places in its stretch:—

	Km.	
Kamptee	14·48 (9)	R.H.
Kanhan	20·92 (13)	
Amdi	37·01 (23)	
Mansar	40·23 (25)	
Chorbaoli	49·09 (30/4)	
Pauni	57·53 (35/6)	
Sitapur	58·74 (36/4)	
Deolapar	73·43 (45/5)	
Manegaon	75·44 (46/7)	

The road crosses a nalla in 7.65 km. (in mile 4/6) over a high level bridge, the Kanhan river in 19.71 km. (mile 12/2) over a high level bridge and also the Teha nalla over a high level bridge.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Point of junction (1) Kms.	Miles	Name of road (2)	Class of road (3)
13·48	8/3	Kamptee-Dahegaon	O.D.R.*
19·92	12/3	Kanhan to Rly. Station ..	Do.
36·61	22/6	Amdi-Nargakund	Do.
40·03	24/7	Mansar-Ramtek	M.D.R.†

The highway has an asphalted (black-topped) surface and is motorable throughout the year.

*O. D. R.=Other District Roads.
†M. D. R.=Major District Roads.

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ROADS.

National Highways.

(ii) *Nagpur-Bori-Hinganghat road*:

Nagpur-Bori-Hinganghat Road.

The road starts from the obelisk at the foot of the Sitabuldi fort, runs in the southern direction through Nagpur and Umrer tahsils and leaves for Wardha district at 45.56 km. (mile 28/3). It covers a length of 45.56 km. (28 miles and 3 furlongs).

It touches the following places in its stretch—

	Km.	
Gumgaon	19·51	(12/1)
Dongargaon	20·52	(12/6)
Bori	28·97	(18)

The Bori-Wardha-Yeotmal State Highway and the Bori-Umrer road (O. D. R.) emanate from this highway at Bori.

The entire length of this road has an asphalted (black-topped) surface and is motorable throughout the year except interruptions twice or thrice a year at the submersible bridge over the Wunna river in 30.17 km. (mile 18/6).

State Highways.

State highways are defined as all other main trunk or arterial roads of a State connecting other highways, headquarters of districts, cities and serving as main arteries of traffic to and from major roads. They are usually maintained by State Governments and are generally bridged and metalled.

There are five State highways in Nagpur district, *viz.*, Nagpur-Umrer-Chanda road, Nagpur-Chhindwada road, Nagpur-Saoner-Multai road, Kharangna-Kondhali-Katol-Chicholi road and Nagpur-Bori-Wardha-Yeotmal road.

Nagpur-Umrer-Chanda Road.

This road emanates from 1.41 km. (mile 0/7) of Nagpur-Bhandara-Raipur road in Nagpur city and traverses the Nagpur and Umrer tahsils in its north to south stretch. Leaving Nagpur district it runs up to Chanda. The total length of this road in this district is 71.62 km. (44 miles and 4 furlongs).

It touches Umrer at 39.03 km. (mile 24/2) and Bhiwapur in 69.60 km. (mile 43/2). There are rest houses at both these places.

The road crosses the Nag river in 6.04 km. (mile 3/6) over a high level bridge and the Vihirgaon nalla in 12.47 km. (mile 7/6) over a raised causeway. Traffic on this road is interrupted at times of heavy flooding of the nallas at the submersible causeways in 14.89 km. and 16.09 km. (miles 9/2 and 10). In 42.65 km. (mile 26/4) the road crosses the Aam river over a raised causeway. Traffic is interrupted there in heavy rains. In 71.62 km. (mile 44/4) it crosses the Moria river over a submersible bridge where traffic is interrupted only during heavy floods.

The Panchgaon-Kuhi road and the Bori-Umrer road cross it at km. 22.73 and 44.46 (miles 14/1 and 27/5), respectively.

The entire length of this highway is water bound macadam. It is usually motorable except during heavy rains when the traffic may be obstructed for a few hours at causeways or submersible bridges in 12.47 km., 16.09 km., 42.65 km. and 71.62 km. (*i.e.*, miles 7/6, 10, 26/4 and 44/4).

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ROADS.

State Highways.

Nagpur-Chhindwada Road.

This is an important State highway linking Nagpur city with Chhindwada in Madhya Pradesh. It takes off from the obelisk in Nagpur city and traverses the Nagpur and Saoner tahsils. It runs to the north for about 17.703 km. (11 miles) from Nagpur and then takes a bulge to the north-west up to the border of the district. The total length of this road in Nagpur district is 49.89 km. (31 miles).

It touches the following places in its stretch:—

	Kms.	
Mahadule	11·27	(7)
Dahegaon	16·09	(10)
Pipla	18·51	(11/4) R. H.
Patansaongi	24·14	(15)
Saoner	36·00	(22/3) R. H.
Khurjgaon	40·23	(25)
Kelod	46·67	(29)

In 4.43 km. (mile 2/6) the road crosses Ghorazhari nalla over a causeway which sometimes holds up traffic for a few hours on rainy days. It then crosses in 12.47 km. (mile 7/6) a nalla over a raised causeway and the Kolar river in 13.88 km. (mile 8/5) over a submersible bridge which may also hold up traffic for a few hours on days of heavy rains. It crosses Khurjgaon nalla over a submersible bridge in 40.23 km. (mile 24/8) and a small nalla over a raised causeway in 45.26 km. (mile 28/1). At both these places traffic is held up at times during rainy season.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of junction (1)	Name of road (2)	Class of road (3)
Kms.		
16·89 (10/4) ..	Kamptee-Dahegaon	O.D.R.
24·94 (15/4) ..	Khapa-Patansaongi	Do.
36·00 (22/3) ..	Saoner-Multai	S. H.

The entire length of this highway is asphalted (black-topped) and motorable throughout the year except in heavy rains when traffic is obstructed at 4.43 km. (mile 2/6), 12.47 km. (mile 7/6), 13.88 km. (mile 8/5), and 40.23 km. (mile 24/8) and 46.26 km. (mile 28/6).

Nagpur-Saoner-Multai Road.

This road runs in common with the Nagpur-Chhindwada road up to Saoner and emanates from the latter at Saoner. It runs towards the north-west up to 62.56 km. (mile 38/7) where it enters Chhindwada district. It terminates at Multai in Betul district of Madhya Pradesh. The length of this road from Nagpur to Saoner is 36.41 km. (22 miles and 5 furlongs) and from Saoner to Nagpur district border 26.1518 km. (16 miles and 2 furlongs). Thus its total length in Nagpur district is 26.1518 km. (16/2 furlongs).

It touches Kursapar in 59.34 km. (mile 36/7).

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State Highways.

Traffic over this road is obstructed for a few hours on days of heavy rain at 49.0849 km. (miles 30/4) and 58.34 km. (mile 36/2) where there are causeways.

No road either takes off from it or is crossed by it. The road has an asphalted (black-topped) surface and is motorable throughout the year except the traffic obstructions as noted above.

Kharangna-Kondhali-Katol-Chicholi Road.

This highway starts from Kharangna in Wardha running towards the north-east up to Kondhali (in Nagpur) on the Nagpur-Amravati road. From Kondhali onwards it runs in common for a little distance with the Nagpur-Amravati road and then finds its way to the north (with a slight bulge to the north-east) *via* Katol and Sawargaon. Leaving Nagpur district border it enters Chhindwada. The Kondhali to Sawargaon section is a Class I metalled road.

The distance at present is measured both ways from Katol. The length from Wardha-Nagpur border to Katol is 20.72 km. (12 miles and 7 furlongs) and from Katol to Nagpur-Chhindwada border is 24.1402 km. (15 miles).

There are no major river crossings on this road. The Nagpur-Katol-Jalalkheda road (M. D. R.)* crosses it at Katol.

The section from Kondhali to Sawargaon only is motorable throughout the year.

Nagpur-Bori-Wardha-Yeotmal Road.

This State highway runs in common with the Nagpur-Bori-Hinganghat National Highway up to Bori, 28.969 km. (in mile 18) and emanates from it to lead towards the south-west border of the district. It leaves Nagpur district at 44.46 km. (mile 27/5) and further traverses the Wardha and the Yeotmal districts. It covers a length of 15.49 km. (9 miles and 5 furlongs) in Nagpur.

It does not touch any important place nor does it cross any road.

The entire length is asphalted (black-topped) and is motorable throughout the year.

Major District Roads.

Major District Roads are roughly of the same specifications as State highways except that they may not be asphalted or fully bridged. These roads connect important centres of trade and commerce with railways and highways.

The Major District Roads in this district are: (i) Nagpur-Mansar-Ramtek-Tumsar-Balaghat road, (ii) Nagpur-Katol-Jalalkheda road and (iii) Narkhed-Mowad road.

Nagpur-Mansar-Ramtek-Tumsar-Balaghat Road.

The road runs in common with the Nagpur-Jubbulpore National Highway (Great Northern road) from Nagpur city to Mansar. It emanates from the latter at Mansar in 40.23 km. (mile 25), runs to the east to cross the boundary of Nagpur district and traverses the Bhandara district. The length of this road from Mansar to the district border is 27.76 km. (17 miles and 2 furlongs). A portion of the road from Khindsi to the district border is under construction.

*M.D.R.=Major District Road.

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Major District Roads

It touches Ramtek in 46.67 km. (mile 29) and Khindsi in 53.10 km. (mile 33). There is a rest-house at Mansar.

No important road takes off from it or is crossed by it.

The surface of this road up to Khindsi [53.10 km. (mile 33)] is asphalted (black-topped). The road is motorable throughout the year.

Nagpur-Katol-Jalalkheda Road.

The road starts from the obelisk at the foot of the Sitabuldi fort at Nagpur, runs towards the west through Nagpur and Katol tahsils and enters Amravati district at 80.27 km. (mile 49/7). Its length in Nagpur district is 80.2661 km. (49 miles and 7 furlongs).

It touches the following places in its stretch:—

	Km.	
Kalmeshwar	19·91 (12/3)	R. H.
Dorli	36·21 (22/4)	R. H.
Katol	57·53 (35/6)	R. H.
Jalalkheda	79·05 (49/1)	R. H.

The road crosses the Kalmeshwar nalla in 19.51 km. (mile 12/1) over a raised causeway, the Ghorad in 22.73 km. (mile 14/1) over a raised causeway, the Jamb river in 52.91 km. (mile 32/7) over a raised causeway and the Lendi nalla in 55.12 km. (mile 34/2) over a raised causeway. At all these causeways, traffic is held up for a few hours on rainy days. It also crosses the Jam river. There is a submersible bridge in 77.65 km. (mile 48/2).

It crosses the Kharangua-Kondhali-Katol-Chicholi State Highway at 57.53 km. (mile 35/6) near Katol. The Kohli-Mohpa road emanates from it at 32.79 km. (mile 20/3).

The entire length of this road is water bound macadam. It is motorable throughout the year except in heavy rains when traffic is obstructed twice or thrice in a year at the causeways at 22.73, 52.91, 55.12 and 77.65 km. (mile numbers 14/1, 32/7, 34/2 and 48/2).

Narkhed-Mowad Road.

The road starts from Narkhed, a railway station on the Nagpur-Itarsi-Delhi railway route, and runs through Katol tahsil towards the west to Mowad. The entire length of the road is 9.857 km. (6 miles and a furlong).

It touches Belona in 5.0291 km. (mile 3/1). It has a metalled surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Other District Roads.

Other District Roads are usually like Major District Roads, except that they are subject to more frequent interruptions to traffic during the rains. They are designed to serve tahsil places and market centres. They are generally unmetalled and have *murum* surface.

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ROADS.

Other District Roads.

The following are the roads belonging to this category:—

(i) Kamptee-Dahegaon branch road, (ii) Tharsa Railway Station road, (iii) Khapa-Patansaongi road, (iv) Khapa Railway Station road, (v) Pardi-Bagadganj road, (vi) Amdi-Naikund road, (vii) Khapa-Kodegaon road, (viii) Dumri Khurd Railway Station road, (ix) Kanhan Railway Station road, (x) Kohli-Mohpa road and (xi) Bori-Umrer road.

Kamptee Dahegaon Road.

The road emanates from 13.48 km. (mile 8/3) of Nagpur-Jubbulpore road (Great Northern road) near Christ Church at Kamptee and runs to the north-west through Nagpur tahsil. It joins the Nagpur-Chhindwada road in 16.90 km. (mile 10/4) at Dahegaon. The total length of this road is 14.89 km. (9 miles and 2 furlongs). The road affords direct communication from Kamptee to Chhindwada.

It touches Khaparkheda in 12.87 km. (mile 8) and Dahegaon in 16.90 km. (mile 10/4).

It crosses the Kolar river in 8.25 km. (mile 5/1) with a submersible bridge and a nalla in 15.28 km. (mile 9/4) over a causeway.

It joins the Nagpur-Jubbulpore road to the Nagpur-Chhindwada road.

The entire length of this road is asphalted (black-topped) and is motorable throughout the year except interruptions at the Kolar river.

Tharsa Railway Station Road.

This road joins Tharsa village to the Tharsa railway station on the Nagpur-Howrah railway route. The total length of this road is 5.23 km. (3 miles and 2 furlongs) and it traverses only the Ramtek tahsil.

In its stretch it does not touch any place nor does it cross any road.

It is motorable throughout the year except in times of heavy rains.

Khapa-Patansaongi Road.

The road starts from Patansaongi and runs to the north-west up to Khapa. It connects Khapa with the Nagpur-Chhindwada road. Its total length is 10.86 km. (6 miles and 6 furlongs).

It has a metalled surface and is motorable throughout the year except in heavy rains. Traffic is obstructed at a causeway in 9.05 km. (mile 5/5).

Khapa Railway Station Road.

It serves traffic to the Khapa railway station. It does not touch any place nor are there any crossings on it. It has an asphalted (black-topped) surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Pardi-Bagadganj Road.

The road starts from the end of the Nagpur Corporation road limit near Gangabai Ghat in Nagpur city and runs towards the east till it joins the Nagpur-Bhandara (Great Eastern) road in 7.85 km. (mile 4/7) near Pardi. The total length of this road is 3.22 km. (2 miles).

It is a class I asphalted (black-topped) road and is motorable throughout the year.

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Communications.

ROADS.

Other District Roads.

This road starts from 36.61 km. (mile 22/6) of the Great Northern road and runs towards the west up to Naikund in Ramtek tahsil. The total length of this road is 5.23 km. (3 miles and 2 furlongs).

Amdi-Naikund Road.

It does not touch any place nor does any road emanate from it.

It has a metalled surface and is motorable throughout the year.

Khapa-Kodegaon Road.

The road starts from Khapa in Ramtek tahsil and runs a distance of 2.61 km. (1 mile and 5 furlongs) up to Kodegaon.

It does not touch any village nor does any road cross it. There is no bridge on it.

It is motorable only in the fair-weather season.

Dumri Khurd Railway Station Road.

This feeder road is only .6035 km. (3 furlongs) in length and serves traffic to Dumri railway station on the South-Eastern Railway route. It also meets the Great Northern road in 30.37 km. (mile 18/7). It is motorable throughout the year.

Kanhan Railway Station Road.

This feeder road is only .2011 km. (1 furlong) in length and serves traffic to Kanhan station on the Nagpur-Howrah railway route. It is a class I road and is motorable throughout the year.

Kohli-Mohpa Road.

This road starts from Kohli at 32.79 km. (mile 20/3) of the Nagpur-Katol-Jalalkheda road and runs to the north up to Mohpa. Total length of this road is 6.44 km. (4 miles and a furlong).

It does not touch any place nor does any road cross it. It is motorable throughout the year.

Bori-Umrer Road.

The road starts from Bori railway station on the Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur line and runs towards the south-east. It traverses the Nagpur and Umrer tahsils. From Bori railway station up to 24.14 km. (mile 15) it is a Class II road and from 24.14 km. (mile 15) up to Umrer it is a Class I road. Its total length is 34.60 km. (21 miles and 4 furlongs).

It touches Makardhokda in 24.14 km. (mile 15). Going from west to east it joins the Nagpur-Umrer-Chanda road near Umrer. There is no major bridge over this road.

It has a metalled surface and is motorable throughout the year, except during heavy rains.

Roads in Towns.

The expansive city of Nagpur has a number of wide, well-planned and well-constructed roads. In keeping with the grandeur and importance of the city, the squares and *chauks* are nicely planned and roads are developed in a proper perspective. Mention may be made of the Variety Chauk in Sitabuldi from where a number of roads emanate.

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Communications.

ROADS.

Roads in Towns.

The programme of road development received a fillip after the establishment of the Nagpur Municipal Corporation in 1951. The asphalting of roads received the active attention of the Corporation. The Nagpur Improvement Trust has been playing a very significant role in bringing about an aesthetic development of the city. (A detailed description of the same may be found in Chapter 19). The Nagpur Municipal Corporation has under its control roads of the length of over 275 km. (171 miles). Of this, a length of about 11.26 km. (7 miles) is cement concrete, 114.26 km. (71 miles) is asphalted, 122.31 km. (76 miles) is metalled and 25.74 km. (16 miles) is unmetalled. Besides the roads under the Corporation, a number of highways, which emanate from the Sitabuldi, pass through the city. These highways are maintained by the Buildings and Communications department of the State Government.

As regards the other towns in Nagpur district, roads are not developed with a perspective of town planning. The municipal authorities cannot afford to spend substantially on road development. The following statement shows the length of roads in kilometres under the charge of the respective municipalities:—

Towns (1)	Length					
	Metalled (2)		Unmetalled (2)		Total (3)	
	Km.		Km.		Km.	
Ramtek ..	2·4139	(1-4)*	N.A.		..	
Khapa ..	3·2187	(2-0)	3·2187	(2-0)*	6·4374	(4-0)*
Kamptee ..	14·4841	(9-0)	2·4139	(1-4)	16·8974	(10-4)
Umrer ..	8·2478	(5-1)	16·8980	(10-4)	25·1461	(15-5)
Saoner ..	4·0233	(2-4)	2·4139	(1-4)	6·4374	(4-0)
Mohpa ..	0·8046	(0-4)	4·2246	(2-5)	5·0291	(3-1)

BRIDGES.

With a net work of road communication in the district, a number of river crossings have bridges. The old Gazetteer of Nagpur district makes a special mention of the bridge over the Great Northern road near Kamptee: "There is a magnificent bridge over the Kanhan river near Kamptee, perhaps the finest masonry bridge in India. It consists of 12 spans or 24.38 metres (80 feet) elliptical arches. The work was completed at a cost of Rs. 12½ lakhs in the year 1873. . . . . When this bridge was made it was intended to carry the metre-gauge railway line to Chhattisgarh over it, alongside the road, but subsequently a second railway bridge was constructed".† The Great Northern road, the Nagpur-Chhindwada road, the Nagpur-Saoner-Multai road, the Great Eastern road, etc., were bridged at almost all important river crossings by that time.

Since the publication of the Nagpur District Gazetteer (1908) a number of major bridges, submersible bridges and causeways have been constructed. The statement below gives the locational and structural particulars of the major bridges, i.e., bridges having a length of 30.48 metres (100′) or above.

*Figures in miles and furlongs.

†Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Nagpur District, Vol. A, 1908, page 200.

TABLE No. 7

STATEMENT OF MAJOR BRIDGES IN NAGPUR DISTRICT

S. No (1)	Name of river and bridge (2)	Name of road (3)	Nearby town or village (4)	Distance (5)	No. of spans and length (6)	Width of roadway (7)	Average height of bridge (8)	Type of construction (9)	Year of construction (10)	Remarks (11)
1	Bor nalla: Segmental submersible arch bridge.	Nagpur-Amravati road.	..	39·0266 km. (mile 24/2)	4 spans of 30′ each. 9·1440 m.	3·6576 m. (12′).	3·315 m. (10′-10½″).	Arch type stone masonry construction.	1914-15 ..	Existing bridge.
2	Wana river: Segmental submersible arch bridge.	Nagpur-Bori-Hinganghat road.	Bori ..	30·1752 km. (mile 18/6)	7 spans of 30′ each. 9.1440 m.	3·6576 m. (12′).	5·9436 m. (19′-6″).	Do. ..	1929—31 ..	Do.
3	Nag river: Segmental arch high level bridge.	Nagpur-Umrer-Chanda road.	Nagpur ..	6·0350 km. (mile 3/6)	5 spans— 2 of 35′ each, 10.6680 m. 2 of 40′ each, 12.192 m. 1 of 45; 13.176. Total 195. 59.436.	3·6576 m. (12′).	3.124 m. (10′-3″).	Do. ..	1890 ..	Do.
4	Kalamna Pipla nalla: Submersible arch bridge.	Do. ..	..	14·8864 km. (mile 9/2)	4 spans of 30′ each. 9.1440 m.	3·6576 m. (12′).	3·124 m. (10′-3″).	Do. ..	1891 ..	Do.
5	Virgaon nalla: Raised causeway.	Do. ..	..	16·0934 km. (mile 10)	5 spans of 30′ each. 9·1440 m.	3·6576 m. (12′).	3·124 m. (10′-3″).	Do. ..	Not known	Do.
6	Aam river: Submersible bridge.	Do. ..	..	42·6475 km. (mile 26/4)	Not known.	3·6576 m. (12′).	4·2672 m. (14′).	R.C.C. slab construction.	..	Raised causeway is existing; submersible bridge is planned to be constructed.
7	Mora river: Segmental submersible arch bridge.	Do. ..	..	71·6156 km. (mile 44/4)	3 spans of 24′ each. 7·3152 m.	3·6576 m. (12′).	2·464 m. (8′-7½″).	Stone masonry	Not known	Existing bridge.
8	Jam river: Submersible bridge.	Nagpur-Katol-Jalalkheda road.	..	77·6513 km. (mile 48/2)	7 spans of 35′ each. 10·6680 m.	3·6576 m. (12′).	4·8768 m. (16′).	R.C.C. slab flat bridge.	Do. ..	Under construction.
9	Kanhan river ..	Nagpur-Bhandara-Calcutta, road.	Mathni ..	34·8021 km. (mile 21/5)	27 spans of 26′-3″ each. 8·001 m.	4·5720 m. (15′).	3·3528 m. (11′).	Sand stone segmental arch bridge.	Do. ..	Existing magnificent and well-built submersible bridge.
10	Kanhan river ..	Nagpur-Jubbulpore road.	Kanhan ..	19·7144 km. (mile 12/2)	12 spans of 12′-6″ each. 3·811 m.	6·4008 m. (21′).	3·3528 m. (11′).	Sand stone arch elliptical bridge.	Do. ..	Existing magnificent and well-built high level bridge.
11	Kolar river ..	Nagpur-Chhindwada road.	Mahadulla	13·8807 km. (mile 8/5)	9 spans of 30′ each. 9·1440 m.	3·8100 m. (12′-6″).	2·4384 m. (8′).	Sand stone segmental arch bridge.	Do. ..	Existing submersible bridge.

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Communications

PUBLIC TRANSPORT.

State Transport.

The history of passenger transport of an organised character can be traced to the year 1942 when Messrs. Mechanical Transport Ltd. started transport of passengers. This company sponsored another company, viz., The Nagpur Omnibus Company in 1943 under its Managing Agency. In 1945, the name of the company was changed to The Provincial Transport Company Ltd. and Messrs. Mechanical Transport continued to be the Managing Agents. They, however, surrendered its Managing Agency to the Government in 1946. The Government assumed the managing agency rights and reconstituted the Board of Directors. The company continued to function as a joint stock company under the Indian Companies Act, 1936, up to 31st August 1955, when it was brought under government management as a going concern and named as 'The Provincial Transport Services (Under Government Ownership)'.

In order to co-ordinate the activities and organisation of the three State Transport organisations, the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation, the Provincial Transport Services and the Marathwada State Transport were merged into a single corporation, the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation, Bombay, in July 1961. As such, the Provincial Transport Services became an integral part of the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation from July 1961.

Extent of Operations.

After the nationalisation of the Undertaking in 1955 the following routes passing through Nagpur district were operated:—

Name of route (1)	Distance (2)		No. of return trips (3)	Distance covered daily (in Km.) (4)	
	Kms.	Miles		Kms.	Miles
1 Nagpur-Jubbulpore ..	273·588	170	6	321·869	200
2 Nagpur-Chhapara ..	162·544	101	1	325·087	202
3 Nagpur-Seoni	127·138	79	2	508·55	316
4 Nagpur-Waraseoni ..	220·480	137	1	440.960	274
5 Nagpur-Rajnandgaon ..	212·433	132	1	424·867	264
6 Nagpur-Deori	140·013	87	2	560·05	348
7 Nagpur-Saundad	111·044	69	2	444·179	276
8 Nagpur-Sakoli	99·779	62	3	598·68	372
9 Nagpur-Gondia	159·325	99	3	955·95	594
10 Nagpur-Bhandara	61·155	38	3	366·930	228
11 Nagpur-Mouda	35·4056	22	2	141·622	88
12 Nagpur-Yeotmal	144·841	90	4	1,158·73	720
13 Nagpur-Hinganghat ..	77·249	48	8	1,235·98	768
14 Nagpur-Wardha	77·249	48	4	617·99	384
15 Nagpur-Chanda (*via* Warora).	154·497	96	2	617·99	384
16 Nagpur-Warora	109·435	68	2	437·742	272

Subsequently, with the reorganisation of States in November 1956, there was some reshuffling of routes between this Undertaking and the Central Provinces Transport Services (U. G. O.) and accordingly some routes, viz., Nagpur-Jubbulpore, Nagpur-Seoni, Nagpur-Chhapara were transferred to the Central Provinces Transport Services, Jubbulpore. In return this Undertaking took over the routes falling in Nagpur, Amravati, Arvi and Jalalkheda sections from the Central Provinces Transport Services. During

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State Transport.

Extent of Operations.

the year 1958-59 services were also extended to Ramtek and Kamptee.

The Undertaking[1] operated a route of 1287.48 km. (mileage of about 800) per day in Nagpur city at this stage.

There has been a gradual increase in the operations of Nagpur city passenger services. By January 1961 the Undertaking was operating routes of 4,667.09 km. (2,900 miles) daily in Nagpur city.

The following statement gives the route distance and number of return trips over the State Transport routes in Nagpur district as in 1960.

TABLE No. 8

STATE TRANSPORT ROUTES IN NAGPUR DISTRICT AS IN DECEMBER 1960.

Serial No. (1)	Name of the route (2)	Route distance (3)		Number of return trips (4)
		Km.	Miles	
1	Nagpur-Amravati*	154·497	96	13
2	Nagpur-Arvi*	111·045	69	3
3	Nagpur-Kondhali..	48·2803	30	2
4	Nagpur-Jalalkheda	78·858	49	7
5	Nagpur-Mohpa	38·624	24	5
6	Nagpur-Patansaongi	28·9682	18	2
7	Nagpur-Bazargaon	33·796	21	1
8	Nagpur-Ramtek	48·2803	30	7
9	Nagpur-Kamptee	16·0934	10	14
10	Nagpur-Kanhan	20·9215	13	2
11	Nagpur-Seoni*	127·138	79	2
12	Nagpur-Rajnandgaon*	212·432	132	1
13	Nagpur-Waraseoni*	220·480	137	1
14	Nagpur-Gondia*	159·325	99	3

[1]The Undertaking is operating the Services in Nagpur, Bhandara, Wardha, Chanda, Amravati and Yeotmal districts at present (January 1961). The daily service distance operated by the Undertaking is 40,983·45 km. (25,466 miles) in rural areas and 4,667·09 km. (2,900 miles) in Nagpur city. Of the total of 92 routes operated by it in rural areas, 35 radiate from Nagpur city and traverse the Nagpur district. It has a fleet of 315 well-built buses. On an average 214 vehicles are on the road daily. Of the 315 vehicles, 131 are of the Mercedes Benz brand.

During 1959-60 the Undertaking's buses carried 1,58,11,797 passengers The daily average number of passengers carried during the year worked out to 43,320.

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TABLE No. 8—*concld.*

STATE TRANSPORT ROUTES IN NAGPUR DISTRICT AS IN DECEMBER 1960.

Serial No. (1)	Name of the route (2)	Route distance (3) Km.	Miles	Number of return trips (4)
15	Nagpur-Bhandara*	61·155	38	8
16	Nagpur-Soundad*	111·045	69	2
17	Nagpur-Sakoli*	99·779	62	1
18	Nagpur-Deori*	140·013	87	2
19	Nagpur-Mouda	35·405	22	2
20	Nagpur-Paradsinga (*via* Kelod)..	56·327	35	1
21	Nagpur-Yeotmal*	144·841	90	5
22	Nagpur-Hinganghat*	77·249	48	8
23	Nagpur-Wardha*	77·249	48	4
24	Nagpur-Chanda (*via* Warora)*..	154·497	96	2
25	Nagpur-Chanda (*via* Umrer) ..	201·168	125	1
26	Nagpur-Khapa	38·6243	24	5
27	Nagpur-Khaparkheda	20·9215	13	1
28	Nagpur-Warora*	109·435	68	1
29	Nagpur-Pipla	82·077	51	1
30	Nagpur-Katol	56·327	35	6
31	Nagpur-Kalmeshwar	20·9215	13	4
32	Nagpur-Jaurwada..	72·420	45	1
33	Katol-Sawargaon	14·4841	9	5
34	Katol-Jalalkheda	22·5308	14	6
35	Kondhali-Katol	17·7028	11	5

*These are inter-district routes.

Amenities to Passengers.

The Undertaking has constructed a central bus station near the Nagpur Railway Station. The Central bus station is equipped with potable water and sanitary arrangements, parcel and cloak-rooms, canteens, waiting hall, etc. The central bus station building was extended by a renovated construction in 1958-59. A city bus terminus has recently been constructed at Sitabuldi. At important places sheds have been provided in Nagpur city.

Well-built and ventilated buses are provided. Facilities of reservation of seats, advance booking, etc., are available to the passengers. As per provisions of the Motor Vehicles Act first-aid boxes are maintained in all the buses.

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State Transport.

Depots.

There are four depots at Nagpur serving the Nagpur-Amravati, Nagpur-Bhandara, Nagpur-Wardha and Nagpur City Bus services. Besides these four depots, there is a central workshop situated at Ghat Road, Nagpur, where body-building and reconditioning of motor vehicles are carried out. There are also workshops attached to each of the above depots where running repairs are carried out.

Private Passenger Transport.

Though a majority of the passenger transport services have been nationalised and brought under the operations of the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation, a few routes are still allowed to be served by private owners of transport vehicles. Some of the routes are left exclusively for the private owners whereas on a few routes they share the passenger traffic with the State Transport buses.

The services rendered by these private buses are not up to the mark. Rules regarding safety of passengers, comfort and convenience are seldom observed. Overcrowding in buses is a frequent occurrence. Regularity is not observed. Amenities to passengers are rarely made available. No attempts are made to improve the service conditions of the staff. They are poorly paid and overworked.

A list of names of some of the private owners of passenger buses is given here.—

1. Premsewa Regular Motor Service, Nagpur.
2. S. H. Transport Co., Nagpur.
3. Syndicate Transport Co. (Private Ltd.), Nagpur.
4. Nagpur District Transport Co., Nagpur.
5. Samarth Transport Co., Nagpur.
6. Natwar Transport Co., Nagpur.
7. C. P. Sikh R. M. S., Nagpur.
8. New Loksewa Motor Service, Nagpur.
9. Saroj Transport Co., Nagpur.
10. Laxmi Motor Service, Nagpur.
11. Jaiswal Transport Co., Khapa.
12. Commercial Transport Co., Khapa.
13. National Transport Co., Khapa.
14. Rai Transport Service, Narkhed.
15. Syed Umarali Syed Amarali, Narkhed.
16. Godhankar Bandhu Motor Service, Mowad.
17. Sk. Chhotu Sk. Madar, Nagpur.

RURAL TRANSPORT.

It is by far widely known that India is an underdeveloped country and that the facilities of transport in the rural areas are far from satisfactory. The roads are usually unmetalled and sometimes not usable for even cart traffic in the rainy season. However, during the last two decades considerable progress has been achieved and several schemes of road development are under way.

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RURAL TRANSPORT.

Although transport facilities in the rural areas of India are inadequate, it should be mentioned that Nagpur district enjoys better facilities than many other districts of Maharashtra. A number of highways, major roads and railway routes emanate from Nagpur. Naturally enough they touch numerous villages and cater to the transport needs of most of the interior tracts of the district. Many approach roads have lately been developed. Thus, many motorable roads are available to the rural areas of this district.

It may further be noted that on most of the motorable roads the State Transport authorities are running buses. Since the nationalisation of the transport undertaking the facilities of bus transport have been carried to almost all corners of the district.*

The railway routes, *viz.*, Bombay-Nagpur-Howrah, Nagpur-Itarsi, Nagpur-Ramtek, Nagpur-Chanda, Nagpur-Chhindwada, etc., which emanate from Nagpur cater to the transport needs of the rural tracts. Moreover, approach roads from railway stations have lately been developed, with the result that the problem of rural transport has been eased considerably in Nagpur district.

AIR TRANSPORT.

The Nagpur Airport, situated at Sonegaon, was commissioned during the First World War in 1917-18. It is centrally situated and commands an air zone over a wide area in Central India. It commands direct air communications with the metropolitan cities, namely, Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. Passenger and air mails traffic at this airport is served by the daily night air services of the Indian Airlines Corporation running to and from Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

The old buildings at the airport were renovated during the Second World War. Realising the national importance of air communications and brisk traffic at the airport new buildings were constructed in 1953. The new buildings give an impress of massive modern architecture and imposing appearance. Decent facilities of refreshment, retiring rooms, rest-rooms, book stalls, visitors' galleries, etc., are provided there. The 'Observatory' is on the second floor. The premises of the airport command an expanse of 323.749 hectares (800 acres) of land.

The Central Meteorological Department building is situated in the vicinity of this airport. Residential quarters for the staff are built a little further.

The Senior Aerodrome Officer is in charge of this airport, and he is assisted by a Communications Officer, Aircraft Engineer and others.

TOURIST FACILITIES.

The central position of Nagpur in Central India has lent it considerable importance as a tourists' place. The reasons for heavy tourist traffic to Nagpur are cited below. The ties of Nagpur with the Vidarbha region and the tracts in Madhya

*The Directory of Villages and Towns given at the end of this Volume also gives the nearest bus stand and the nearest railway station useful to each village in this district.

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TOURIST FACILITIES.

Pradesh are very old. Nagpur has been perhaps the most important centre of trade and commerce, industries, mining, education and culture in the Central India. It was also the capital of the former Madhya Pradesh State and is now the second capital of Maharashtra. The Nagpur University is located at Nagpur and a number of colleges and research institutes have adorned this city. Some of the areas surrounding Nagpur city are rich in minerals and coal deposits. Naturally the traffic to the city has gone up.

Consequently there has been a flush of tourists traffic to Nagpur. It is gratifying to note that a number of cosmopolitan hotels, modern lodging and boarding houses, clubs, etc., have sprang up in the Civil Lines, Sadar and Sitabuldi areas. The Mount Hotel, the Sham Hotel and the Raj Hotel are the famous lodging houses in Nagpur City. There are *dharmashalas* run and maintained by charitable institutions.

The Government of Maharashtra have also maintained in the Civil Lines two very nice rest-houses for Members of the Legislative Assembly. They are furnished with all modern facilities. Primarily these rest-houses are meant for Members of the Legislature and Government Officers on duty. But they are also given for occupation to private tourists and marriage parties. The Government have also maintained a rest-house near Kasturchand Park.

Inspection bungalows and rest-houses have been provided for officers on duty at the following towns and villages: Bhiwapur, Botehari, Chorbaoli, Deolapar, Ghatpendri, Kalmeshwar, Kamptee, Katol, Khai, Khindsi, Kholdhoda, Kondhali, Lohdongri, Mansar, Mauda, Bagalwadi, Nagpur, Pipla, Salaighat, Saoner, Sillari, Surera, Umrer and Virsee.

POST OFFICES.

The building of the General Post Office is located in Civil Lines, Nagpur. In Nagpur city itself there are combined post offices at Ajni, Assa House, Bezonbagh, Cotton Market, Craddock Market, Craddock Town, Dhantoli, Giri Peth, Hitvada, Indora, Jaripatka, Khare Town, Mahal, Medical College, Mohan Nagar, Sadar Bazar, Nagpur Times, Netaji Market, New Colony and Sitabuldi. There are also combined offices at the following places in the district:—

Nagpur Air Port, Bhiwapur, Kalmeshwar, Kamptee, Kamptee Bazar, Katol, Khapa, Narkhed, Pauni, Ramtek, Saoner, Umrer and Umrer Bazar.

There are Branch Post Offices at—

Amgaon Deoli, Ashta, Bamni (Nagpur), Bazargaon, Bela (Nagpur), Bhandewadi, Bhugaon (Nagpur), Borde, Bori, Champa, Deolapar, Deolikalbande, Bhamne, Dhanla, Dighorikale, Gondkhairi, Gowari, Gumgaon, Gumthala (Nagpur), Heora, Hingna, Kalamna, Kandri (Nagpur), Kanholi, Kawdas, Khapri, Khursapar, Kohli, Kondhali, Mahadulla (Nagpur), Mahuli, Mahurzari, Mansar, Masod, Mohgaon, Mohpa,

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POST OFFICES.

Mouda, Nawegaon, Pachgaon, Paoni (Ramtek), Phetri, Pipla (Nagpur), Piplakinkheda, Pipra, Ridhora (Nagpur), Sakkardhara, Salaidhaba, Salsaigodhni, Shivasonga, Takalghat, Umriwagh (Nagpur), Vyahad, Waoddhamna, Wadooda, Bornala, Ganjakhet*, Ganji Peth*, Gokulpeth*, Maskasath*, Mominpura*, Nayapura*, Pachpaoli*, Shankarnagar*, Shradhanand Peth*, Tinnal*, Tilak Statue*, Borgaon (Dhurkheda), Dhapewada, Ghorad, Ubali, Uparwahi, Aroli, Bina, Chacher, Gondegaon, Hingna Barabhai, Kamhanpipri, Khat, Kondhamendhi, Nimbakheda, Rewral, Salwa (Kamptee), Tarsa, Kamptee Camp, Ambada, Bharsing, Bishnoor, Dawsa, Dhawalapur, Digra Buzruk, Dorli (Bhandwalkar), Dorli Buzruk, Erla, Jalalkheda, Kacharisaonga, Khapa (Katol), Sawargaon, Ladgaon, Loharisaonga, Mendhla, Metpanjra, Murti, Paradsinga, Ridhora (Katol), Sindi, Thadipauni, Thugaondev, Yenwa, Zilpa, Khamla, Badegaon, Khubala, Kodegaon, Kothulna, Pipla, Khaperkheda, Belona, Khairgaon, Kharsoli, Mowar Tinkheda, Yenikoni, Amgaon (Pauni), Kurza, Sawarla, Dahegaon Joshi, Kachurwahi, Khandala (Ramtek), Mahadulla (Ramtek), Musewadi, Nagardhan, Parseoni, Adasa, Bichwa, Gaimukhnanda, Kelod, Khairi (Dhalgaon), Khangaon, Malegaon, Mangsa, Patansaongi, Pipla (Keolram), Takli, Telgaon, Telgaon Kamptee, Umrinanda (Saoner), Waki, Adam, Bamhni (Umrer), Bhuyar, Channa, Dawha (Umrer), Dodma, Dongarmandha, Fegad, Gothangaon, Jaoli, Jiwanapur, Kargaon, Kuhi, Makardhokda, Moudhol, Mangrud, Marni, Pachkhedi, Rajola, Salwa (Umrer), Tarna, Thutanbori, Titur, Udasa and Veltur.

Thus there are 33 Combined Offices and 173 Branch Post Offices in this district. On an average one Post Office serves eight to nine villages.

RADIO COMMUNICATIONS.

All India Radio, Nagpur.

There is an All India Radio (Akashvani) Station at Nagpur. It is situated in Civil Lines, Nagpur. A wing of the building is converted into a studio block whereas the remaining portion of the building is utilised for office purposes. The buildings in which the transmitter and receiving centre of the All India Radio are located are specially constructed for the purpose. Both these centres are situated at a considerable distance from the city.

The All India Radio, Nagpur, is equipped with a 10 K.W. Medium Wave Westinghouse transmitter of 10 HV-1 type. The transmitter has got a self radiating mast of 106.68 metres (350 feet) height. It operates on a frequency of 590 Kc, i.e., 508.5 metres. The zonal limit of the transmitter extends over the entire Vidarbha region. It has a primary service area of about 160.93 km. (100 miles) radius.

The studios are situated at a central place and are easily approachable. Convenience of the artists and others who are required to attend the studios for their broadcasts is kept in view. In the studio-block there are the (i) Music Studio, (ii) Talks Studio and (iii) Gramo Studio. The facilities provided at this Station are just sufficient to carry out the day-to-day programmes meant for this region.

*These post offices are in Nagpur City.

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RADIO COMMUNICATIONS

All India Radio, Nagpur.

Broadcasting Programmes.

Music forms a major part of the programmes of the All India Radio, Nagpur. A proper proportion is maintained between the broadcasts of classical and light music. Concerts of classical music are broadcast at fixed intervals, sometimes before invited audiences. The artists of the zone who have been auditioned and graded by the Panel constituted specially for the purpose are given engagements for broadcast. They belong mainly to two categories, viz., vocalists and instrumentalists. Film songs are also broadcast.

Besides music, news, talks, plays and allied features are relayed daily. Talks form an important part of these programmes while plays form another part. The plays are very popular with the listeners. There are many programmes belonging to special categories generally known as Special Audience Programmes. They are the rural programmes, industrial programmes, school broadcasts, women's programmes, children's programmes, etc. The formation of listeners clubs especially in women's and children's programmes with a view to popularising organised listening is an important feature. News bulletins in English, Hindi and Marathi are relayed from Delhi at specified intervals every day. National programmes of music, plays, operas and talks are relayed from Delhi. The All India Radio, Nagpur, thus, broadcasts programmes of considerable variety keeping in view the traditions, tastes and local talents in surrounding areas.

Important events in and around Nagpur are covered through the media of radio reports, eye-witness accounts and running commentaries. The microphone is often taken to such places and the programme is broadcast simultaneously or recorded.

The scheduled programmes are published in the *Akashvani* and the press. The reaction of listeners is ascertained through letters received from them and the suggestions and criticisms are duly considered.

Community Radio Sets.

Realising the importance of radio as a medium of communication the Government of Maharashtra introduced the Rural Broadcasting Contributary Scheme in this district also. Under this scheme the Directorate of Publicity provides radio sets to rural institutions like grampanchayats, public libraries and municipalities. The Directorate not only installs the sets but also provides for their maintenance and servicing. Dry batteries are provided to the battery radio sets.

The community radio sets are meant exclusively for the use of the public and the parties concerned are required to tune radio programmes relayed from the All India Radio, and especially the programmes for the villagers and workers.

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RADIO COMMUNICATIONS.

Community Radio Sets.

For the installation of a community radio set the parties concerned are required to contribute Rs. 150 for an electric set and Rs. 170 for a battery set. In addition they have to contribute Rs. 60 for maintenance which is inclusive of provision for battery and radio licence fee.

The benefits of this scheme are availed of to a considerable extent in this district. In June 1961 there were as many as 107 community radio sets installed under the Scheme in the Nagpur district. The following is the tahsilwise list of villages and towns where radio sets were installed up to June 1961.

Tahsil	*Village or town.*
1. Katol ..	(1) Ambada, (2) Belona, (3) Jalalkheda, (4) Kalamba, (5) Metpanjara, (6) Narsingi, (7) Sawargaon, (8) Sonkhamb, (9) Thadipauni. (10) Yenwa, (11) Yerla (Dhote).
2. Nagpur ..	(1) Ashta, (2) Bhogaon, (3) Bori, (4) Dighori, (5) Gumthala, (6) Khapa, (7) Khapa, (8) Mahadula, (9) Mathni, (10) Nagpur, (11) Nagpur, (12) Neri-Mankar, (13) Vihirgaon, (14) Wadgaon, (15) Wadi, (16) Yerla.
3. Ramtek ..	(1) Ajni, (2) Banpuri, (3) Chaheer, (4) Chirwha, (5) Dahegaon-Joshi, (6) Dhanala, (7) Govri, (8) Karambhad, (9) Karwahi, (10) Khat, (11) Marodi, (12) Mohali, (13) Nagardhan, (14) Niharwani, (15) Pardi, (16) Revrala, (17) Sathak, (18) Tamaswadi, (19) Tharsa.
4. Saoner ..	(1) Adasa-Sonpur, (2) Badegaon, (3) Bhanegaon, (4) Bhina, (5) Borgaon Bk., (6) Borgaon, (7) Dhapewadi, (8) Isapur, (9) Kamathi (Talegaon), (10) Khapa (Narsala), (11) Khubala, (12) Khumari, (13) Khurasgaon, (14) Malegaon, (15) Mangasa, (16) Mandvi, (17) Nanda-Gomukh, (18) Parsodi, (19) Pipala, (20) Salai, (21) Savali, (22) Sillewada, (23) Telgaon, (24) Tembur-Doh, (25) Tidangi, (26) Tishti Bk., (27) Umari, (28) Waki, (29) Wakodi.
5. Umrer ..	(1) Bela, (2) Besur, (3) Bori, (4) Champa, (5) Chanoda, (6) Dhamangaon, (7) Hewati, (8) Hivra, (9) Jawali, (10) Kargaon, (11) Kinhi, (12) Malewada, (13) Mangrud, (14) Mandhal, (15) Mendha, (16) Makhar-Dhokada, (17) Nagtaroli, (18) Nand, (19) Navegaon, (20) Nokshi, (21) Pachgaon, (22) Parsodi (Raja), (23) Pipra, (24) Savangi, (25) Shivapur, (26) Shirpur, (27) Silli, (28) Sirshi, (29) Surgaon, (30) Taka, (31) Tas, (32) Titur.

CHAPTER 8—MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

INTRODUCTION.

A MAJOR PORTION OF THE WORKING POPULATION OF THE DISTRICT remains uncovered in the categories of earners listed in the previous chapters. Such persons are treated here separately under the category of 'Miscellaneous Occupations'. Persons forming this group are engaged in public administration, professions like law, medicine and education, fine arts, religion, domestic service and certain other occupations such as tailoring, hair-cutting, running of hotels and restaurants, laundering, etc., some of which are attracting an increasing number of persons. With the growing industrialisation and mechanisation and the consequent quickening of life-processes such occupations are seen to multiply. A number of needs which were formerly satisfied in the family are now conveniently and to some extent efficiently satisfied outside. The demand for the services rendered by these occupations, *e.g.*, hotels, ready-food stuffs, ready-made clothes, laundering tailoring, etc., is, therefore, on the increase. This is especially so where women are drawn out of their homes for employment outside. The number of persons engaged in Government services is constantly on the increase consequent upon the expansion of the Governmental activities. The number of persons following the learned professions like law, medicine and education has also increased to a great extent consequent upon the awakening among the people and availability of educational facilities. The nature and composition of some of these professions have of course changed with the spread of scientific knowledge, *e.g.*, quacks, witch doctors and sorcerers have receded in the background and men with modern scientific knowledge have captured the medical field. The *kazis* and the *shastris* have yielded place to the lawyers and advocates in the legal field. On the other hand professions and services which reflect the age-old ideas show a decline in the number following them, *e.g.*, the religious profession.

There is no uniformity in the growth of such occupations and all such occupations may not be found at all the major places in the district. Some categories have come into existence as a result of the expansion in industrial activity, some are in the nature of peculiarities of the region whereas a few have a historical background. This does not, however, minimise the importance of these occupations which have become a part and parcel of the general economic life of the region concerned. In fact, they have become a source of income and provide an avenue for independent employment to the skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers alike.

An attempt is made here to give a broad picture of some of these occupations. No assessment is made regarding the income, production or employment pattern of these occupations because such an assessment would have necessitated detailed data spread over the past few years in regard to these occupations which under the circumstances is wellnigh impossible. With a view to collecting as much information as possible, a questionnaire was prepared covering such aspects as the size of the occupation, raw materials required, tools and equipment used, capital invested, wages paid, production, marketing of the product, profits, etc. A sample survey was conducted at almost all the important towns of the district and an attempt was made to obtain maximum coverage. The analysis of the various occupations given below cannot be regarded as presenting a totally correct picture of the reality because of the natural limits to all such surveys and also because of the lukewarm attitude of many of the earners concerned. The miscellaneous occupations surveyed are listed below:—

(i) Hotels and Restaurants. (ii) Laundries. (iii) Tailors. (iv) Bakeries. (v) Goldsmiths. (vi) Flour Mills. (vii) *Pan* and *Bidi* Shops. (viii) Public Administration. (ix) Arts, Letters and Signs, etc.

Many of these occupations are a combination of trade and industry. They are peculiar features of the urban areas of the district, although some of them are also found in the rural areas.

Some special features may be noted about establishments in the district coming under the head "Miscellaneous Occupations". The voluminous trade activity carried on in the city of Nagpur provides ample opportunities for big sized and decent establishments to carry on their business profitably and for small sized establishments to expand quickly. A number of establishments under this head are seen to have an extensive business. These are registered and brought under the purview of the Factories Act. Among such are a few bakeries, tailoring shops, laundries, etc. Shops which do not come under the Factories Act are registered by some municipalities (*e.g.*, Nagpur, Ramtek, Umrer) under the Shops and Establishments Act. Such shops have to maintain accounts, provide the specified working conditions and are inspected as laid down under the respective Acts.

The following table gives the number of persons employed in different occupations in Nagpur district in 1961:—

TABLE No. 1.

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS IN THE YEAR 1961 (NAGPUR DISTRICT).

— (1)	Total (2)	Men (3)	Women (4)
Manufacturing of aerated and mineral waters ..	158	151	7
Rice pounders, huskers and grain grinders ..	1,092	1,007	85
Sweetmeat makers	1,057	832	225
Tailors	7,275	6,557	718
Hat and cap makers	53	49	4
Other industries pertaining to gloves, socks, umbrellas, etc.	21	21	..
Washing and cleaning	2,007	1,318	689
Barbers, hair-dressers	3,111	3,099	12
Furniture industries	9,348	9,254	94
Workers in precious stones and metals, jewels, etc.	1,955	1,925	30
Scavengers	4,975	3,061	1,914

HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS.

Shops belonging to this category provided livelihood to about 2,612 persons in 1951 of which 462 were employers; 1,620 were employees and 530 were independent workers. The 1911 Census shows the total number of persons engaged as 502 (437 males and 65 females). The business has considerably developed through all these years to serve the industrial and commercial population which is ever on the increase. The growth in the business is also due to the changing social customs consequent upon the release of the food taboos and bonds of untouchability and growing habits of eating out of doors. The business in most cases is owned by the persons concerned and only in a minority of cases it is handed down through generations. The owners, wherever required, borrow from relatives and friends or money-lenders, and rarely approach a bank.

The establishments, though broadly coming under the same category, differ in the nature of their catering to the public, their size depending on the number and the purse of the clientele. Thus we have petty shops which exclusively serve tea. Then there are some which combine the sale of tea with other beverages hot and cold and some eatables. In a few cases, meals are served on the rice-plate system. The establishments

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in rural and urban localities offer a wide contrast in regard to their equipment, size, variety, etc. The establishments in rural areas are usually ill-equipped, small-sized and have a somewhat ungainly appearance. These mostly sell cheap tea. Only such snacks as will last for some time (*e.g.*, biscuits, etc.,) are offered because of the limited turnover. Generally these shops are located near a motor-stand or a market place since these places are most frequented. The shops are generally handled, managed and owned by a single person. The equipment usually consists of two or three benches, some utensils and crude crockery. The urban establishments, on the other hand, have an agreeable appearance and are busy most of the time. They keep a variety of eatables and the stock is rapidly replaced on account of the rush. The furniture consists of chairs, tables and cupboards, depending upon the size of the establishment.

The city of Nagpur has much commercial activity. To meet the needs of the inhabitants of this well-developed city a number of establishments have sprung up. The 1951 census reveals that out of 2,612 persons engaged in hoteling in the district about 2,172, *i.e.*, about 83 per cent were in Nagpur city alone. Some modern and fashionable hotels and restaurants have clustered around the busy and fashionable areas of Nagpur, *e.g.*, the Sadar and the Sitabuldi. These are decently equipped and compare well with those of their kind in Bombay. But since there is no other city in the district, half as developed as that of the city of Nagpur, the fashionable restaurants and hotels are seen only in Nagpur city. Elsewhere establishments as described above are to be met with exhibiting the urban or rural characteristics as they happen to be located in the towns and cities or in the outlying rural areas.

Irani tea-shops which are scattered all over the city of Bombay are rarely to be met with in Nagpur city. On the other hand, the *Udipi* (South Indian) refreshment houses seem to be very popular and their keepers successfully compete with other refreshment houses.

A survey was conducted in order to obtain an idea about accessories, tools and equipment, position of labour, etc., in the occupation. The sample survey was restricted to a few establishments at Nagpur, Ramtek, Khapa, Umrer, Katol and Saoner and in some of the rural areas of the district. The fashionable and well-equipped restaurants and hotels stand apart in their pattern of income and expenditure. Their fixed and recurring expenditure is many times as much as that of the fairly big hotels and restaurants. The conclusions arrived at here are based on the survey of the small, medium and fairly big-sized shops which have generally spread everywhere. Fashionable hotels and restaurants are excluded as their inclusion would vitiate the average picture.

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Accessories and raw materials.

The accessories required are wheat flour, edible oils, *vanaspati ghee*, vegetables like potatoes and onions, spices, tea, sugar, eggs, etc. All these are purchased locally. The extent of consumption of these depends on the size of the establishment and is usually from about Rs. 1,000 per year in the case of the smallest rural type to about 25 to 30 thousand in the case of the fairly big establishments in urban areas.

Equipment.

The equipment required for a rural tea-shop is very simple and consists of some benches, a few utensils and some crude crockery which usually absorb capital worth a few hundred rupees. In the big establishments, furniture like chairs, tables, cupboards, utensils and decent crockery are often worth about ten thousand rupees. The urban establishments are usually better maintained than the rural ones.

Capital.

The capital required in these is fixed as well as working. The fixed capital mainly covers the tools and equipment and the money spent in acquiring accommodation (premises), etc. The working capital is allocated to the purchase of raw materials, payment of rent of the premises and other expenditure of a recurring nature. The fixed capital varied from Rs. 500 to Rs. 10,000 and the working capital from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 25,000. Capital was almost invariably raised through personal resources or borrowed from friends and relatives. The rate of interest paid was reported to be low.

Labour.

In small establishments, services such as the preparing and serving of tea and other things and maintaining the accounts are performed by the owner single-handedly and sometimes with the help of his family members. The number of persons employed depends upon the size of the establishment and the rush of the clientele. A large-sized establishment engages a number of employees, *e.g.*, for cooking, serving and attending, washing utensils and dishes, cleaning furniture and floor, etc. Generally cooks are better paid than all other categories of employees except the manager. The survey reveals that the cook was paid from Rs. 30 to Rs. 60 per month and others between Rs. 15 and Rs. 30 per month. Besides, employees are given meals, snacks and tea twice a day. Almost all the employees are found to be busy with some sort of work from morning till night besides their regular work. Considering the amount of work put in, the wages and other facilities offered by the employer appear to be unsatisfactory. This keeps the employees always in search of better jobs. The labour population is thus moving constantly.

Turnover.

The turnover mainly depends on the location of the establishment, the rush of the clientele, as also the special dishes offered and other attractions such as the services and general get-up of an establishment. In general it is from Rs. 500 to Rs. 2,000 a month.

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Income and Expenditure.

Income is made up of the charges paid by the customers. It has been found that the net income of an establishment varied between Rs. 100 and Rs. 1,000 per month. The income varies with the season. The turnover is dull during the rainy season and brisk during festivals and fairs and at harvest time.

Accessories, rent of the premises and wages constitute the main items of expenditure. Of these the raw materials account for the maximum in case of both the rural and urban establishments alike. On establishment, rural hotels spend a small proportion as compared to their urban counterpart. Most of the establishments are housed in rented premises, the rent varying between Rs. 10 and Rs. 200.

The rapid increase in the number of hotels and restaurants that has taken place in recent years indicates the profit margins in the occupation. The initial expenditure though heavy is not considered as a financial burden. The rising cost in general has affected this business as any other but the rates charged by them more than compensate for it and provide the owner with an incentive. The hotel-owners' association in the city looks after the interests of its members. The employees have not yet formed any union or association.

GOLD AND SILVER SMITHY.

This occupation is with us since times immemorial. Mohenjodaro remains show that even the women of those times were fond of ornaments. The human instinct of display which finds expression among the females more prominently in ornamenting themselves has continued throughout the years though decorative forms might have changed. This has provided the occupation with a persistent demand.

Nagpur city, a great commercial and trading centre, has naturally attracted more persons to this occupation as compared to the rest of the district. Hence the number of persons engaged in this occupation was larger in Nagpur city than anywhere else in the district. Out of the total number of 1,738 persons engaged in the occupation in 1951, 769, *i.e.*, about 44 per cent were in Nagpur city. In 1961, there were in the district 1,955 jewellers, goldsmiths and silversmiths. The proverbial craze of the women for gold (and other ornaments and jewellery) provides a sure basis for demand and during festivals and the marriage season the shopkeepers work round-the-clock to execute their orders in time.

The gold and silversmiths cannot be easily distinguished from the *sarafs* (shroffs) as some of the shopkeepers combine both the functions. The *sarafs* or shroffs sell precious metals and accept the ornaments and other jewellery on mortgage and give money in return. In olden days the occupation was restricted to the *sonar* community of the Hindus. The shops were also concentrated in a particular locality commonly known as *sonar ali*. These considerations still hold good in case of *sonar* shops. In case of *saraf* shops, however, with the passing of the years the

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occupational restrictions and the concentration of business in particular localities are no longer to be found. The occupation is now undertaken by those who have the requisite initiative and resources. The place is no longer determined, as formerly, by the caste and occupational restrictions. On the contrary, business and trade considerations and profitability determine the place of business. Of late there has been a tendency among the goldsmiths to have their establishments in the market area or any other important locality of the town in order to attract more customers. But as they are poor, the goldsmiths cannot afford to maintain their establishments in the market area. Some goldsmiths especially shroffs maintain shops in the market area where only orders are received and made ornaments delivered to the customers. Making and repairing of ornaments are carried at home or in a separate room in a less busy area and hired labour is engaged to carry out the job.

Most of the ornaments are for women and children. Men hardly ever use any ornaments beyond a ring or gold-buttons-set or occasionally a strap for their wrist-watch. In women's and children's ornaments, however, there is a wide variety. The old ornaments such as *Kambarpatta, bormal, chinch peti, chandrahar, galesar, thushi, goth, tode,* etc., have either gone out of vogue or have assumed a changed form. People now spend less on ornaments as compared to expenditure on other heads. This is either because of the economic reasons or due to changing ideas of investing money. Instead of using a number of ornaments at ane and the same time, women now prefer a set, *i.e.*, a necklace, bangles, earrings and a ring to match. The variety, however, has increased considerably in the recent years and names such as *sunanda har, bakul har, lappha,* etc., are more in vogue to-day.

Besides gold and silver ornaments, these shops make silver vessels and articles for show and also undertake engraving and plating work.

The establishments under this heading ranged from petty shops with a minimum of tools and hardly any equipment to other well-equipped establishments with an initial investment consisting of thousands of rupees. The shops may be broadly said to belong to three categories: (1) small-sized, (2) medium sized and (3) large-sized. The small sized establishments were mainly characteristic of the rural areas. These worked according to orders received and did not sell precious metals or keep ready articles for want of demand forthcoming easily. Again, the clientele of the rural areas was more or less stable and so the demand was limited. The medium and large-sized establishments were characteristic of the urban areas. These shops had show-cases and cupboards and a stock of precious metals and ready articles of jewellery was kept, the demand being more or

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less guaranteed in urban areas. These articles also served as patterns. The demand for these articles is on the whole on the decline. The small establishments have suffered greatly since people prefer to buy at the big shops because of the variety and guarantee offered. The demand is seasonal, festival time and marriage season being peak seasons. The seasons are not so marked in cities and towns because of the concentration of population in these areas and the trade and industrial activity of the town which provides easy money. In rural areas, however, people are mainly agriculturists and the demand is seasonal in a strict sense. At the harvest time, when people get cash in hand and the marriage season are the only seasons of any activity.

The initial capital outlay required was not much in case of establishments which did not keep ready articles. These only executed the orders received, the material being supplied by the customers. The equipment here was simple: the tools consisting of anvils, bellows, hammers, pincers, pots and crucibles, moulds and nails and other equipment for ornamental work. Precious metals, chemicals for purifying gold, polishing material, charcoal, etc., constituted other materials required. Other equipment consisted of a cupboard or two for keeping the finished articles and a bench or two for the customers. The cost of equipment ranged from Rs. 100 to Rs. 500. Ornaments are prepared at the shop mostly by the shopkeeper himself, or with the help of one of the family members. Any outside labour was rarely engaged. The medium and large-sized establishments required a higher initial outlay because they kept precious metals and ready jewellery articles for sale. Here *mangal sutra* beads, earrings, nose-rings, etc., were kept ready. These engaged hired labour and even an accountant or a manager. The initial outlay of the medium and large-sized establishments ranged from a few thousand to several thousand rupees.

The charges for making ornaments depended upon the type of metal used (gold or silver), its quantity and the skill required. These ordinarily ranged from Rs. 4 to Rs. 20 or Rs. 30. For articles requiring elaborate workmanship the charges even amounted to Rs. 100 for an article weighing (about 47 to 58 gm.) (four or five tolas of gold).

The labour charges paid were either on piece-rate or on time basis. On an average a skilled artisan was paid somewhere between Rs. 50 and Rs. 300 depending upon the skill and the amount of work done.

The business of shroffs is expanding everywhere and people generally prefer to buy or get their ornaments done from them. However, the business of the ordinary goldsmiths is on the decline except during festivals and marriage seasons and a good number of such establishments are found to be earning only a bare subsistence.

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Gold Control Rules, 1963.

The Gold Control Rules promulgated under the Defence of India Act have come into force since 10th January 1963. The Rules in the initial stages prohibited all dealings in gold and making of new ornaments of gold with a purity of more than 14 carats. These rules have seriously disturbed the occupation by putting a considerable number of goldsmiths out of employment and leaving the shroffs idle. The habit of buying gold is widespread in the country, the demand for gold being for traditional purposes such as for marriages as well as for hoarding and speculation. The age old habits and the demand for gold ornaments are hard to change. Gold ornaments of a purity permissible under the Rules are thus hardly in demand. A number of goldsmiths are gradually taking to other occupations. The Government is taking steps to rehabilitate the goldsmiths by providing facilities for training them in other crafts and extending financial assistance to them. The recent amendment in the Gold Control Rules makes provision for the remaking of gold ornaments already existing. This is expected to provide employment to the members who have not yet been able to shift to other occupations.

LAUNDERING.

Establishments belonging to this category provided livelihood to about 1,484 persons in 1951 of whom 92 were employers, 488 employees and 904 were independent workers. The following figures indicate the number of persons engaged in laundry services in the various census years covering a period of about 60 years:—

Census Year	*Persons engaged*
1901	3,032
1911	2,944
1921	2,302
1931	2,218
1941	Not available.
1951	1,484
1961	2,007

Establishments under this head can be divided into three categories, *viz.*: (1) the laundry shops, which are mostly found in towns where customers themselves bring their clothes to these shops for washing and take the delivery; (2) the dhobis—who themselves go from house to house to collect clothes for washing, wash and iron them at home and then deliver them back to the customers; and (3) similar persons who undertake only ironing of clothes brought by the customers. This category offers some competition to the dhobis. These establishments are seen doing their business in any space that gives shelter.

The laundry shops can be divided into three categories: (i) small, (ii) medium and (iii) large. These shops are increasingly capturing the business in the towns and cities. People show a marked preference for these because of efficient management, decent appearance and regular service. Some of the

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laundries undertake dyeing, darning and dry-cleaning. These shops generally cluster around busy places of the city. In the city of Nagpur, *Sitabuldi*, *Sadar*, *Dhantoli* and *Gandhi-bag* have some very decently equipped laundries. Two or three big cleaning houses are equipped with automatic washing machines. Most of the launderers engage dhobis for washing while ironing is mostly done by men engaged at the shops. Some of the laundries use electric irons.

The washermen or dhobis mentioned in the second category have to do very hard work. A dhobi walks a long distance in the scorching heat to collect the clothes. He has no other establishment for his business but his home. When gathered he takes the clothes to the *dhobi-ghat* (washing place for the dhobis). After washing he dries them up by spreading them in the open space nearby. He then gathers the clothes and brings them home and irons them. Once again he goes a long distance to deliver them to his customers. A dhobi is paid less than the laundry shops. His outmoded technique restricts his capacity for work and often he is seen living from hand to mouth.

Shops of the third category, *viz.*, those where only ironing is undertaken are run almost on the same lines as those of the second, except that people bring and take back their clothes.

Most of the dhobis belong to the Hindu *Parit* community while in case of laundry shops no such statement can be made. They are run by people with the necessary capital and business talent while the washing is mostly entrusted to hired labour. These shops have grown up rapidly in the recent past in response to the increasing demand. Because of the busy and round-the-clock routine in the cities people are seen to be freely patronising laundries to save themselves the time and trouble of washing their clothes.

The shops belonging to various categories and sizes—large, medium and small—surveyed revealed that most of such shops in the towns follow the pursuit as a principal or often as an exclusive means of livelihood. In rural areas the occupation is often combined with some other.

Accessories.

Soap, washing soda, bleaching powder, starch, indigo and tinopal are required for the purposes of washing and charcoal and fuel are required for ironing or steaming the clothes. These are all available locally. Some of these, *e.g.*, starch, tinopal or bleaching powder are not used in very small establishments in rural areas. Establishments engaged exclusively in ironing do not require anything beyond charcoal. The extent of the consumption of raw materials, is decided by the turnover of the individual establishment. The smallest type spends anything between Rs. 20 and Rs. 60 a month. In a medium-sized establishment the expenditure often ranges between Rs. 100 and Rs. 200. It may double itself with the growth in size or nature of the unit.

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Tools and Equipment.

The tools and equipment depend upon the nature and size of the establishment. A dhobi's or washerman's concern is usually a family one and has not much of special equipment besides a rack or a table or sometimes a bench which is kept aside for this purpose. Besides, tin tubs for steaming clothes, buckets for washing and a charcoal iron constitute his other equipment. All these together cost him about Rs. 50 to Rs. 75. The ironing units have only a crude ironing table and an iron by way of equipment.

The laundry shops are often located in busy areas. The smallest type has petty furniture which includes a table, a chair, a shelf and sometimes a cupboard all of an ordinary quality. A decent and large-sized unit often has show cases, tables, fans, etc. The medium sized units stand midway as regards tools and equipment. The expenditure on this head is found to range from Rs. 500 to Rs. 2,000 depending on the size of the establishment. It may be even higher in some cases. Besides, laundries have irons, their number depending upon the extent of the turnover. The cost of an ordinary iron varies between Rs. 15 and Rs. 25. Some of the laundries use electric irons which on an average cost about Rs. 50 to Rs. 70. Most of the laundries engage washermen for washing clothes. Only two or three laundries at Nagpur are found using electric washing machines which cost about Rs. 3,000.

Capital.

Capital investment in laundries mainly consists of tools and equipment. As revealed by the sample survey the owners of a majority of the establishments raised capital out of their own funds without resorting to borrowings and a few only borrowed from their friends or relatives and thus interest charges were nil or nominal in most cases. In laundries the turnover is effected on cash basis. Thus working capital can be easily recovered and replenished. Owing to this ease of finance, a number of persons have come forward to open laundries.

Labour

The entire family of a dhobi serves as a working unit. The profession provides employment to almost all members in one way or the other. Generally the men go to collect and return the clothes. Women help in washing. Children are given petty jobs. Ironing is mostly done by men. Dhobis generally work in the mornings and in the evenings but they are busy with some work or the other throughout the day. The laundries are found to operate during fixed hours in the morning as well as in the evening, except in the busy season when they may work for late hours. Most of the laundries engage dhobis for washing clothes, the number of persons engaged depending upon the extent of the business. The dhobis in most cases are paid on piece-rate basis, which generally comes to Rs. 6 for washing 100 clothes and Rs. 4 for ironing 100 clothes. Sometimes they are paid on a salary basis which comes to about Rs. 60 a month. Except a few concerns in Nagpur, other units in this category are not registered under the Shops and Establishments Act.

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The labour in such units hardly reaps the advantages of working overtime in the brisk season. Besides, the labour is not assured of stability. The only solace to them is that owing to their experience they may get employment in similar establishments.

Turnover.

Laundry services comprise washing and ironing clothes and articles like bed-sheets, curtains, etc. Some of the units provide for dry-cleaning, darning and minor repairs. Some laundries also provide for special washing which is usually charged at double rates while some offer delivery in 24 hours. The turnover depends on the size of the establishment. It is found to range between Rs. 150 and Rs. 1,500 a month. The laundering charges found in the district are as follows:—

		Rs. P.
Ordinary washing	...	0-15
Special washing	...	0-31
Silk clothes	...	0-40
Woollen pant	...	1-00
Woollen coat	...	1-50
Suit	...	3-00
Sari	...	1-00

Income and Expenditure.

Income comprises the laundering charges received from the customers. Expenditure consists of the rent paid, payment for raw materials and accessories, labour charges, etc. The irons generally last for a good many years after which they have to be replaced. A small expenditure is also incurred on repairs. Where washing machines are used expenditure under the repair and replacement head is heavy.

As revealed by the sample survey the gross turnover of a small laundry averaged from Rs. 100 to Rs. 175 per month. The net proceeds after meeting the expenses ranged between Rs. 60 and Rs. 100. A medium sized unit got net proceeds from Rs. 200 to Rs. 300 a month. The net earnings of a large-sized and well-equipped unit ranged between Rs. 350 and Rs. 800 a month.

In recent times people have become dress conscious. The habits of cleanliness among the people in general also have contributed to the rising demand for laundering services. This has made the establishment of laundries profitable. With the inception of laundries people have taken a fancy for them because of their regularity, efficiency and general decency. In that respect the dhobi has lost his direct contact with the customers. Even then, some of the dhobis are seen to be carrying on their business directly.

In villages, laundries are not to be met with frequently. The dhobi still holds his position. The dhobi because of his limited finance and outmoded methods has not succeeded in bettering his economic position. He often makes a precarious living. The laundries, however, are seen to be doing a profitable business.

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The tailor has since long been an indispensable unit of society. The tailoring shops appear to be fairly distributed all over the district. Even though the tailor has not crept into some of the very small villages, none the less, he is accessible to the villagers within a radius of a mile or two.

The conservative attitude of the tailors, their apathy regarding adoption of improved techniques of stitching, out-itting, etc., and the lack of business perspective altogether have worked to obstruct the progress of the profession. However, the shops in the cities have adopted the improved techniques.

In Nagpur district, the average shops in the mofussil are found using outmoded techniques and earning only their maintenance. In the city of Nagpur, however, there are quite a number of shops (mainly in *Sadar* and *Sitabuldi*) which employ improved techniques. These compare favourably with those of its kind in Bombay and are decently and attractively equipped with show-cases and other furniture, etc. Some of the tailors are found to add an income through some other means such as sale of cloth, seasonal articles, etc. The majority, however, have no means to supplement their income and lean exclusively on their earnings from the profession.

With the increasing demand the tailoring shops have multiplied rapidly in recent years. Some of the shops are handed down through generations. But a majority are set up recently as and when an opportunity presented. Formerly the profession was considered to be hereditary and was restricted to the *shimpi* community of the Hindus. During the last 50 years or so the hereditary nature of this occupation has receded into the background. This is particularly so in the cities where people follow any of the occupations which suits their skill and available capital, etc.

Size.

The tailor in a far-off village makes a precarious living. In a majority of cases he is unskilled. Besides, his out-dated mode of business and limited demand from the villagers keep his income at a low level. During marriage season and festivals he is found very busy but for the rest of the year and especially during the rainy season, he gets little work. In such cases, he often supplements his income through agriculture or through the sale of cloth or some other articles of common use which he keeps in his establishment. The village tailor mainly undertakes stitching of simple clothes such as a waist-coat, a *choli*, a petticoat (*parkar*), a shirt and a pyjama. The semi-skilled tailor is attracted to bigger villages or towns and undertakes to stitch shirts, pants, blouses, etc., among other things. Demands on him keep him fairly busy throughout the year. The skilled tailor operates in the big towns and is often a specialist in stitching gents', ladies' and children's wear.

The occupation has been an important avenue of employment since long. However, in recent years, the changing dress habits of the people, importance attached to sartorial belongings and the

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easy money which circulates in the hands of the people with the growth of the industrial and commercial activity have contributed to the growth of tailoring business and everywhere new tailoring shops are coming up.

The following figures give the number of persons engaged in the occupation:—

Year		Number of persons engaged in tailoring
1901	...	3,127
1911	...	2,998
1921	...	2,302
1931	...	2,746
1941	...	N.A.
1951	...	3,723
1961	...	7,275

Accessories.

Accessories mainly comprise thread, buttons, needles, canvas cloth, marking pencil or chalks, measure tape, etc. These are mainly bought locally. The amount spent on accessories varied with the size of the establishment and ranged from Rs. 5 to Rs. 150 per month.

Tools and Equipment.

The item of prime importance in this category is the sewing machine. Then comes a pair of scissors and an iron. Many a time, more than one sewing machines are used, the number depending upon the size of the shop and the demand from the clientele. A sewing machine generally costs anything between Rs. 250 and Rs. 500 and thus makes up the bulk of the expenditure. Those who cannot afford to buy a new sewing machine generally use a second-hand one. In the mofussil a mat or at times a wooden bench accommodates the waiting customers and a wooden box or two serve to keep the stitched clothes and left out pieces of cloth, etc. In medium sized tailoring shops which are characteristic of the small towns some wooden chairs for the customers and a small cupboard or a show-case constitute the equipment. In large-sized and very well equipped shops great stress is laid on the appearance and attractive arrangement of the shop. There are big show-cases where stitched clothes are hung for display. Sofas or chairs and fans make the customers comfortable.

The tailor in a small establishment works all alone. In a village it is customary for him to go to some selected houses to collect orders, take measures, receive cloth and then deliver the stitched clothes. In a town, however, the tailor is saved this trouble as the customers themselves visit the shops, place orders with him and come to take delivery. Then comes the main part of the work, *viz.*, cutting the cloth and sewing it. Cutting requires great skill, and on it depends the quality of the stitched clothes. In a small shop the tailor does everything single-handed. In medium

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and large-sized establishments the owner himself does the important job of cutting and sewing but making of the holes for buttons, etc., is entrusted to paid servants. The remuneration payable to the paid employees is generally fixed on a contract or piece-rate basis and in a few cases on salary-basis (in majority of cases it is half the value of the work done by him during a day). The amount payable to the paid employee generally averages to about Rs. 45 per month. During the brisk season the tailor occupies the sewing machine all the day and even for some time at night. At some places, mobile tailoring service is in vogue. The tailors visit the customers who engage their services and pay them according to the number of hours of work put in by them.

Turnover.

Shirts, pants, coats, waist-coats, blouses, etc., make the usual items of stitching. All the tailors cannot stitch with equal efficiency. Most of the tailors have hardly gone through specialised training in tailoring. The persons (especially in rural areas) intending to take up the profession serve as apprentice under an experienced tailor for a year or two. In towns, however, most of the tailors have a specialised training of some kind or the other. In the city of Nagpur a few tailors hold foreign diplomas in tailoring.

The average stitching charges in the mofussil are given below:—

Articles			Charges Rs.	Paise
Shirt (full)	..	..	1	00
Shirt (half)	..	..	0	75
Pant (full)	..	..	2	50
Pant (half)	..	..	1	50
Pyjama	..	..	0	50
Blouse	..	..	0	50
Choli	..	..	0	25
Coat	..	..	5	00

In urban areas the rates are almost double and sometimes even higher. A number of factors govern the tailor's output of work, *viz.*, situation of his shop, its urban or rural character, work available at the place and the tailor's capacity to work to the satisfaction of his customers. The sample survey revealed the value of the average daily output of work as amounting from Re. 1 to Rs. 5 in a village shop. In towns the average ranged between Rs. 5 and Rs. 15 while some of the big shops in Nagpur city had daily turnover of about Rs. 250 but these are rare cases.

Income and Expenditure.

Both rent and accessories occupy an important place in the expenditure pattern of the tailoring establishments. In a small village the tailor occupies a part of his residence or a corridor for his shop and this does not entail any expenditure on rent. Where rent is paid it ranges between Re. 1 and Rs. 5. In a town rent takes a big slice of expenditure and ranges from Rs. 5 to Rs. 25 usually but where the location of the place is decent and favours business it shoots up to Rs. 100 and even more.

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An equally important item of expenditure is repairs and renewals of sewing machines and iron. The sewing machines require repairing after full work for some time. Regular maintenance is necessary if the machines are to give good work. Expenditure on this item is of a recurring nature. After some years some renewals and replacement of some of the parts is necessary. This means quite a burden for the tailor. Thus making allowance for the expenditure incurred by a tailor by way of rent, repairs, accessories, etc., the net monthly income of a village tailor comes to anything between Rs. 40 and Rs. 100 and in a town about Rs. 100 and little more. Only where the tailor had a specialised training and a well-equipped shop the monthly earnings rise up to Rs. 250 and above.

The average tailor in the district has not been able to get out of his plight as the gain through the rise in the stitching charges is more than nullified by the rising cost of living and the tailor is left with no incentive. However, the tailoring shops in Nagpur city which are decently situated, well-equipped and managed by expert tailors are doing a flourishing business and earn good profits for the owners. Thus the average tailor has a wide horizon if he adopts the modern technique in tailoring and makes use of the fundamental principles of business in running his shop.

BAKERIES.

The importance of processed food is on the increase. With the growing complexities and quickening tempo of life, standardisation and processing of products and manufacture on a large scale have affected food products also. The old food taboos and practices are now almost extinct and food products which formerly people even shunned to think of are now bought without any hesitation. Bakeries were originally started to supply the needs of European officials and later on of a selected few among the local people who had begun to develop a taste for western habits. Soon these establishments became popular and spread to big villages and towns. The products are popular with all the strata of society. The poor and working people prefer them because they get cheap, substantial and ready food in the form of bread and butter biscuits. Middle and well-to-do classes relish the quality bread, biscuits and pastries. However, the processed food-stuffs have not altogether succeeded in becoming the main constituents of the daily food of an average Indian. In 1961, there were in the district 1,104 bakers, confectioners, candy and sweetmeat makers.

A bakery is comparatively of recent origin. It came with the Portuguese and became widespread with the British occupation of our country.

In most cases the business is not hereditary. The shops were started when suitable openings were found. These shops are seen to cluster round busy localities and market places. They sell their products both wholesale and retail; wholesale to the hotels and

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restaurants and retail to the individual customers. Sometimes they are attached to some hotels and restaurants. Some bakers go from door to door to sell their products while others have home delivery service.

Size.

The establishments under this head may be divided into three categories, *viz.*, small, medium and large sized. The division is based on the turnover, capital invested and income of the establishments. The small establishments are usually family concerns and have hardly any special staff except that which is necessary for running the business. These prepare cheap bread, butter biscuits, etc. The medium sized have a separate place for their business and some equipment such as oven, utensils, cupboards, etc., though of an ordinary type. The large sized establishments are decently equipped and undertake the preparation of good quality bread, biscuits, pastries, etc. These are located in the vicinity of elite localities and use modern equipment such as electric oven, vans, etc.

Raw Materials and Accessories.

The raw materials required for these establishments were wheat-flour, sugar, yeast, butter, flavouring essences, eggs, etc. All these were purchased locally, mostly on wholesale basis. The extent of consumption of these depended on the size of the establishment and the demand for the products. Fuel charges also constituted a major part on the expenditure schedule. On an average the expenditure ranged between Rs. 90 and Rs. 300 a month in case of small establishments, between Rs. 300 and Rs. 600 in case of medium sized and between Rs. 600 and over in large sized establishments.

Tools and Equipment.

The equipment consisted of an oven with its accessories such as metal sheets, moulds, iron rods, etc., vessels and big plates to prepare dough and cupboards to keep the baked stuff.

Usually the small establishments have furniture and utensils of very ordinary type. The medium sized establishments have about the same equipment, only that they are somewhat decent. The large sized establishments have big show-cases where pastries, biscuits, etc., are kept attractively. The cost of an oven is from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,500 depending on its size. The total expenditure under this head was found to range between Rs. 600 and Rs. 4,000.

Capital.

The fixed capital required consists of tools and equipment. The working capital comprises the rent of the shop, expenditure on raw materials, fuel charges, electricity, etc. The expenses on rent ranged from Rs. 10 to Rs. 100 per month depending upon the size of the establishment.

Labour.

The process of manufacturing bread is not a complicated one. Wheat-flour is mixed with water and thus dough is prepared, a ferment, usually yeast, is added to the dough and then the dough is kept in a warm place to ferment. After a few hours the dough apportioned in suitable sizes is kept in moulds in an oven and baked and thus bread is prepared. Thus, it can be seen that the

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job requires little skill except where pastries, biscuits and other dainties are prepared. The small establishments are many a time managed single-handed. In other cases the members of a family together run the establishment. Where outside labour was engaged the labour charges were found to range between Rs. 40 and Rs. 100 per month depending upon the nature of job to be undertaken. Thus an unskilled worker is paid Rs. 1.50 a day while a baker is paid twice as much. The number of persons engaged depended upon the size of the establishment and the demand for the product. The largest establishment engaged about five to six persons while the smallest hardly a person or two.

Turnover.

The products of a bakery include bread, hard biscuits, cakes, biscuits (salted and sweet), toasts, etc. Usually the rates are standardised. Bread of different sizes is sold at 6, 12, 15 or 37 Paise a loaf; cakes usually at 12 Paise each and even more when of good quality, biscuits are sold at about 75 Paise to Re. 1 a pound (about .454 kg.). The demand for these products is almost steady throughout the year, a little less, if at all, during the rainy season. The average turnover ranged between Rs. 100 and Rs. 450 per month or even more depending upon the size.

Income and Expenditure.

The income of these establishments comprises the receipts after selling the products. Expenditure consists of the amount spent on raw materials, rent, labour charges, if any, fuel and electricity, etc. The tools and utensils generally last for ten to fifteen years after which they have to be replaced. This means a major item on the expenditure side. The sample survey disclosed that the average annual expenditure of these establishments ranged somewhere between Rs. 1,200 and Rs. 5,000. The total annual receipts were found to range between Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 8,500. Thus the annual net income was found to range between Rs. 800 and Rs. 3,500 to Rs. 4,000 and even more in a few cases.

Bakeries have developed greatly during recent years. These establishments have tremendous scope these days when ready food products are widely in demand. At present most bakeries use ordinary ovens. Since the business is in food products clean handling and decent appearance of the shops will certainly help towards an increase in the business.

FLOUR MILLS.

The total number of persons engaged under this category were 373 according to the 1951 census. The flour mills which grind grains into flour are also found to combine husking and grinding a number of other commodities, *e.g.*, chillis, turmeric, salt, soap pods, etc. The charges vary from commodity to commodity. Flour mills are of recent origin. Formerly, women used to grind grains and other things with grinding stone wheels in their own houses. The women of the well-to-do families usually hired labour for this purpose. Grinding at home entailed co-operation on the part of the house-wives. It was often undertaken in the early hours of the morning probably to make it less tiresome and was accompanied by simple melodious Marathi songs called *ovis*.

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The passing years have brought about a change in the whole picture. Flour mills have come on the scene and the domestic responsibility of the former days is no longer regarded as necessary. With the introduction of oil engines in the early years of this century flour mills came to be established. Again with the changing life, the people readily gave up the time consuming and laborious task of grinding at home. This increased the demand for flour mills. With the development of power energy which led to the introduction of electric engines in the process after the World War I, the number of these mills increased appreciably. They have now become a common sight in the villages as well as in towns.

The following figures show the number of persons engaged in pounding, rice husking and flour grinding as detailed in the Census reports covering a period of last 60 years (1901 to 1961):—

Year (1)	Total number of persons engaged (2)	Men (3)	Women (4)
1901..	1,422	95	1,327
1911..	758	64	694
1921..	233	30	203
1931..	179	111	68
1941..	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1951..	373	352	21
1961..	1,092	1,007	85

The total number of persons engaged in the occupation has diminished with the establishment of the flour mills. Again, when grinding and husking was done at home with grinding wheels the women outnumbered the men engaged in it. This position has been almost reversed with the establishment of flour mills when the industry has been separated from home.

The flour mills are often small units catering to the customers of the nearby locality. These are not concentrated in any one locality but are found scattered all over the localities since the customers prefer to have them close at hand.

In some cases these are one man establishments, the owner himself doing all the work. In other cases the owner with the help of an employee runs the mill. Very few of the mills employ more than one person in addition to its owner. With few exceptions the employers follow it as a principal occupation. The business can be said to be steady throughout the year. It is brisk in the dry season when people bring chillis, turmeric, crystal salt, etc., in large quantities to the mills for grinding them and then for storing them for the rains. In villages where there are no flour mills people have to go to the nearby bazar-place for grinding grains.

The income of these establishments consists of the charges received for grinding or husking as the case may be. The expenditure can be grouped under two heads: (i) capital and (ii) recurring. The capital expenditure includes the cost of installation of

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grinding machines which are run either with oil or with electricity. The oil engine, electric motor, a pair of grind-stones and other equipment costs from about Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 7,000. The electric machines require a smaller initial outlay. They can be installed on a smaller area and labour power required to work them is also small. Their use however is conditioned by the availability of electric power. The mills which do husking and polishing of rice and pounding or crushing of pulses use special machines known as hullers and crushers. For preparing flour only grinding machine is necessary.

The recurring expenditure includes the charges for rent, labour, electricity, fuel and the wear and tear of the machinery. In the case of oil engines, frequent rehauling and oiling are necessary. The grinding wheel usually lasts for six to ten months when it requires to be replaced. The repairing charges vary from Rs. 150 to Rs. 400 per year. Again, the grinding-stone requires frequent roughening.

Some of the mills are housed in temporary sheds, others in *kutcha* houses and a few in well-built buildings. The rent varies accordingly and is usually between Rs. 5 and Rs. 20.

Some of the owners of such establishments are helped by the family members. Labour charges, therefore, as an item on the expenditure schedule should be considered only in those cases where outside labour is employed. Men, women and children are hired for work and the labour charges paid vary accordingly from Rs. 15 to Rs. 40 per month.

The net earnings of the owner range from Rs. 60 to Rs. 180 per month. In certain cases it even amounts to Rs. 250 per month. These earnings include the wages of the owners working in them.

PAN AND BIDI SHOPS.

Pan and *bidi* are enjoyed all over the district as everywhere else in India and in all strata as well. In Northern India where the cultural life of the people bears a clear Muhammedan impress *pan*-chewing and *hukka* smoking form a regular feature of the life of the people. Even women chew *pan* regularly. In other places, however, *pan*-chewing is not so common among the average population and is rare among women. Common people chew *pan* occasionally, *viz.*, on festive occasions or after heavy meals. Among others, *pan*-chewing, smoking and snuffing are widespread.

The following figures show the extent of employment provided by this occupation during the past 50 years:—

Year			Persons supported by the occupation
1911	...	...	697
1921	...	...	1,274
1931	...	...	374
1941	...	...	N.A.
1951	...	...	1,912
1961	...	...	2,816

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Situation and Size.

The above figures since they include, besides employment in *pan* and *bidi* shops, a number of other heads such as dealers in tobacco, etc., give only a rough picture about employment in *pan* and *bidi* shops.

Pan and *bidi* shops are fairly distributed in all the towns and also in all villages except those which have a very small population. In bazar places and near entertainment corners they have a flourishing business. Some of these shops are merely extensions of hotels and restaurants while others carry the business independently. Most of these establishments can hardly be termed as shops because of their size. These hardly occupy a foot-board beside some shop and have minimum of equipment consisting of small wooden cupboards or racks hung on to a wall. In spite of their situation and their equipment these establishments are not void of any decoration. Most of these have mirrors and pictures of some deities and popular film stars calculated to please their customers. A time-piece is often kept. The polished brass bowls for *chuna* and *kath* and the brass plate where betel-leaves are arranged while *pan* is made add to the decoration. All the articles are perfectly arranged to fit them in the compact space available. Many a time a number of other articles of everyday use are also kept for sale at these shops. These articles include postage stamps, envelops, kites, match-boxes, etc. The shop-keepers through practice become so dexterous in preparing the *pan* that they often create among their customers a preference for their *pan* only.

Accessories.

Of the raw materials betel-leaves are purchased from the local agents. Ramtek tahsil of the district produces fine quality betel-leaves which are not only supplied throughout the district but are also in great demand outside. Betel-nut and tobacco are imported in the district from outside. Betel-nut, tobacco, lime or *chuna*, catechu or *kath*, cloves and other spices are usually bought from the local dealers. In Nagpur, Khapa and Kamptee are important *bidi*-making centres. *Bidis* from these centres are bought all over the district. Some of the *pan-bidi* shops buy *tembhurni* leaves and prepare *bidis* for themselves. The value of the purchases of these shops is difficult to assess and depends on the number of goods kept for sale at these shops. A number of these shops sell betel-leaves, betel-nut, catechu, *chuna*, *bidis*, cigarettes, snuff and some other articles of daily use described above. The extent of monthly purchases made by such shops can be said to run usually between Rs. 200 and Rs. 400. A number of establishments incur even more expenses and are seen to be doing flourishing business. Small shops restrict their scope to their original character and their monthly purchases are seen to range somewhere between Rs. 70 and Rs. 100.

Tools and Equipment.

The tools and equipment of these shops are very simple and include nut-crackers, containers for various articles, pots for *chuna* and *kath* and similar other things necessary for the purpose. The

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size of the shop is so small that it hardly admits of any big furniture. The nature of the occupation is such that it does not demand any costly installation or equipment. At big towns a few shops are maintained up-to-date and equipped with modern amenities, *e.g.*, a radio-set and a tube light. The amount absorbed in tools and equipment differs according to the size of the shop.

A majority of the shops in the district are small-sized and possess tools and equipment worth hardly Rs. 200. In a few big shops, however, the investment in tools and equipment is much more and varies between Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,000. Such up-to-date shops are to be met with in *Sadar*, *Sitabuldi* and *Gandhibag* areas of Nagpur city.

Capital.

As seen above the *pan-bidi* shops do not require much fixed capital. Most of the business is effected on cash basis and thus it does not involve locking-up of capital. The recurring capital expenditure incurred in buying raw materials is, therefore, recovered quickly. As capital is not locked-up borrowing is very rarely resorted to. Borrowings, wherever they exist, are very small and are repaid easily. Whenever necessary the shopkeepers buy their supplies on credit or approach their relatives and friends for the necessary funds.

Labour.

Pan-bidi establishments do not provide employment worth mentioning. Often they are managed single-handed. Where the shop manages to make *bidis* by itself, it is found to employ a few persons on a piece-rate basis. The labourer, in such cases, makes on an average 400 to 500 *bidis* a day and earns about Re. 0.75 to Re. 1 a day. The rate of payment being Rs. 2 per thousand *bidis*. The shops are open from morning till evening and in busy places as late as ten or eleven at night.

Income and Expenditure.

The income of these establishments consists of the receipts of these shops from the sale of its goods. Units which are engaged in manufacturing *bidis* number a few in the district. Excepting these shops, the turnover consists of *pan* of different varieties, *e.g.*, ordinary, special, etc., *bidis*, cigarettes, matches, etc., all on retail basis. A single transaction often amounts to ten paise. Every transaction adds a small amount towards the turnover. Yet the total turnover is not at all discouraging. It averages between Rs. 5 and Rs. 30 a day depending on the situation of the shop. The net margin earned by the shopkeepers varies between Rs. 2.50 and Rs. 10 to Rs. 12 a day. On the expenditure side the main item is the purchase of raw materials. This depends on the extent of the business but almost amounts to three-fourths of the expenditure. Rent is the next important item of expenditure. The amount spent on rent is quite high in relation to the size of the establishment and often ranges somewhere between Rs. 5 and Rs. 25. The shopkeepers ungrudgingly pay the rent because of the situation and the return they expect. The space near a cinema house, a bazar or any other public place fetches a higher rent. Labour charges do not feature prominently on the expenditure side, for, most of the establishments are managed single-handed.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

PAN AND BIDI SHOPS.

The remunerative nature of the occupation is well reflected by the increase in the number of shops at almost all the important places in a village or a town. A number of factors favour this occupation, *viz.*, small capital requirements, tidy size of the establishment, quick return on the investment and lastly ease of operation. All these factors attract an increasing number to the occupation. Further, chewing *pan* and smoking are becoming increasingly fashionable among the people day-by-day. The occupation, has, therefore, a wide opening.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

A fairly large number of the working population is engaged in public administration. The following census figures broadly include police, persons engaged in defence services, persons employed both by the State and Union Governments, employees of municipalities and other local bodies, village officials and village watchmen. Persons following learned professions, *e.g.*, medicine, law and education, even though employed by Government are returned under separate heads. While comparing the following figures it is necessary to bear in mind the fact that the basis of classification varied from census to census though to a small degree.

TABLE No. 2.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, NAGPUR DISTRICT.

Occupation	1911		1931		1951	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Police	1,213	8	2,437	16	1,557	12
Service of the State ..	2,223	48	4,242	60	9,149	401
Municipal and other local services.	796	61	1,152	298	2,078	208
Village officials, servants other than watchmen.	416	30	270	..	1,392*	26
Village watchmen ..	2,025	105	1,466	16	..	..
Army	1,376	14	907	..	33	1
Total ..	8,049	266	10,474	390	14,209	648

TABLE No. 3.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1961.

Category	Men	Women	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Police	3,480	25	3,505
Municipal and other local services	3,108	401	3,509
Administrative Departments of the State Government.	8,332	286	8,618

*Village officials including village watchmen.

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Miscellaneous Occupations.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

However, the figures definitely reveal the broad picture of a steady increase. The rise in the number is in keeping with the expansion of the Government activities. It is directly the result of the fact that the Government has gradually changed its character from the Police State to the Welfare State. A number of services for the convenience and welfare of the public are undertaken by the Government and local bodies. The present activities require an elaborate system than required formerly.

The pay scales, terms of service and methods of recruitment with regard to Government servants are regulated under the State Service Rules and are uniform throughout the State. The local bodies have their own rules and regulations under the supervision of the State Government.

ARTS, LETTERS AND SCIENCES.

The census returns under this head show a small number of persons. A number of small groups are included under this broad category. The following tables show the number of persons following various occupations of this class as their principal means of livelihood:—

TABLE No. 4.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN ARTS, LETTERS AND SCIENCES, NAGPUR DISTRICT.

Occupations (1)	1911 Men (2)	1911 Women (3)	1931 Men (4)	1931 Women (5)	1951 Men (6)	1951 Women (7)
1. Musicians, singers, actors and dancers etc.	2,502	156	2,573	68	2,018	70
2. Architects, engineers, and surveyors.	*542	91	41	..	8	16
3. Public scribes and stenographers.	2	1	3	..	88	..
4. Authors, artists, astronomers, astrologers, editors, journalists, image makers, photographers and sculptors, etc.	112	37	195	16	241	7
Total ..	3,158	285	2,812	84	2,355	93

TABLE No. 5.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN ARTS, LETTERS AND SCIENCES, NAGPUR DISTRICT, 1961.

Occupations (1)	Men (2)	Women (3)	Total (4)
1. Musicians, singers, actors and dancers, etc. ..	1,406	40	1,446
2. Architects, engineers and surveyors.. ..	1,083	2	1,085
3. Typists and stenographers	656	94	750
4. Authors, artists, astronomers, astrologers, editors, journalists, image makers, photographers and sculptors, etc.	2,283†	92†	2,375†
Total ..	5,428	228	5,656

*Architects, engineers and surveyors and their employees.

†Includes, painters, decorators and commercial artists, musicians and related workers.

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Miscellaneous Occupations.

ARTS, LETTERS AND SCIENCES.

The table reveals that there is a decrease in the number of musicians, dancers, actors, etc., and architects, engineers and surveyors. The number of public scribes, stenographers, authors, astrologers, etc., shows an increase. On the whole the numbers reveal a decrease.

LAW.

Along with the general increase in the educational standards the number of persons taking to law shows a considerable increase in recent years. Law colleges have been opened at most of the district towns in the State. Every year an increasing number of persons become law graduates. However, the legal profession does not seem to absorb them all. In 1951 there were 1,058 law graduates in the district of whom 481 were lawyers. A number of these graduates take to jobs in Government, or as Labour Officers in various industrial concerns. Formerly, a law graduate essentially followed the legal profession and within little time established himself well. Now there are already a number of practitioners in the field which leaves little scope for the new comers. Most of the lawyers take to specialisation on the criminal side, where the incidence of crime is not expected to lessen unless the basic human values undergo a radical change. In fact the increased population and its concentration in certain parts and the complex life of the recent times have led to an increase in the number of crimes involving individuals, such as theft, murder, robbery, etc.

The legal profession includes lawyers of all kinds including *kazis*, law agents and *mukhtiars*, lawyers' clerks, petition writers, etc. The 1881 census does not record any number belonging to these groups in Nagpur district. The 1911 census reports 209 lawyers, *kazis*, etc., and 175 lawyers' clerks and petition writers. The 1931 census records 188 lawyers and 122 lawyers' clerks and petition writers. The 1951 census records a great increase in the number following the occupation, *viz.*, 481 lawyers (including five women) and 1,089 clerks of lawyers, petition writers, etc. In 1961* there were about 185 pleaders, 258 advocates and seven barristers in the district. Of these, 150 pleaders, 250 advocates and seven barristers were residing and practising at Nagpur; 10 pleaders and three advocates in Katol; 13 pleaders and one advocate in Saoner; six pleaders and one advocate in Ramtek and six pleaders and three advocates in Umrer. In the same year there were three women lawyers in the district. In Nagpur city, in addition to the courts of the District Judge, Assistant Judge and Extra-Assistant Judge there were nine courts of Civil Judges, one Small Causes court and four courts of Judicial Magistrates. At Katol, Saoner, Ramtek and Umrer each, there were two courts, one of the Civil Judge and the other of the Judicial Magistrate. Of bar associations there were six in all. The two associations at Nagpur were registered and the remaining four, one each at Katol, Saoner, Ramtek and Umrer were all unregistered.

*Information received from the District Judge, Nagpur.

The average monthly income of a lawyer varies between Rs. 250 and Rs. 600. It runs into thousands in the case of those lawyers who have made a name for themselves.

MEDICINE.

Nagpur city has for long been a trade centre and a capital city (of Madhya Pradesh for many years). It thus received special attention in many ways. With the spread of western ideas the local medical knowledge and methods of treatment lost hold on people's minds. A need for training in modern medical science was felt. A number of modern and well-equipped medical institutions, therefore, cropped up during the last half a century or so, some with the Government funds and others with funds provided by voluntary and social organisations.

The Government Medical College at Nagpur is fairly big and provides various facilities. Besides, the Government maintains a number of hospitals and institutions at Nagpur, *viz.*, The Mayo Hospital, The Daga Memorial Hospital, the Muir Memorial Hospital, The Mental Hospital, The Government Vaccine Institute, The Government Tuberculosis Clinic, etc. The district has three centres for training in family planning run at Saoner, Kelod and Nagpur. Family planning centres are run at Narkhed, Mauda, Kelod, Kalmeshwar and Kuhi. There are about 20 subsidised medical practitioners' centres and seven primary health centres in the district. A number of municipal dispensaries are run at various places in the district. The number of private practitioners is rising constantly. The population of the district has thus a fairly easy approach to the modern medical treatment.

The following census figures show the changing composition and the growth in the number of members belonging to the medical profession.

TABLE No. 6.

NUMBER OF PERSONS BELONGING TO MEDICAL PROFESSION, NAGPUR DISTRICT.

Year	Medical practitioners of all kinds including dentists, occulists and veterinary surgeons.		Midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, etc.	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1911	304	56	140	862
1921	275	24	40	577

TABLE No. 6

NUMBER OF PERSONS BELONGING TO MEDICAL PROFESSION, NAGPUR DISTRICT—*concld.*

Year	Registered medical practitioners including occulists		Other persons following healing art		Dentists		Midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, etc.	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1931..	121	18	315	18	..	..	110	770
1941*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1951..	645	56	106	5	8	..	325	550

Year	Physicians, surgeons and dentists†		Nurses, pharmacists and other technicians	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1961	401	96	1,122	1,113

The above census figures reveal some peculiar features. Being good nurses by their very nature women have outnumbered men in the last group (*viz.*, midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, etc.) throughout the census years. In the census reports of 1911 and 1921 medical practitioners of all kinds including dentists, occulists and veterinary surgeons are grouped together. The Central Provinces and Berar Medical Registration Act, 1916, provided for the registration of qualified allopathic medical practitioners. The 1931 census report records separately registered medical practitioners including occulists, other persons following the healing art without being registered and dentists. In 1947 the Central Provinces and Berar Ayurvedic and Unani Practitioners' Act was passed. This Act brought the practitioners of the Indian systems of medicine also under registration. The 1951 census shows, therefore, a marked rise in the number of medical practitioners. The census figures show a gradual increase in the number of persons following the medical profession throughout the census years.

With the spread of literacy and the modern knowledge in medicine, the advantages of approaching a doctor in case of illness are now more visible to the general public. People no

*Figures are not available.

†Including allopathic, ayurvedic and others.

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MEDICINE.

longer hesitate to approach a doctor in case of illness. The medical practitioners have, therefore, a busy time. Some of the practitioners carry on general practice while others specialise in various branches of the medical science. The earnings of the members of this profession depend on a number of factors such as practising in a rural area or at an urban centre; specialised or general practice, etc., and the most important of all, the ability of the individual practitioner in diagnosing the disease and winning the good will and confidence of the patients. A medical practitioner in the district earns between Rs. 250 and Rs. 700. A larger monthly income is commonly earned in cities and in the case of specialists in the field it is far higher. Everywhere doctors are doing very well within short time. A number of practitioners acquire a property and a car has, now-a-days, become almost a necessity for a medical man.

The profession has a strict code of ethics for its members. A doctor is expected to place his patient's interest above all.

EDUCATIONAL SERVICES.

As the census figures indicate, more and more persons are engaged in educational services as compared to legal and medical professions. The 1881 census records 61 men and 10 women under this profession. In 1911 there were 773* men and 142* women. After two decades, *i.e.*, in 1931 the number stood at 1,150 men and 196 women. By 1951 the number had more than doubled. The 1951 census records 2,295 men and 417 women. According to 1961 census there were in the district 8,241 persons under this profession, including 5,967 men and 2,274 women.

In 1961 there were 982 primary schools in the district of which, 336 were in urban areas. The primary teachers numbered 2,888 of whom 966 were women. There were 17 training colleges for primary teachers, one vocational high school, 83 special schools, 78 middle schools and 135 high schools.

The Nagpur University was established in 1923 and six colleges were affiliated to it to start with. Originally the territorial jurisdiction of the University extended over the Central Provinces and Berar. At present, however, the jurisdiction extends to the eight districts of Vidarbha only. In all, about 40 colleges from these districts are affiliated to the University. Of these twelve are arts colleges; two science colleges; three commerce colleges, two agriculture colleges; one engineering college; seven training colleges and institutes; one veterinary college and one college of architecture. Besides, the University conducts three colleges of its own at Nagpur, one each for engineering, law and training of secondary teachers.

*The figures include clerks and servants connected with education.

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EDUCATIONAL SERVICES.

The phenomenal increase in the educational facilities provided in recent times is a direct result of private efforts and efforts by the State and Central Governments in this field. With the introduction of compulsory and free primary education and free educational facilities at all levels to students the income of whose parents does not exceed Rs. 1,800 a year, education is taken to the doors of rich and poor alike. It may also be said that more attention is being paid to technical and vocational education in recent times.

In respect of both earnings and qualifications the class as a whole shows definite improvement as compared with those in the past with the revision of their pay scales from time to time and insistence on trained teachers and minimum qualifications. However, in spite of these recent efforts, on an average a teacher has to add to his income through some other source. In rural areas, he is generally found to derive his subsidiary income from agriculture or from sale of some useful articles, *e.g.*, stationery, etc. In urban areas, however, he derives his subsidiary income from tuitions and writing of text books, guides, etc.

There is also a great change in the status enjoyed by this class and their morale. Formerly most of the members of this class pursued this profession with a spirit of self-sacrifice for the good of the community and for the uplift of the society irrespective of their personal gain. A number of examples can be cited to prove this. The class thus enjoyed an honoured position in the society. The standards have now deteriorated to some extent. Generally teachers today are not in possession of ideals which their forerunners a generation ago possessed nor do the students of today hold their teachers in the same respect as their counterparts used to do a generation ago. Government has, therefore, started the practice of honouring great people in this field. Special days like *Shikshak Din* are observed to inculcate a high respect for this class.

RELIGIOUS PROFESSIONS.

Religion had been a full-time occupation and the main source of income for many persons in the past in Nagpur district as everywhere else in the country. The family priest was a respected person both in urban and in rural areas. He was considered an advisor and was also a chief participant in all the important events of a family, *viz.*, births, marriages and deaths, etc. He used to carry on the daily worship and propitiated the deities for his patron. In short, he acted as an intermediary between members of the family and the family deity. The priests attached to important temples were entrusted with the *inam* estates attached to the temples. The class as a whole enjoyed a high status and its services were indispensable for the religious minded people of those days. This class as a rule was doing well and a number of them amassed a fortune as family priests, *kirtankars* and *puraniks*. Some of them were well-versed in the religious scriptures and interpreted the religious teachings in their true spirit.

RELIGIOUS PROFESSIONS.

However, there has been a gradual decline in the importance of the priests and also in their status. The consequent decline in their number in the district is indicated by the following census figures pertaining to the number of persons engaged in religious professions in Nagpur district. Of such persons, the most numerous are the priests, ministers or religious medicants, *mullahs* and *kazis*.

Year (1)	Men (2)	Women (3)	Total (4)
1911	2,820	632	3,452
1921	2,226	569	2,795
1931	1,895	74	1,969
1941	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1951	676	63	739
1961	1,074	69	1,143

Spread of western education and the growing scepticism among people have prompted them to question many of the religious practices prevalent so far and people have now less and scanty respect for tradition. It is not the spread of modern ideas that is alone responsible for the diminishing fortunes of this class but also a gradual decline in the intellectual and moral standards among its members. The class as a whole has failed to reinstate the growing disbelief in spiritual matters consequent upon the advance of materialistic ideas.

All this has not only adversely affected the number of persons following this profession which is ever on the decline but also their status. The occupation is no longer hereditary and the younger generation is found to give it up for some other occupation. Even the priests try to find some other occupation to supplement their meagre incomes which amount from Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 per month in rural areas and from Rs. 30 to Rs. 70 in urban areas.

DOMESTIC SERVICES.

Persons in this category can be classified as rural domestic servants and their urban counterparts. Except in a few rich families, employment in rural areas is generally seasonal, domestic servants being employed during the agricultural seasons. Sometimes a worker is employed by an *inamdar* or a landlord in return for the monetary help previously given to him. Domestic servants in rural areas are usually paid in cash as well as in kind according to the services performed. In rural areas, the avenues of employment are limited and the tendency is to stick to a family and not to change employment now and then. This is both the cause and the consequence of the personal and intimate ties subsisting among the rural people. Many a time, generations of such servants are in the employ of the same families and they are considered and treated as family members.

DOMESTIC SERVICES.

The following figures indicate the number of domestic servants in Nagpur district for the census years from 1911 to 1961:—

Year (1)	Men (2)	Women (3)	Total (4)
1911	5,375	2,153	7,528
1921	9,472	3,030	12,502
1931	6,537	2,218	8,755
1941	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1951	4,316	1,791	6,107
1961	4,254	3,588	7,842

The rise in the number of domestic services in the period from 1911 to 1921 can be explained by the rise in employment consequent upon the World War I. People could then afford to employ a domestic servant or two. The subsequent decrease since 1921 to 1961 can be explained by a variety of causes. Growing industrialisation in the inter-war and post-war periods has provided an alternative for domestic service and many a time domestic servants choose to work in mills and factories for better pay and advantages of labour unions. Besides the possibility of alternative employment, the increasing awakening among the domestic servants has helped them to bargain with their employers for higher remuneration and better working conditions. The rising demands of the domestic servants and the rising cost of living have made people self-reliant.

The census figures in respect of this category broadly include, cooks, water carriers, coachmen, car-drivers, door-keepers, watchmen and other indoor servants. These are mainly employed in rich and well-to-do families. The cooks are of two types—those who serve regularly in private houses and those who are employed on special occasions, *e.g.*, festivals and marriage ceremonies. The latter are generally male cooks and are paid highly (*viz.*, from Rs. 5 to Rs. 10 per day), payment depending on the skill and the amount of work. Almost all of these are experts in cooking. Many of the cooks who serve regularly in private houses are women. They are paid in cash and are also given meals. They get from Rs. 20 to Rs. 35 per month as remuneration. The water-carriers fetch water. The indoor servants are employed for cleaning utensils, washing clothes and a number of odd jobs connected with the household. The duties of door-keepers, watchmen and car-drivers are obvious.

In urban areas, two distinct classes of domestic servants are to be met with. The one employed as full-time servants are paid between Rs. 10 and Rs. 30 a month depending upon the class of the family in which they are employed. Besides, they are also provided with meals, clothing and some place to lie down. This payment in kind compensates for the loss incurred in attaching themselves full-time to a single family. The other category includes servants employed in part-time capacity.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

These are entrusted with specific jobs. Their earnings vary between Rs. 25 and Rs. 50 depending upon the number of families in which they secure employment.

DOMESTIC SERVICES.

The earnings of domestic servants as a class have risen during the last few years. However, their living conditions are far from satisfactory. Most of them live in single room tenements exposed to rain and heat. Their poor food and clothes are sufficient indication of their sub-standard existence.

CINEMA HOUSES.

The growing popularity of films in recent times has led to the appearance of cinema houses throughout the length and breadth of the district. The city of Nagpur has at present 21 cinema houses and two theatres for plays and other cultural programmes. The tahsil places and other towns in the district have each at least one cinema house. The seasonal theatre along with its paraphernalia operates either in a tent or in a shed at big villages.

The main hands required in this business are the manager, the booking clerk, door-keepers, projector operators, painters, watchmen and other manual workers. The number engaged depends upon the size of the audience. In small units a single person often handles different jobs such as management, booking, etc.

The nature of work is such that no special training is involved. A little knowledge of accounts is necessary for the accounts clerk and the manager and some apprenticeship for running the projector. Payment to the different categories of employees is often found to be inadequate. The average daily earnings of employees in cinema houses in Nagpur city showing daily three shows were found to be as follows:—

Manager Rs. 6.10; Accountant Rs. 3.40; Booking clerk Re. 1.50; Door-keeper Re. 0.80; Head operator Rs. 3.12; Assistant operator Rs. 2.30; Painter Rs. 1.35 and Watchman Rs. 1.15.

Generally towns with a population of 20,000 and below have only two shows per day. In the city most of the cinema houses have three shows. In the absence of fixed scales, wages are regulated by the management. However, in the city the conditions are improving. The workers have organised into two unions, *viz.*, the Vidarbha Cinema Kamgar Union and the Rashtriya Cinema Kamgar Sangh.

The ever-increasing popularity of films offers a secured patronage to the business. Majority of the cinema houses in the city are observed to play house-full shows. The business leaves for proprietors a considerable margin of profit.

CHAPTER 9—ECONOMIC TRENDS

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

THIS CHAPTER DEALS WITH THE STANDARD OF LIVING OF THE PEOPLE in urban and rural areas. Besides, it also attempts to envisage economic prospects of the district in various fields of economic activity. The chapter is divided into two sections:—(I) standard of living, and (II) economic prospects.

SECTION I—STANDARD OF LIVING

STANDARD OF LIVING.

Introduction.

In the absence of a comprehensive and detailed survey of the pattern of income and expenditure of various sections of the people residing in different parts of this district, it is almost impossible to present an exact account of their standard of living. Working knowledge of the prevalent standard of living is, however, very useful for economic, social and administrative planning. An attempt has, therefore, been made to indicate the standard of living of different sections of the people staying in urban as well as rural areas. The account is based on tabulated and descriptive information collected by direct contacts with a number of persons during the course of the survey. While actual observations and indirect checks bear sufficient testimony to the correctness of the general outline of the picture so revealed, no statistical accuracy is contemplated or claimed for the findings of our survey.

Income of a family.—When we speak of the income of a family or household it means its earnings from all sources. It includes earnings from landed or other types of property, business or profession. For the sake of convenience, by family or household we mean four units[1] (three adults and two minors).

Pattern of expenditure.—The pattern of expenditure is a sum total of several social, economic and environmental forces. Religion of the household, the nature of the work in which its members are engaged, their educational status, and most important of all, the income of the household are some of the forces which affect the way in which the household spends money on different items of consumption. It will be very interesting to study the consumption pattern in relation to these various characteristics. However, a large sample of households representing all the strata of the population according to these

[1] The recognition of a person of the age of 12 years or above as a full adult unit for cereal consumption and person below that age-limit as half a unit has now widely been accepted. In this Chapter, the unit of membership of a family is computed accordingly on the same basis, a person of the age of 12 or above being equal to one unit and one below 12 years, being equal to half a unit.

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Introduction.

characteristics, will be required for such a detailed study. The sample of a few households in the urban and rural sectors does not touch even the fringe of the above requirement. Only a broad study of the pattern of consumption can be had from the information collected from the sample households.

The different items of consumer goods and services can be grouped into two broad categories, namely, food-group and non-food group. Having regard to the comparatively small size of the sample and the limitations of the accuracy and authenticity of the information collected, it is not possible to give estimates of expenditure on individual items or even on smaller groups of items. The food-group could be divided into four sub-groups, *viz.*,—(i) cereals and pulses, (ii) milk and its products, (iii) edible oils and related products, and (iv) others which include sugar, meat, fish, eggs, salt, spices, etc. Similarly the non-food group also can be divided into five sub-groups, *viz.*,—(i) clothing, (ii) fuel and light, (iii) education, (iv) rent and medical expenses, and (v) others which include expenses on religious matters, entertainment, transport, social obligations, etc. Attempt is made below to discuss the expenditure pattern as well as important family assets of different groups of urban and rural income earners.

Urban Sector.

For the sake of investigations, household was taken to be a unit of sampling. Taking average annual income as the basis of classification, the families in both the sectors were grouped as under:—

Group I—Families with an annual income of Rs. 3,000 and above.

Group II—Families with an annual income ranging between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 3,000.

Group III—Families with an annual income below Rs. 1,000.

Group I. Higher Income Group.

This income group was composed of families which could be described as 'better off' than the other two groups in the urban sector. In this group can be included big landlords like Inamdars, Watandars, Deshpandes, prosperous businessmen, highly placed Government or non-Government officials and persons engaged in liberal or white-collared professions, like, doctors, pleaders, heads of big educational institutions, etc. An average family in this group can be said to have an income of about Rs. 3,500 to Rs. 4,000 a year. Generally speaking, families earning over Rs. 3,500 a year get an opportunity to lead a decent life and are able to save to provide against the exigencies of life. The spending capacity of this class is clearly seen to be higher than that of the remaining two classes. With an increase in income, the percentage expenditure on items of daily consumption remains more or less constant, but the expenditure on articles of comfort and luxury shows an upward trend.

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Urban Sector.

Group I.

Higher Income Group.

This particular trend of expenditure can also be represented by the use of concentration curves. The curve showing cumulative percentages of expenditure against cumulative percentages of population is called the concentration curve for expenditure. The study of consumer behaviour can be made for all sections of population by grouping the expenditure levels from below. Simultaneously the population proportion or percentage and the proportion or percentage of consumer expenditure of persons of that group to the total consumer expenditure are also cumulated. If this is done, it is observed that the latter is related to the former. This relation shows how a part of the total expenditure is shared by a part of the population and thus sheds light on the concentration of distribution of expenditure in the population. The concentration curve is of particular importance, since for all practical purposes it serves as a substitute for the Lorenz's curve of concentration when no definite information about income is available. Thus, if two concentration curves are drawn for items in the food and non-food groups, we may find that the concentration curve for the latter is more convex than that for the former. This shows that the distribution of non-food expenditure is concentrated in the higher expenditure levels. In other words, the major part of total non-food expenditure is incurred by fewer persons in the higher expenditure levels. It may also be observed that these curves are more convex for urban population than for rural population, indicating thereby that the distribution of consumer expenditure in urban areas is more uneven than that in the rural areas.

This class can be easily distinguished firstly by the type of houses in which they live, secondly by the extent of household equipment and thirdly by the higher percentage of expenditure on certain items of daily consumption. The household equipment generally includes costly furniture, radio sets, gramophones, costly clothes, ornaments, silver and stainless steel utensils, costly playing material, etc. Generally, they spend more on items like milk, meat, fish, eggs, vegetables, fruits, education, entertainment, etc. Employing a full-time servant is another feature of this class.

Income.—Out of the 399 families that were surveyed in the urban areas, 83 belonged to this group. The monthly average income of a family in this group was estimated to be roundabout Rs. 350. There were 10 families who were having their annual income over Rs. 6,000 a year. This group was characterised by an excess of income over expenditure.

Expenditure.—Nearly half of the total expenditure was incurred on food. Among food items, cereals and pulses claimed the lion's share. One-third of the total expenditure of this group was on cereals only.

Milk and vegetables were next in order. More than 25 per cent of the total expenditure on food was incurred on milk while vegetables accounted for about 10 per cent of the total expenditure

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Group I.

Higher Income Group.

on food. A scrutiny of the family budgets showed that expenditure on items which are characteristic of higher standard of living such as sugar, gur, tea, coffee, meat, fish, eggs, etc., increased with an increase in the income of a family.

In the *non-food* group, clothing claimed the 'lion's share'. This item of expenditure constituted the major difference between this group and the remaining two income groups. The standard of clothing differed widely in quality, fashion, decency and usage. Every family spent on an average Rs. 400 or about one-fourth of the expenditure on non-food items, on clothing per year.

Education, medicines and rent were other important items of expenditure in this group. Every family had a tentative plan for educating its children. About 44 per cent of the expenditure on this group was accounted for by these items taken together.

Among other items, expenditure on social obligations and entertainment was significant. Families in this group were reported to have spent on cinemas, dramas, excursions and other varieties of entertainment. They also contributed to various funds or donated money for social purposes. Expenditure on religious matters was rather negligible. It was hardly 2 per cent of the total monthly expenditure of a family.

Savings, Investment and Housing.—As pointed out earlier, the families in this group were left with a surplus after meeting their normal expenditure. In many cases this surplus was invested in life insurance, national savings certificates, shares, etc., or was held partly in the form of bank deposits and partly in cash. Out of 83 families, 34 families reported their savings in cash, bank deposits and 20 families in paper securities. Total savings of these 54 families were estimated to the tune of Rs. 1.20 lakhs. About 10 families, out of these 83, were reported to be indebted to the extent of Rs. 30,000. This debt was mainly taken for business purposes or for long-term investment in land, house, etc. Thirty-three families had their own houses, valued at about Rs. 4 lakhs. Except a few houses built in modern style and design during the last decade, the houses were built in stones and pucca bricks. Most of them were equipped with separate bath-rooms and lavatories. Use of electricity was mainly made for lighting purposes and also for cooking and refrigeration. Persons staying in rented houses paid around Rs. 50 as rent for two rooms and a kitchen. A few houses had small gardens in front of them.

Household equipment and family possession.—A majority of families in this group possessed good furniture. The furniture included chairs, tables, cup-boards, cots and almirahs. The household equipment of these families consisted of brass and copper utensils, crockery, stainless steel articles, etc. The presence of a few silver articles also in some houses was not uncommon. Out of 83 families that were surveyed, 62 families reported possession of gold and silver ornaments valued at about Rs. 37,000. Forty-six families had their own radio sets, the value of which was estimated to be Rs. 18,000. Nearly 50 per cent of the surveyed

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Group I.

Higher Income Group.

families had costly garments like *shalus, paithanis,* shawls and jari-articles. Bedding sets valued at about Rs. 250 consisted of chaddars, carpets, pillows, etc. Keeping a bicycle was very common in every family. A few wealthy families had their own vehicles like a tonga or a car.

Literacy and Education.—The sample survey showed that more than 95 per cent of the people in this group were literate. Among them men outnumbered women. A majority of the members of this group received both primary and secondary education. There were more college-going male members than female ones. Education in fine arts was received by some members of this group; some families possessed sets of musical instruments like *Tabla,* Harmonium, *Tambora,* etc.

Group II.

Middle Income Group.

Income—The annual income of each family in this group varied between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 3,000. This group included persons representing the middle-class. It included teachers, retail and petty merchants, mechanics, tailors, repairers, small land-owners, and the salaried persons of the clerical class. Size of an average family was a bit larger than that of the first group but smaller than that of the third group. It consisted usually of five units (three adults and two minors). On an average there were one and a half earners in each family. In some families there were earning dependents* also.

In all 227 families in this group were surveyed. Their average monthly income came to about Rs. 160. Out of these 227 families, 65 families were reported to be indebted and the total amount of debt was estimated to be Rs. 1,61,468. These debts were mainly taken either for meeting family expenses on everyday consumption or for meeting expenses on sickness, marriages and other ceremonies. The usual creditors were money-lenders or traders and, in some cases, banks.

Expenditure—Food grains (cereals and pulses) claimed the largest share of the total expenditure on food, the allocation being as high as 52 per cent or Rs. 44 per month. This was followed by milk and milk products accounting for about Rs. 20 per month. The expenditure on vegetables, edible oils, spices, gur, sugar, meat, fish, eggs, etc., was smaller than that of the families in the higher income group.

Among non-food items, clothing, rent, education and medical treatment were important. The percentage of expenditure on clothing was the same as in the case of group I. But the noteworthy feature of this group was that the clothing differed in its quality and texture. The quality of the clothes used by this class was definitely not as high as that in the case of group I. Expenses on religious ceremonies also were negligible. An average family spent hardly anything on this item. Items such as cosmetics and entertainment accounted for a smaller monthly expenditure of about Rs. 10.

* By an earning dependent we mean a person who earns but whose earnings are ot enough for his maintenance.

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Group II. Middle Income Group.

Savings and Investment.—The family budgets of this group showed a meagre surplus of Rs. 60 per annum. The survey revealed that some families invested this surplus in life insurance, national savings certificates, provident fund or held it in the form of bank deposits or in cash. The survey also revealed that nearly 50 per cent of the savings in this group were held in cash. This may, perhaps, be because cash ensures ready liquidity or because the surplus amount is very small.

Household equipment and possessions. The household equipment of families in this group consisted of brass and copper utensils necessary for daily use, many aluminium utensils and some earthenwares. Generally, all families possessed chairs or stools but not tables and cots. In view of their limited resources, it was not surprising that their household equipment including bedding just enabled them to meet their day-to-day needs. However, a bicycle was a common item in these families. It provided a cheaper means of transport.

Literacy and Education.—Literacy was as much marked in this group as in group I, though the standard of literacy differed considerably. All the families seemed to be fully aware of the importance of education but they had nothing like educational plans for their children, probably because of their limited resources. Among the literates, a majority, chiefly women, had received less education, whereas men continued their education up to collegiate level. The number of persons who had college education was very small.

Group III. Lower Income Group.

This group included in its fold a vast majority of persons forming the lowest stratum of the urban population. They were petty road-side shopkeepers, hawkers, shoe-makers, *dhobis*, barbers, tinsmiths, carpenters, unskilled or semi-skilled workers, coolies, cooks, cobblers, potters, etc. Their housing condition and diet differed considerably from the other two groups.

Income.—The average size of the family consisted of six and a half units (four adults and five children). Generally, there were two earners in each family on whom all the members of the family depended for their livelihood. The average estimated earnings of the 89 families surveyed were Rs. 87 per month per family.

Expenditure.—The greater part of the income was absorbed in meeting the urgent needs of existence, *viz.*, food and fibre. Nearly Rs. 79 out of Rs. 87 were spent on these two items, every month. Of these Rs. 47 were spent only on foodgrains and about Rs. 10 on clothing. The balance was too small to make living comfortable. In other words, poverty did not permit these families to spend on other items.

Debt.—Deficit in family budgets was the characteristic feature of this group. No wonder, therefore, that none of the families was free from debt. The extent of debt varied from Rs. 100 to Rs. 1,500. Most of these loans were taken from money-lenders, traders, relatives, friends and co-operative societies. The interest

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Urban Sector.

Group III. Lower Income Group.

rates ranged between 6½ per cent and 25 per cent. In many cases, debt was taken in the form of temporary credit allowed by the grocers to the customers on the strength of personal security.

Housing.—The housing conditions of families in this group were far from satisfactory. The houses were ground floor structures and were made of mud or of sun-dried *kutcha* bricks or of tin. They had no proper ventilation. The roofs were of low height and made of ordinary tin or of dried grass and in some cases of ordinary tiles. Some families lived in huts, situated on the outskirts of the city.

Household equipment.—The inadequate income of these families did not permit them to have sufficient equipment. It consisted of some brass and copper utensils and earthen pots. Quite often, copper drums and iron buckets were used for storing water. Their bedding consisted of two or three mattresses, coarse rugs or *kamblis* and carpets. Occasionally a family was found to possess a bicycle or a bullock cart. There was no furniture worth a mention.

Literacy and education.—This class, living from hand to mouth, obviously could not provide education to their children. The percentage of literacy was very low, and this too, restricted to the primary stage. A few families could afford to send their boys for higher education.

Recently the position regarding educational facilities to the people in this income group has improved considerably. The Government of Maharashtra provides free educational facilities to the wards of persons whose annual income is less than Rs. 1,200. In response to this facility innumerable pupils are availing of primary, secondary as well as higher education.

Rural Sector.

The assessment of the standard of living of the rural people presents several difficulties. First of all, a number of transactions take place in the form of barter and their economic significance cannot be gauged fully. Secondly, persons depending upon agriculture supplement their income by following other allied occupations either in the same village or in the neighbouring villages, while some families get regular monetary help from persons employed in cities. Thirdly, the mode of living of the people in rural areas is affected more by the type of the occupation followed by the family members rather than by the size of the income. Besides, a clear and satisfactory differentiation of occupations and economic classes is not an easy task. Fourthly, among agriculturists it is very difficult to decide who is fully employed because due to the pressure of population on land and many other factors of socio-economic nature, a large proportion of agriculturist population is engaged in what Prof. Nurkse called 'work-making' and 'work-sharing' activities. These people* are really under-employed and they can be taken off the farms without affecting

* Prof. Nurkse visualises great potentialities for capital formation in this type of disguisedly unemployed people. Irrespective of the criticism levelled against Nurkse's thesis, it cannot be ignored that there is much truth in what he says.

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the quantum of farm-produce, given a certain measure of reorganisation. Lastly, due to ignorance and false beliefs, rural people do not give correct information to the field investigators. Against this background, one can imagine, what a stupendous task it is to give a satisfactory analysis of the living conditions of the rural masses. An attempt is, however, made to present a broad picture of their living, based on the survey of families belonging to rural areas.

The families in the rural areas are classified on the same basis as their counterparts in the urban areas for the purpose of analysis, *i.e.*, the average income of the family per year. On this basis the rural families form the following three groups, *viz.*—

Group I—Families with an annual income of Rs. 3,000 and above.

Group II—Families with an annual income ranging from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 3,000.

Group III—Families with an annual income of Rs. 1,000 or below.

Group I. Higher Income Group.

This group consisted of big or well-to-do farmers who formed the upper stratum of the rural society by virtue of their ownership of land together with the consequent control over labouring classes and their higher income. A survey of 42 families in this group gave the trend in their standard of living.

Income.—A typical family of a rich farmer comprised seven and a half units including six adults and three minors. Both men and women were found to contribute towards the earnings of the family. An average well-to-do farmer in Nagpur district held 20.234 hectares (50 acres) of land. The total annual income of a family on an average was estimated to be Rs. 6,312. The main source of income was land. But a few families derived income from other sources like interest on money advanced or investments made, sale of cattle-produce or industrial products. Out of 42 families surveyed, 31 families owned houses valued at about Rs. 2 lakhs. Besides land and houses, most of the families possessed a large herd of cattle comprising bullocks, buffaloes and cows.

Expenditure.—The average monthly expenditure of a family amounted to about Rs. 400 out of which nearly Rs. 200 were spent on food and milk. Expenditure on cereals was about 36 per cent of the expenses on food. Milk and vegetables accounted for about Rs. 60 per month.

Among non-food items, clothing and education were more important and accounted for about Rs. 150 per month. As a result of higher incomes, the percentage of literacy in this class was quite high. Of the total population over 6 years in age, nearly 70 per cent were literate. While the majority of the literates received primary education, nearly 20 per cent of them received secondary education and a few, higher education. With the establishment of more high schools and colleges, education has become a major item of expenditure.

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Group I. Higher Income Group.

Expenses on entertainment, medical aid, religion, etc., were less than the expenses of urban people on these items. A family spent about Rs. 15 on entertainment per month. Expenses on transport were also modest, probably because these people owned their vehicles like a *dhamani, tonga,* or cart which is a matter of prestige for a well-to-do villager.

Household equipment.—As noted above, a majority of families owned land and houses. The household equipment was sufficient to meet domestic requirements and often consisted of brass and copper utensils. A few families possessed stainless steel articles and one or two silver articles. Customary ornaments like rings, necklaces, bangles and nose-rings, both of gold and silver, were not uncommon, as they are regarded as signs of affluence among rural people. Some sixteen families reported possession of costly clothes like *paithani, shalu* and jari turban. Some families possessed furniture, consisting of a couple of chairs, a table, cots, cupboards, etc. But all families were found to possess necessary agricultural tools and implements like ploughs (generally two or three per family), seed drills, harrows, axes, spades, sickles, etc. Many of them owned bullock carts for the purpose of transportation of goods from field to house and from house to market. Bicycles also were not uncommon.

Literacy and education.—As said above nearly seventy per cent of the people of this group are literate. The young generation from this group has made remarkable progress in the field of higher education. The importance of technical as well as other types of education is well realised by this class.

Savings and Investment.—The analysis of income and expenditure made above shows that on an average a family could save more than Rs. 100 per month. Out of 42 families surveyed, 16 families had their savings in cash and bank-deposits, and another 12 families in paper securities. Their total savings amounted to about Rs. 86,000. Some families invested their savings in insurance policies, while others in national savings certificates, bonds, etc. In many cases investment was made in machinery for land-improvement purposes or for digging wells for irrigation. In this group there were some agriculturist money-lenders who gave loans to small farmers for meeting domestic as well as agricultural expenditure. Most of these loans were advanced on personal security and naturally at a higher rate of interest, ranging between 9 per cent and 25 per cent or more. Very few families in this group resorted to borrowing for the sake of meeting expenses on ceremonies like marriage, or on medical treatment. Loans were also borrowed for productive purposes. The usual sources of loans were money-lenders, relatives, friends and co-operative institutions. The rate of interest varied from 6½ per cent to 12½ per cent.

Group II. Middle Income Group.

Income.—This group comprises medium cultivating owners and a few tenant cultivators whose family income is above Rs. 1,000 but less than Rs. 3,000 per annum. The cultivators in this class held on an average 8.093 hectares (20 acres) of land. The family comprised six units including four adults and an equal number of

children. The number of earning members in this class was larger than that of group I. The survey pointed out that women and children formed more than 30 per cent of earning population. The average annual income of a family from all sources amounted to Rs. 2,245 and average annual expenditure to about Rs. 1,824. Of the 87 families that were surveyed in this group, 61 families owned their own houses, valued at about Rs. 1,34,450, and 47 families had their own land the value of which was estimated at Rs. 4,15,000.

Expenditure.—A family spent on an average Rs. 85.51 on food items and Rs. 66.02 on non-food items. Of the Rs. 85.51, Rs. 43 were spent on cereals and pulses only, Rs. 10.50 on vegetables, Rs. 8 on oils, Rs. 10 on milk and milk-products and the remaining on other items like spices, sugar, gur, etc. Thus, 50 per cent of the food expenditure was on cereals and pulses.

Next to food, clothing was the most important item of expenditure. A family spent annually about Rs. 288 on clothing. Annual expenses on entertainment, medicines, repairs of houses, etc., amounted to about Rs. 648. Education was also no less important in non-food group. It accounted for about Rs. 100 per year. Annual expenses on miscellaneous items such as cosmetics and entertainment were in the vicinity of Rs. 100. This group rarely spent on items like excursions or pleasure trips.

Family possessions.—Out of the 87 families surveyed, 61 families owned their own houses, valued at about Rs. 1,34,450. Forty-seven families owned the land which they cultivated and others had taken it on lease. The value of the owned land was about Rs. 4,15,000. Seven families were having their radio sets valued at Rs. 2,000.

The household equipment consisted of brass, copper and earthen utensils. The bedding equipment comprised blankets (*ghongadis*), *chaddars* and a couple of mattresses. Most of the families possessed a small quantity of old-fashioned ornaments of gold and silver like *putalya*, *patlya*, bangles, nose-rings, ear-rings, *todc*, etc. Very few families possessed valuable items of furniture. Otherwise most of them had an ordinary chair or a stool and a small cot. But almost every family possessed agricultural implements like ploughs, sickles, axes, harrows, etc. Besides these almost all agriculturist families were owning a pair of oxen, one or two cows or buffaloes or some goats. A bicycle and a cart were common vehicles found in many households.

Savings and Investment.—Of 87 families, only 22 families reported their savings to the tune of Rs. 46,160. Twelve families invested their savings in insurance, bonds, national savings certificates, etc. The remaining ten families either lent their money to the needy cultivators or deposited it with banks or professional money-lenders. Twenty-eight families borrowed loans amounting to Rs. 43,250 from various sources like relatives, friends, money-lenders, co-operative banks, etc., for purposes of meeting expenditure on cultivation or on marriages, deaths, births, etc.

Literacy and education.—The percentage of literacy in this group was less than that in group I. Nearly 60 per cent of the members (majority of them being males) in this group were literate. Most of them received only primary education and only about 15 per cent or so reached the stage of secondary education.

Nearly half of tenant cultivators, agricultural labourers, village artisans and state-servants of the lowest cadre constitute this group as considered on the basis of their average annual family income. Among all these categories the lot of agricultural labourers was the worst. The agricultural labourers could be further classified in four groups: (i) partly cultivators and partly labourers, (ii) fully labourers, (iii) attached labourers, and (iv) casual labourers. Out of the four sub-groups, casual and landless agricultural labourers form the lowest rung of the agricultural ladder. In Maharashtra, according to the National Sample Survey their average annual household income is estimated to be about Rs. 367. The position of attached labour, with land, is far better than this.

Income.—As from the findings of the survey the average annual income of a family in this group was estimated to be about Rs. 866, while the expenditure was about Rs. 1,084. Of the 97 families surveyed, a few families did show an excess of income over expenditure, but the majority were hardly able to make both ends meet.

Expenditure.—Food accounted for a major portion of the total monthly expenditure of a family. A family spent Rs. 57 on food and Rs. 33 on other items every month. Out of Rs. 57, Rs. 32 were spent only on cereals and pulses. Looking to the average size of the family in this group expenses on oils, vegetables and milk were very low. Some people of this group could not consume milk at all.

Poverty did not permit these people to spend much on clothing and other items too. Out of Rs. 33 spent on non-food items per month, Rs. 14 were spent on clothing. Entertainment accounted for a rupee a month. Expenses on religion, cosmetics, etc., were negligible.

Family possessions and equipment.—Housing conditions of these people were far from satisfactory. A thatched hut of straw or bamboo very often exposed to the sun and rain, served as shelter. Out of 97 families surveyed, 78 had their own houses. Some forty-six families owned small strips of land of inferior type, which provided them some security when monsoons were favourable.

The household equipment comprised some brass and copper utensils, many aluminium utensils, earthen pots, etc. These utensils were hardly sufficient to meet their day-to-day needs. Their bedding consisted of carpets, gunny-bags, *kamblis* and a couple of chaddars. They possessed inferior types of agricultural implements. Most of the families who had some land possessed goats or a cow. Maintenance of a pair of bullocks was probably beyond their reach.

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Group III. Lower Income Group.

Savings and Debts.—Out of the total number of families surveyed only three families could save a petty amount of Rs. 985. Most of the families had to borrow money for their existence. The loans taken by these families ranged from Rs. 100 to Rs. 1,000. Many a time, these loans were in the form of temporary credit allowed by the grocers or house-to-house vendors, on the strength of personal security.

Literacy and Education.—Taking the group as a whole, the percentage of literacy was very low. But if we divide the group in sections like village artisans, state-servants, etc., then the number of literates in these sections was fairly large. But even then education was more or less confined to the primary stage. Very few males received secondary education.

Since the last few years economic hardship has ceased to be the main handicap to these people for taking education. The Government of Maharashtra provides free educational facilities to the boys and girls of the people whose annual income does not exceed Rs. 1,200. This has removed the main handicap.

From the data available and analysed so far, a fair picture of the standard of living enjoyed by the rural masses emerges. The rural population cannot be said to be better off or worse off than what it was a few years before. The standard they enjoy and the constituents of that standard were in conformity with the general trends that are visible in the wider economic aspect.

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

Introduction.

SECTION II—ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

In the preceding chapters various aspects of the economic life of Nagpur district have been described. The chapters on agriculture, industries, finance, trade and commerce, communications and miscellaneous occupations describe the structure of the economy of the district in the past and the present. No attempt was made to evaluate the public schemes, nor to draw analytical conclusions. The object was to provide the reader a realistic and objective picture of the economy of the district.

This section gives broadly the trends in the economic life of this district and the economic potentialities which are inherent in the district economy. It may, however, be noted that there is no objective measure of economic potentialities, and that it is very difficult to determine the economic prospects of an area like a district. With the passage of time potentialities change and economic planning of the right type expands the extent of potentialities. The potentialities of a district are also to be viewed in the context of the national economy and national planning.

Since the beginning of this century, Nagpur district has witnessed considerable changes in the economic structure. Improvements in the technique of agricultural production, tools and equipment, transport facilities, supply of capital, aid from public authorities and economic planning have caused an increase in total output and the rate of conventional economic growth. The old agrarian nature of the economy is on the decline, giving way to a broad-based agro-industrial economy.

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Introduction.

The district economy in the past was mainly agricultural with a few organised industries. A progressive economy with an all-round development in the spheres of agriculture, industry, mining, trade and commerce, finance and communications is gathering momentum. Planned efforts are being made in this area as in the national economy to utilise the available resources in the most advantageous manner.

The mineral potential of the district has been recognised and mining is done on a large scale. The manganese ore and ferro-manganese of Nagpur are calculated to earn foreign exchange and to help the development of the iron and steel industry of India. The deposits of coal in the vicinity of Umrer, Bhiwapur and Kamptee are also of immense magnitude. The Department of Geology and Mining have taken up extensive drilling operations for coal, and the investigations have shown reserves of 355,00,000 metric tons (350 million tons) of coal to the west of the existing Kamptee colliery. Further investigations are likely to reveal more deposits of coal. The Umrer area also contains first-grade quality coal. Investigations are still in progress in these areas. The proximity of the Chanda and Gondwan forests is of significance for the industrialisation of Nagpur district. They provide raw materials like bamboo, teak, *rosha* grass, gums, resins, *ghatbori* and fuel. The Khaparkheda Thermal Power Station in this district is of vital importance for industrialisation and rural electrification. With the completion of the integrated electric grid system between Khaparkheda, Ballarsha and Paras, the present shortage of electricity for rural electrification will be overcome.

A number of industries have been established at Nagpur. The pace of industrialisation has been so rapid that Nagpur has emerged as a major industrial city.

The small-scale industrial sector presents developmental prospects. The processing industries are also thriving. They are expected to provide some of the basic necessities of large industries.

Agriculture, however, remains the mainstay of the majority of the population. The areas of Katol, Umrer and Saoner are very fertile. The district has a very prospective and profitable commercial crop of orange. With the availability of ample fertilisers, water-supply and scientific aids to fight pests and diseases the crop will yield an increasing output.

In the wake of all-round progress, institutional agencies for financing and trading have emerged. Syndicates of traders and industrialists have also come to the forefront. This will have a definite impact on the economic advancement of the district.

The rate of change has been slow but definite and calculated. The Five-Year Plans are transforming gradually the economy of the district from a mediocre to a well-developed one.

It is against this background that the economic prospects of the district are to be studied.

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Agrarian Economy.

An ideal growth pattern for the agriculture of a district cannot be laid down without confronting numerous difficulties. A district is a part of the larger national economy and can be viewed only in the context of the latter.

Achievement of the optimum agricultural production depends upon numerous factors, such as fertile land, assured and fairly distributed rainfall, pure and improved seeds, modern means of cultivation, abundant supply of natural and chemical fertilisers, preservation of fertility of the soil by timely ploughing and soil conservation and assurance to the producer of a good return for his produce. Besides the natural factors, institutional agencies like co-operative credit and marketing societies, taluka development boards and various Government departments contribute considerably towards the realisation of higher agricultural produce. The agriculturist by himself is economically handicapped and cannot sometimes help himself. This necessitates institutional help. Public and co-operative institutions have to shoulder the responsibility of providing him with facilities such as irrigation, improved seeds, cheap fertilisers, credit, soil conservation, easy transport of produce to market places, co-operative finance and marketing, etc. This necessitates national planning.

The agricultural potentialities of the district will be viewed in this perspective in the following paragraphs.

Though the economy of the Nagpur district cannot be termed agrarian in nature, agriculture is one of the most important pursuits of the people. In fact its agrarian character was most predominant up to the first decade of this century. Since then, however, the process of urbanisation of population set in, and the percentage of population depending on agriculture has been reduced to 43.

Nagpur is famous for oranges which are exported to all parts of the country. Jowar, cotton, wheat, linseed and oranges are the main crops. Katol, Saoner and Nagpur tahsils are most suitable for the cultivation of oranges, and there is scope for augmenting the yield of the fruit considerably by making available green and chemical fertilisers.

Extensive and Intensive Cultivation.

The output from agriculture can be augmented by extensive as well as intensive methods of cultivation. Nearly 10 per cent of the total geographical area of Nagpur district is estimated to be under forests, while a back-log of about 5 per cent is allowed to remain as cultivable waste. This affords a considerable scope for extensive cultivation. The waste land, together with other fallows, forms about 61,965 hectares (1,53,000 acres) or 6 per cent of the total land, and can be brought under cultivation without involving any heavy or costly reclamation programmes.

By and large, however, intensive methods of cultivation are of *prima facie* importance. The main lines along which agrarian development has to proceed are adoption of improved methods

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Agrarian Economy.

Improvement of Agriculture.

of cultivation and supply of better seeds, manures and fertilisers, agricultural research and measures for soil conservation. The measures of soil conservation include bunding the fields, trenching and draining the rain-water properly.

Agricultural production can be increased by providing improved seeds and preserving the purity of the seeds. It was found that the use of improved seeds increased the yield by as much as 10 per cent. Rightly enough the schemes under the Five-Year Plans have been undertaking multiplication of scientific seeds. Similarly, increased use of compost and chemical fertilisers results in increasing agricultural production. A fertiliser factory at Nagpur will meet a long-felt necessity of this area.

Orange is a very promising crop of Nagpur. The Nagpur orange is widely known for its special flavour and commands a country-wide demand. Cultivation is, however, hampered by pest, damage and diseases like *citrus psylla*, poor nursery facilities, lack of demonstrations regarding plantation in various types of soils, lack of proper irrigation, shortage of chemical and green manures, etc. If these handicaps are removed, the per hectare and total yield of the fruit will multiply in tremendous proportions. Hence insecticides, fungicides and the right type of horticultural facilities and manures should be made available in ample quantities. The Nagpur Orange Growers' Association has been doing useful work in this direction. The efforts may, however, be reinforced to achieve the widest possible yield. The Association in collaboration with the Central Hindustan Orange and Cold Storage Company Ltd., manufactures orange juice, orange concentrate and canned orange segments. To make it a profitable business, it has to be undertaken on a large scale. Given proper facilities the Nagpur orange may earn valuable foreign exchange too.

Production of cotton also can be multiplied through the supply of disinfected seed and the prevention of pests and diseases, which at present considerably damage the production. Besides supplying better seeds, maintenance of purity by eliminating impure varieties and agmarking of cotton has to be undertaken.

Intensive methods of cultivation will exploit the production potential of crops like jowar, linseed and rice. The fallow and cultivable waste lands, which are quite sizeable, can also be utilised for these crops. Fertilisers like oil-cake, ammonium phosphate and bone-ash help increase the yield of these crops. The Japanese method of paddy cultivation is gaining ground in Ramtek and Umrer tahsils. Under the paddy pilot scheme, loans are advanced and fertilisers as well as seeds are supplied to the cultivators.

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Agrarian Economy.

Irrigation.

Irrigation is one of the major factors having a substantial bearing on the agricultural potentialities of Nagpur district. Proper irrigation facilities can overcome the vagaries of the monsoon and usher in double-cropping. The present pattern of crop production will also change with the result that agricultural production will be variegated in nature.

The existing condition of irrigation is far from satisfactory. The irrigation potential of the district is limited. The statistics of the area irrigated in this district speak for the paucity of irrigation. Only 4.8 per cent of the net area sown was irrigated by wells, tanks and Government canals in 1958-59. Of the net area irrigated in the district, *viz.* 25,151.715 hectares (62,103 acres), 4,385.145 hectares (10,829 acres) were irrigated by a Government canal of 40.234 km. (25 miles) in length in Ramtek tahsil.

The Bor River Project providing for construction of an earthen bund across the Bor river near village Bori will help in exploiting the agricultural potential of the area. The project will irrigate an area of 20,466.270 hectares (50,534 acres) of *kharif* crops including cotton and 5,062.50 hectares (12,500 acres) of *rabi* crops. This would result in increasing the annual yield of foodgrains by about 5,486.400 metric tons (5,400 tons) and of cotton by about 9,000 bales[1]. The Pandharbodi Tank Project near Umrer provides for a reservoir with a catchment area of 44.0359 km^2 (17 square miles) The tank is calculated to provide irrigation to about 2,023.430 hectares (5,000 acres) of land.

However, there is not much scope for major irrigation works. All efforts towards irrigation will have to be restricted to minor irrigation, such as constructing *bandharas* across the Kanhan, the Koilar and the Wardha rivers, and digging tube wells. Most of the rivers in Nagpur are characterised by high banks and rapid streams when in flood, but in the hot weather they are mere rivulets with stray deep pools where the bed is rocky and shallow. The possibility of exploiting the minor irrigation works at Telankhedi tank, Dahegaon tank, Satighat tank and Khursapur tank may, however, be considered.

Land Reforms.

The conditions of tenancy and the size of holdings are also important factors in agricultural production. The system of *Malguzari* tenure had its own evil effects on the agricultural economy. The system being feudal in essentials led to exploitation of the tenants and low yield. The system was incompatible with any efforts at intensive cultivation, and the ideals of a Welfare State. This system has been abolished by an enactment of the Government of Bombay. However, relics of the system are still to be found with the result that the structure of the agricultural economy is not very sound.

[1] Second Five-Year Plan, Bombay State (Nagpur District).

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Land Reforms.

Agrarian Economy.

For the achievement of the *de facto* abolition of the evils of the system, the tenant cultivator has to be granted protection of tenure, safety against eviction and incentives for multiplying production.

The programme of land reforms also relates to prevention of fragmentation and consolidation of holdings. Sub-division and fragmentation of holdings is a great hindrance to economic cultivation. Co-ordinated and forceful measures to do away with this evil may result in larger and more economical production.

Development of Forest Resources.

Development and economic use of forest resource is very essential for proper utilisation of land and also for industrialisation. Planned development of forests in order to cope with the increasing demand for forest produce for industrial and domestic purposes is needed urgently. Hence, such forest should be economically used, and measures such as keeping forest reserves, afforestation in denuded areas and providing communications to inaccessible forest regions should be undertaken.

Timber and fuel constitute the major forest products in Nagpur. Minor forest produce consists of bamboo, *tembhurni* leaves, grass, gums, *ghat-bori*, etc. The oil extracted from *rosha* grass possesses medicinal values and is used in the preparation of perfumes. It is in great demand in European countries. Planned utilisation of *rosha* grass, better methods of oil extraction and right type of extracting agencies will increase the yield.

With the development of industries more timber and fuel are required for certain chemical industries; wood-pulp is essential for the manufacture of paper, cellulose and artificial silk. To meet this increasing demand, programmes of forest development, e.g., teak and bamboo plantation, match-wood and lac cultivation, soil conservation, protection of existing forests from illicit cutting, etc., are to be undertaken intensively.

Industrialisation.

Industrialisation is conditioned by factors which may be natural as well as man-made. The natural factors comprise minerals, raw materials, means of power, labour, water-supply, etc., while man-made factors comprise capital, machinery and tools, chemicals, capital goods, cheap power and transport facilities.

Nagpur district occupies an advantageous position as regards both these factors. There are reserves of minerals in large quantities which could be profitably exploited. Valuable minerals like manganese, iron, bauxite, silica, ochres, coal, etc., which can contribute to the industrial advancement of the Country are found in abundance in the Nagpur region.

Coal is by far the most important mineral found in Nagpur district. The coal reserves in this district are estimated to be of the order of 375,920,000 metric tons (370 million tons). However, a very small proportion of the total reserves is exploited,

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Industrialisation.

and there are excellent opportunities in this direction. Coal from the Kamptee and Umrer coalfields is non-coking but there is a possibility of striking across metallurgical coking coal deposits. A number of seams in these fields are of first and second grade quality and could be successfully blended to the extent of 15 to 20 per cent with coking coal from Jharia field to produce good coke. First grade coal can be utilised for the manufacture of pig iron in low shaft furnaces. Coal from these fields can be used for general industrial purposes such as locomotives and boilers, for burning cement, porcelain and other ceramic materials. Nagpur is rated to be a good location for setting up a gas plant by using coal as fuel. Allied industries depending on coal can be very profitable.

Thus, it is evident that the coal-mining industry has a bright future, its potentialities being of immense magnitude. Easy transport facilities are also encouraging in this respect.

Nagpur ranks very high in the production of manganese ore in India. There are as many as 252 mines of manganese ore in the district.

Its production was 1,11,253.016 metric tons (1,09,501 tons) in 1956; 1,60,253.680 metric tons (1,57,730 tons) in 1957; 1,20,084.088 metric tons (1,18,193 tons) in 1958 and 89,423.240 metric tons (88,015 tons) in 1960. The important deposits lie in a belt about 24.105 km. (15 miles) wide stretching from Khapa and Ramtek to Bhandara district.

Nagpur manganese is a very valuable mineral in so far as it secures foreign exchange and forms a basic component for the heavy industries of the country. It also has bright prospects and potentialities of further development. To achieve the maximum yield, the methods of mining have to be modernised and the ore has to be mined most economically. It is in the larger national interest that the mineral should be exported to foreign countries not in its raw state but only after smelting it. The ferro-manganese plant at Kanhan will improve production and profitable utilisation of ferro-manganese. The provision of cheap power, cheap and convenient rail transport and a contented labour force will lead to beneficial exploitation of this mineral.

Large low-grade manganese deposits existing between the Kanhan and the Pench with extensive reserves can be upgraded. Research on beneficiation of the ores is necessary, and if the ore is found amenable to various processes of beneficiation a prosperous future for these deposits is visualised.

Nagpur has fairly good potentialities as regards development of the spinning and weaving industry. If a spinning mill is established at Nagpur it will meet the demand of yarn from the handloom and powerloom weavers at Nagpur and its surrounding

areas. As a by-product of the cotton textile industry, Nagpur provides a very good site for the manufacture of surgical cotton from linters. A plant for the extraction of oil from cotton-seed can thrive at Nagpur. The oil has medicinal values and is very valuable as a vitamin concentrate.

As the hinterland of Nagpur is rich in minerals, coal, firewood and forest products, a number of general engineering industries will flourish. The natural resources of the region are, in fact, awaiting fruitful exploitation. Their optimum utilisation will add to the riches of the nation. In this respect Nagpur is a very suitable location for industries manufacturing tools and equipment, automobile spare parts, organic chemicals, synthetic paints, fertilisers, agricultural implements, fruit-canning and cold-storage. The general industrial development of the Vidarbha region will be greatly facilitated with the development of allied industries which will feed the main large industries.

The availability of power from the Khaperkheda Thermal Power Station in the district is one of the most advantageous factors of industrialisation in Nagpur. With the operation of this plant to the fullest installed capacity and the completion of the integrated electric grid system, the entire region will progress industrially. The supply should, however, be made available at cheaper rates than obtaining at present. As regards capital and the availability of loanable funds, Nagpur compares very favourably with the other districts of Vidarbha. Most of the big banks as well as the State and Central financing agencies have their branches in Nagpur city. Development of industrial banking, which was not achieved in the past, will have a very favourable effect on the industrial expansion. The nearness of collieries, and of the sources of firewood and charcoal is very significant for the industrialisation of Nagpur. The shortage of water-supply in Nagpur city in the hot season is, however, a great handicap to the development of some industries.

Indigenous demand for ferro-manganese, which is used in the manufacture of steel, will increase consequent upon the expansion of steel production envisaged in the succeeding plans. There is also considerable scope for developing an export trade in ferro-manganese. In this connection, it would be desirable to give consideration to the modern processes of ferro-manganese production which will reduce the overall cost of production.

Nagpur is quite well-known for the textile industry. The Empress Mills and the Model Mills are names of great reputation. A further development of them will make a magnificent contribution to the production of textiles and the prosperity of Nagpur.

As discussed elsewhere, Nagpur possesses an advantageous position regarding factors such as, electric power, coal, minerals, labour and communications. Hence, Nagpur is a prospective

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area for location of industries like structural fabrication, electrical motors, transformers, cast iron pipes, refractories, ceramics, steel re-rolling, etc.

Industrialisation.

The small-scale and cottage industries have undoubtedly a very important part to play in the economy of this district. The advantages accruing from the localisation of industries at Nagpur, Kamptee and Kanhan will certainly benefit small-scale industries, such as textile accessories, radio components, domestic electric appliances, porcelain insulators, machine tools, surgical and medical instruments, cycle chains, automobile spare parts and agricultural implements.

Handloom weaving is perhaps the most important cottage industry of Nagpur district. Nagpur, Umrer and Kamptee are famous for handloom textiles. The industry is a source of employment to a very large number of persons. Given proper facilities like co-operative finance, right type of implements and yarn and beneficial disposal of the product, the handloom industry will bring prosperity to the weavers. The helpful efforts of the Government of Maharashtra in this respect are commendable.

The other cottage industries which promise prospective development are leather and tanning, hosiery, extraction of non-edible oils, fruit-canning and preservation and soap-making.

Trade Prospects.

Nagpur is the entrepot of trade and commerce. It is by far the most important commercial city in Central India and Vidarbha region of the State. Nagpur is a centre of trade in cotton, jowar, tobacco, linseed, oranges, lemons, textiles, automobiles, mechanical tools, electrical machinery and appliances, bicycles, watches, radio appliances, etc.

Trade in agricultural commodities at the towns and rural areas of the district, however, suffers due to the lack of regulation by State agencies. Profitable disposal of agricultural produce can be made possible by regulating and organising the system of trade by the device of regulated markets. Sale of the agricultural goods through regulated markets protects cultivators from exploitation by the traders. There is ample scope and urgent necessity of establishing such markets at Umrer, Saoner, Ramtek, Bhiwapur, Kamptee, Khapa and Katol. Co-operative maketing should also be adopted on a wider scale than at present. The agricultural seller should be protected from the fluctuations in prices caused by speculative activities of traders.

In the nature of things, marketing of agricultural produce should be linked with co-operative credit and warehousing.

Transport.

Adequate facilities of transport and communications are of primary importance for industrialisation in particular and economic growth in general. Nagpur, with a network of railway routes and highways, is favourably situated in this respect. It is the junction place of the Bombay-Howrah, Madras-Delhi, Nagpur-Ramtek and Chhindwada-Nagpur-Nagbhir railway routes.

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Transport.

It is noteworthy, however, that provision of feeder roads capable of carrying heavy traffic throughout the year would be of great advantage to the mines which are not directly served by railways. This would greatly facilitate movement of manganese ore and other mineral products from the collieries to the railway stations.

Nagpur district is a great producer of citrus fruits like oranges, *mosumbi* and lemon. In view of the perishable nature of such fruits, speedy and convenient transport is of great value, to give the maximum benefit of the market to the producer. In this respect the State undertaking of goods transport by road is calculated to improve the state of affairs to a great extent. The railways can also contribute substantially by providing a sufficient number of wagons in good time. The costs of transport of coal, firewood and manganese ore present difficulties. The problem may be approached with great care and rational attitude. A network of railways and roads in the mining areas is essential in the interest of speedy exploitation of minerals and coal deposits. It is imperative on the part of the Government of India to undertake construction and development of railways and approach roads to mines and coalfields.

Price Trends.

A study of the general price trends is of great significance in so far as it enables us to know the economic condition of the people. The standard of living of the people depends to a great extent upon the prices of commodities and services.

Trends of prices prevailing in an area like a district are essentially concurrent with the broad national trends of wholesale prices. In a free economy based on the free play of the "price mechanism", no part of the economy can be isolated from the upheavals of prices. Numerous factors such as variations in the quantity of money in circulation (currency *plus* bank credit), volume of national production, supply of consumers' goods, conditions of exports and imports, degree of controls and regulations by the Government, etc., influence the price level. Prices of agricultural goods fluctuate seasonally. They are at their lowest in January and February, and then start rising up to September. After July they depend to a great extent upon the prospects of rains. Variations in prices of agricultural goods also follow the extent of production over the season in the region. It is a widely known fact that the Indian agriculture is a gamble in the monsoons. This has an inevitable impact on the prices of agricultural commodities.

But apart from seasonal and temporary variations, there seem to have been marked permanent changes in the purchasing power of the Indian rupee since the beginning of this century.

During World War I and after, the prices of all commodities rose substantially. The Depression, which began in America, brought about a collapse of the economy of the United States together with that of Great Britain, and France resulting in a sudden and heavy fall in prices all over the world. The

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Price Trends.

Depression had its repercussions in this country and led to a momentous fall in prices. This trend which was consonant with the one prevailing world-wide, continued till 1933 after which the prices again showed an upward movement. The upward trend continued till 1937. A marked decline in the price level began at the beginning of 1938.

Prices again rose sharply with the recrudescence of hostilities in September 1939. The enormously mounting expenditure on war efforts and the heavy expenditure incurred by the Government on defence were the major factors responsible for the inflationary trend. The rise was also due to the intense activity of the speculators, holding back of stocks in anticipation of future shortages and the resultant black-marketeering of consumers' goods. The degree of rise was greater in the case of goods, such as cloth, food articles, medicines, building materials and implements.

Wholesale Prices.

The following table gives the wholesale price indices* in Nagpur for the period 1940–53 with 1939-40 as the base year:—

Year (1)	Cotton (2)	Linseed (3)	Sesamum (4)
1940-41	69·9	68·3	83·3
1941-42	53·3	90·4	87·3
1942-43	188·0	174·0	216·7
1943-44	148·6	159·6	239·2
1944-45	158·7	163·5	274·5
1945-46	189·1	243·3	295·1
1946-47	196·7	284·6	373·5
1947-48	209·8	338·5	413·7
1948-49	N.A.	307·7	439·2
1949-50	268·9	405·8	517·6
1950-51	N.A.	541·3	602·0
1951-52	111·5	311·0	N.A.
1952-53	98·4	272·1	392·2

It becomes clear from the above statement that the prices of the said commodities continued to rise till 1950-51. The prices, however, declined sharply in 1951-52 and 1952-53. This decline could be attributed to the very favourable harvest conditions.

The following statement gives the all-India wholesale price index number for the period 1955–60 with 1952-53 as the base year:—

Year (1)	Food articles (2)	Liquor and tobacco (3)	Fuel, power, light and lubricants (4)	Industrial materials (5)	Manufactures (6)	All Commodities (7)
1955 ..	85·4	82·3	95·2	97·3	99·3	91·5
1956 ..	99·0	82·3	101·6	113·6	104·2	102·6
1957 ..	106·8	91·8	111·5	118·1	103·0	108·7
1958 ..	112·0	93·7	114·9	114·7	108·2	110·0
1959 ..	118·2	100·7	116·1	119·7	109·7	115·5
1960 ..	120·3	106·4	119·0	138·8	120·8	123·0

*Statistical Abstract of Madhya Pradesh, 1954-55.

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Price Trends.

Wholesale Prices.

The trend of prices in Nagpur district was more or less in conformity with that in India.

The mean wholesale prices* of the important agricultural commodities in Nagpur are given in the following table:—

Commodities (1)	1958 (2)	1959 (3)	1960 (4)
1. Rice—			
(a) *Luchi*	26·00	27·25	28·18
(b) *Gurumuthia*	24·00	25·55	24·66
2. Wheat	20·94	26·50	20·04
3. Jowar	11·73	13·27	13·93
4. Gram	15·50	16·50	14·46
5. *Tur*	16·95	20·40	16·54
6. *Gul*	19·31	23·87	20·58

It becomes evident from the above statistical data that the prices of the *gurumuthia* variety of rice, wheat, gram, *tur* and *gul* were the highest at Nagpur in 1959. This was quite in keeping with the rising prices of foodgrains all over the country during that year. The prices of food articles rose sharply in 1959. They were, however, slightly lowered by measures of price regulation undertaken by the Government of India in the beginning of 1960.

The highest price of *luchi* rice, *viz.*, Rs. 30.50 per maund (i.e., 37.334 kg.), was recorded in July 1960. Wheat registered the highest price *viz.*, Rs. 30 per maund, in September 1959; the prices of wheat oscillated between Rs. 22 and Rs. 30 in 1959. The wheat prices fell in 1960 and varied between Rs. 18 and Rs. 25. Jowar, the staple food of the district, registered the highest price, *viz.*, Rs. 15.50, in September 1959. The oscillations of prices were, however, not so very marked in the case of jowar. They were mainly due to seasonal variations. Prices of gram were the highest in January 1959 *viz.*, Rs. 27 per maund. They, however, declined to Rs. 19 in February and reached the bottom level, *viz.*, Rs. 11 in December of that year. The *tur* price, *viz.*, Rs. 23.50, in January 1959 was the highest in the period between 1958 and 1960. *Gul* showed marked variations in prices during the three years. The lowest price, *viz.*, Rs. 15 was recorded in January 1958, and the highest one, *viz.*, Rs. 30, during September 1959.

*Price per Bengali maund (37·334 kg.) in rupees.

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Price Trends.

Wholesale Prices.

The consumer price idex numbers for working class in Nagpur are given below. The year 1939 is taken as base year and prices prevailing in August of that year are taken to be 100.

Year (1)	Food articles (2)	Clothing (3)	Fuel or lighting (4)	Miscellaneous (5)	Index (6)
1949	384	376	295	503	377
1950	282	337	296	572	372
1951	397	429	292	504	391
1952	382	416	296	519	380
1953	397	362	297	537	387
1954	381	334	297	562	373
1955	367	347	295	564	364
1956	411	363	295	559	398
1957	438	358	316	578	422
1958	464	362	331	684	477
1959	522	373	356	763	498
1960	529	389	413	768	512

The following is the data regarding farm harvest prices for Nagpur district:—

Prices in Rs. per Bengali maund (37·334 kg.)

Commodities (1)	1956-57 (2)	1957-58 (3)
1. Rice—		
Coarse	16·89	17·33
Medium	19·03	22·66
Fine	19·88	26·50
2. Wheat	16·91	18·12
3. Jowar	11·04	10·96
4. Bajri	12·85	13·16
5. Gram	13·60	12·62
6. Cotton—		
Buri	29·46	30·47
Others	27·83	28·36
7. Groundnut—		
Big	15·44	13·92
Small	17·96	17·45
8. Castor-seed	15·44	N.A.
9. Linseed	18·73	18·48
10. Sesamum	29·28	15·61

Wage Trends.

Urban Wages.

Nagpur is an industrial city and comes next in importance to Bombay in Maharashtra. Textile and handloom weaving are the organised industries of immense importance. The labour force in textile and other manufacturing industries is guided by trade unions. However, a large number of workers are still not covered by the trade union organization. In the factories registered under the Factories Act, wage rates are governed by the rules under the Minimum Wages Act and the payment of wages in a specified manner is ensured thereby. But a considerable proportion of labour employed in very small industrial units and occupations remains untouched by any public or organised body and unprotected by any rules.

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Wage Trends.

Urban Wages.

In the absence of any authentic data regarding wages, no statistical accuracy is claimed for the following analysis of trends of wages.

Wages of labour in the textile industry in Nagpur have appreciated to a considerable extent since the fifties. Wages of the supervisory staff also showed an upward trend. But payments to daily workers do not keep pace with rising urban wages. Since the competition of mill-made cloth became more keen in recent times, the handloom weaving industry of Nagpur has been hard hit, and the average remuneration of the weaver is far below expectations. In the pre-war period, the weaver used to enjoy quite a good standard of living.

Money wages, meaning thereby payments in money, have gone up for the entire labour force. But the real wages, i.e., wages in terms of goods and services, have not appreciated much over the last 25 years. Though the rates of wages have increased, prices of the necessaries of life have also increased. It is a widely known fact that right from the beginning of the Second World War the inflationary pressure has been rising. Deficit financing under the Five-Year Plans, rising demand and stagnant or inadequate production have brought about rising prices. Wages, however, have lagged behind rising prices.

The common wage for casual labour in Nagpur city is Rs. 1.50 per day. The monthly wages for domestic servants vary between Rs. 15 and Rs. 25. A maid servant employed for washing utensils and clothes is paid about Rs. 5. In occupations like tailoring, blacksmithy, goldsmithy and laundering, the employees are paid on piece-rate basis. The average earnings of persons in such occupations have gone up considerably. The daily earnings of a tailor amount to Rs. 5 to Rs. 7. The wages of skilled and technical personnel in the urban areas of Nagpur district are definitely higher than those of the labourers in rural areas. A motor driver gets about Rs. 80 per month. A barber in the hair-cutting saloon gets Re. 0.50 to Re. 0.75 for hair-cut and Re. 0.25 for shave. His daily earnings amount to Rs. 4.

A salient feature of the trends of urban wages in Nagpur is that wages of industrial workers have increased to a greater extent than those of casual labour, domestic servants and unskilled labour. Earnings of fashionable tailors, hair-dressers and launderers have gone up by a very high degree.

Rural Wages.

Trends in rural wages have almost been consonant with those in urban wages. With the general increase in the price level, a reduction in the purchasing power of the rupee and rising employment due to development activities, the remuneration paid to the labourers engaged in agriculture, village crafts and subsidiary occupations has gone up by a considerable proportion. The spurt in prices consequent upon the First World War and the aftermath gave rise to higher wage rates. This trend continued till the Great Depression of 1930 set in. The year 1930 saw an extraordinary slump in the prices of agricultural produce which was a feature of the world-wide depression. "The wages of

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Wage Trends.

Rural Wages.

agricultural and other classes of labourers fell with the prices of agricultural produce and the only people who really benefited from the low cost of living were those who had fixed salaries or income, and had not adopted a European standard of living."*

The rural wages, however, began to rise from 1933-34. The spurt in the general price level during World War II accentuated the process. In 1938-39, a male field labourer was paid either 10 annas or four seers (i.e., 3.732 kg.) of jowar a day, whereas a female was given five annas or two seers (i.e., 1.866 kg.) of jowar. The earnings of field labourers in 1948-49 were Re. 1 for a man and six annas for a woman. Wages of all classes of labour have risen appreciably since 1957-58. In 1958-59, a male agricultural labourer was paid daily wages of Rs. 2 at the harvest and Rs. 1.50 all the year round. The corresponding wages for a woman were Rs. 1.25 and Re. 0.88 respectively. For skilled and strenuous agricultural operations like harvesting and threshing of jowar, a man was given a daily wage of Rs. 3. For sowing, interculturing, weeding, ploughing, harrowing, etc., a worker was paid Rs. 1.50. During the latter half of 1960 a male agricultural labourer was paid at a daily rate of Rs. 1.25 almost throughout the year, whereas a female labourer was paid Re. 0.50. In 1961, the wage-rate at some places was raised by Re. 0.25 in the case of a male agricultural labourer and Re. 0.12 in the case of a female agricultural labourer.†

Saldars (annual farm servants) were paid five *kudos* of jowar per month plus Rs. 60 per annum in 1938-39. In 1948-49 their earnings stood at five *kudos* of jowar per month. In keeping with the rising trend of wages in general, the annual earnings of a *Saldar* rose to Rs. 200 to Rs. 225 plus a monthly gift of six *kudos* of jowar in 1958-59.

The practice of making annual payments in kind to village artisans, known as the *Baluta* system, has prevailed for centuries in Nagpur district as well as in the entire Vidarbha region. The *balutedars* (village artisans), *viz.*, carpenters, blacksmiths, cobblers, barbers, washermen, *mahars*, etc., are given foodgrains and other agricultural produce per year for the services rendered by them to the agriculturists. The rates of payments are given in the relevant section of chapter IV.

This system formed an integral part of the rural economy of this area. However, with rapid changes in the socio-economic structure in rural areas, the system is showing signs of decline. The *balutedars* do not enjoy the patronage given to them formerly. The agriculturists are inclined more and more to obtain the services of the artisans for money instead of payment in kind. Due to the rise in food prices, the rigid payments in kind have become unprofitable to the agriculturists.

* Census of India, 1931, Central Provinces and Berar, Vol. XII, page 16.

† The figures have been derived from a survey of two villages in Nagpur district *viz.* Narkhed and Fetri. Whereas wage-rates were raised at Narkhed in 1961, at Fetri they remained almost standstill. The figures have been collected from "Agricultural Wages in India (1960-61)", Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.

CHAPTER 10—GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

INTRODUCTION.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE STATE in the last century consisted mostly in providing security to person and property and raising the revenue necessary for the purpose. In other words, Police, Jails and Judiciary representing security, and Land Revenue, Excise, Registration and Stamps representing revenue formed the most important departments of the State. The Public Works Department was the only other branch of sufficient importance, but its activities of construction and maintenance were, apart from roads and irrigation works, confined to buildings required for the departments of Government. With the spread of Western education and the growth of political-consciousness in the country, and as a result of the gradual association of a few Indians with some aspects of the work of Government the demand arose for the expansion of governmental activities into what were called "nation-building" departments, namely, Education, Health, Agriculture, Co-operation, etc. In the twenties and thirties of this century, after the introduction of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms, greater emphasis came to be laid on the development of these departments. When, as a result of the Government of India Act of 1935, complete popularisation of the Provincial Government took place in 1937, the new Government attempted not only to expand the "nation-building" departments but also to take steps in the direction of creating what has now come to be generally described as a Welfare State. After the close of World War II and the attainment of independence by India in 1947, an all-out effort is being made to achieve a Welfare State as rapidly as possible and to build up a socially directed economy. The present activities of the State, therefore, require a much more elaborate system than what was felt to be necessary during the nineteenth century.

In the description that follows in this chapter and in chapters 11—17 the departments of the State operating in the Nagpur district have been grouped as follows:—

Chapter 10—General Administration.

Chapter 11—Revenue Administration.

Chapter 12—Law, Order and Justice.

Chapter 13—Other Departments.

Chapter 14—Local Self-Government.

Chapter 15—Education and Culture.

Chapter 16—Medical and Public Health Services.

Chapter 17—Other Social Services.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

The Nagpur district consists of five tahsils, *viz.*, Nagpur, Katol, Saoner, Umrer and Ramtek. There are five prants or sub-divisions, each comprising one tahsil.

This district now covers an area of 3,834 square miles and according to the census of 1961 has a population of 15,12,807. The administrative divisions, as they stand at present, are as shown below:—

(1)	Area in Sq. miles (2)	Area in (Km².) (3)	Population (1961 census) (4)
Nagpur	811	2,100·48	8,28,455
Katol	614	1,590·25	1,67,850
Saoner	543	1,406·35	1,49,172
Umrer	969	2,509·70	1,92,177
Ramtek	897	2,323·22	1,75,153
Total ..	*3,834	9,904·15	15,12,807

FUNCTIONARIES.

Divisional Commissioner.

Nagpur district is included in Nagpur Division. The Divisional Commissioner, Nagpur Division, Nagpur, has jurisdiction over Bhandara, Chanda, Wardha, Akola, Amravati, Buldhana and Yeotmal districts also.

The Commissioner is the chief controlling authority of the Division in all matters concerned with land revenue and the administration of the Revenue Department. He acts as a link between the Collector and the Government. Appeals and revision applications against the orders of the Collector under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code and Tenancy Law lie with him. Besides revenue matters he is also responsible for supervision of the work of the Collectors in their capacity as District Magistrates. He is responsible for the development activities in the Division and has to supervise the work of regional officers of all departments concerned with development.

The following duties have been specifically laid down for the Commissioner:—

(*a*) Supervision of and control over the working of Revenue Officers throughout the division;

(*b*) Exercise of executive and administrative powers to be delegated by Government or conferred on him by law;

(*c*) General inspection of offices of all departments within the division;

(*d*) Inspection of local bodies on the lines done by the Director of Local Authorities in the pre-reorganisation State of Bombay;

*Figures taken from village records. Less by 8 square miles from the figures given by the Surveyor General.

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FUNCTIONARIES.

Divisional Commissioner.

(*e*) Co-ordination and supervision of the activities of all Divisional Heads of Departments with particular reference to planning and development;

(f) Integration of the administrative set-up in the incoming areas.

Collector.

The Collector is the head of the district administration and in so far as the need and exigencies of the district administration are concerned, he is expected to supervise the working of other departments also.

Revenue.

(i) *Revenue.*—The Collector is the custodian of Government property in land (including trees and water wherever situated) and at the same time the guardian of the interests of members of the public in land in so far as the interests of the Government in land have been conceded to them. All land, wherever situated, whether applied to agricultural or other purposes, is liable to payment of land revenue except in so far as it may be expressly exempted by a special contract. Such land revenue is of three kinds, *viz.*, agricultural assessment, non-agricultural assessment and miscellaneous. The Collector's duties are in respect of (1) fixation, (2) collection and (3) accounting of all such land revenue. The assessment is fixed on each piece of land roughly in proportion to its productivity. The assessment is revised every 30 years tahsil by tahsil. A revision survey and settlement is carried out by the Land Records department before a revision is made and the Collector is expected to review the settlement report with great care and caution. The assessment is usually guaranteed against increase for a period of 30 years. Government, however, grant suspensions and remissions in bad seasons and the determination of the amount of these suspensions and remissions is in the hands of the Collector. As regards non-agricultural assessment it can be altered when agriculturally assessed land is used for non-agricultural purposes. In the same way unassessed land used for a non-agricultural purpose is assessed to non-agricultural rates. All this has to be done by the Collector according to the provisions of the rules under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954. Miscellaneous land revenue also has to be fixed by the Collector according to the circumstances of each case when Government land is temporarily leased. It is also realised by sale of earth, stones, usufruct of trees, revenue fines, etc.

Land revenue collections.

The collection of land revenue rests with the Collector who has to see that the revenue dues are recovered punctually every year and with the minimum of coercion and that the collections are properly credited and accounted for in the branch of the *Wasul-Baki-Navis*, both at the tahsil level and the district level.

The following are the statistics relating to the land revenue collections in Nagpur district for the year 1960-61.

	Rs.
Khalsa	1936
Inam	Nil.
Gross fixed revenue including non-agricultural assessment and all other dues.	23,25,158

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Collector.

Land Revenue Collections.

Deduct—

Assessment assigned for special and public purposes including forest.	Nil.
Net alienation of total inams	Nil.
Assessment of cultivable lands unoccupied ..	Nil.
Free or specially reduced	Nil.
Remaining fixed revenue for collection—	..

	Rs.
Agricultural:	
Government occupied land including specially reduced.	23,25,158
Allenated lands	Nil.
Building and other non-agricultural assessment	Nil.
Fluctuating Miscellaneous revenue	1,08,568
Local Funds	4,05,632
Demand	44,30,814
Remissions	Nil.
Suspensions	1,878
Collections..	31,28,297
Unauthorised balance	13,00,639

The Collector is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other acts such as the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), the Indian Stamp Act (II of 1899), the Indian Court-fees Act (VII of 1870), the Bombay Entertainment Duty Act (I of 1923) and the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). There are also other revenue acts which contain a provision that dues under them are recoverable as arrears of land revenue. The Collector and his office have to undertake recovery of such dues whenever necessary.

In regard to the administration of the Forest Act the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the Forest department, so far as his district is concerned, lies with the Collector and the Divisional Forest Officer is his assistant for the administration except in matters relating to the technique of forestry.

As regards the Prohibition Act, the Collector has to issue personal permits to liquor and drug addicts. In fact, he is the agency through which the Director of Prohibition and Excise arranges to have the policy of the department carried out. The administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act in its proper spirit rests with the Collector. He is also an appellate authority to hear appeals under the various sections of these two Acts.

Inams.

(ii) *Inams.*—All inams have been abolished under the Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948 and donations or cash grants for charitable purposes, grant to religious, charitable and public institutions and to the descendants of the Ruling Chiefs under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, have been sanctioned.

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Collector.

Public Utility.

(iii) *Public Utility.*—The Agriculturists' Loans Act (XII of 1884) and the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1883) regulate the grant of loans to agriculturists at cheap rates for financing their agricultural operations. The Collector has to estimate the needs of his district in accordance with the policy of Government for the time being and in the event of a bad season, to make further demands for as much money as could be usefully loaned for the purpose of tiding over the need. He has to take necessary steps for the most advantageous distribution of the amount placed at his disposal and to see that the advances so made are recovered at the proper time. After the loans are advanced to the borrowers it is the duty of the Prant Officers and the Tahsildars to see that the loans are not utilised for purposes other than for which the same were advanced.

Accounts.

(iv) *Accounts.*—The separation of the treasury and revenue cadres at the district level has come into force with effect from April 1, 1955. Before the separation of the treasury work from the Revenue department, the Treasury Officer was from Revenue department and he had to perform various important executive functions in that connection. After the separation, the Treasury Officer became a member of the cadre of Maharashtra State Accounts Service and functioned independently. The treasuries are under the administrative control of the Finance department. At the district headquarters the cash business has been taken over by the Reserve Bank of India and at the tahsil headquarters of Ramtek, Saoner and Katol, where there are non-banking treasuries, the cash business rests with the sub-treasuries managed by the Sub-Treasury Officers. Only Umrer sub-treasury is the banking treasury and here the cash business is with the bank. The accounts are submitted to the Accountant General and the instructions laid down in the Accounts Codes and Compilation of Treasury Rules are followed by the District Treasury. Before the separation of treasuries from Revenue department the Collector and the Accountant General carried out periodical inspections of treasuries. As a measure of administrative control the Collector inspects the District Treasury once in a year before the close of the financial year and the Deputy Collectors inspect the sub-treasuries similarly. The Collector does not, however, participate in the daily routine of treasury business. For that work the Treasury Officer is his delegate and representative.

Quasi-judicial functions in revenue matters.

Among these functions of the Collector on the revenue side apart from hearing appeals from the decisions of the Sub-Divisional Officers under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code and various other Acts may be mentioned: (i) the revisional powers exercised under section 23 of the Bombay Mamlatdar's Courts Act (II of 1906) in respect of Tahsildar's orders under the Act. (This power is delegated to the Deputy Collector); (ii) appellate powers under sections 53 and 57 of the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879); (iii) the work which the Collector does in connection with the execution of Civil Court decrees; and (iv) proceedings and awards under section 11 of the Land Acquisition Act (I of 1894).

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration

FUNCTIONARIES.

Collector.

Local Self-Government.

With the passing of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, vital changes were effected in the Village Panchayat Administration. It is now looked after by Village Panchayats constituted for the villages. The Collector is empowered to hold elections and bye-elections to the municipalities and the Village Panchayats. The various Acts governing local bodies have conferred upon the Collector as the chief representative of Government authority to supervise the actions of the local bodies and to give them advice.

Officers of other departments.

The officers of other departments stationed at the district head-quarters can be divided into two groups: (1) Officers on Divisional Level and (2) Officers on District Level.

Officers on Divisional level.—(1) Senior Judge, High Court of Bombay, Nagpur Bench, (2) Member, Maharashtra Revenue Tribunal, Nagpur, (3) Regional Deputy Director of Land Records, Nagpur, (4) Deputy Director of Excise and Prohibition, (5) Deputy Inspector General of Police, Nagpur Region, (6) Regional Publicity Officer, (7) Regional Organiser, Radio Rural Forum, (8) Regional Transport Officer, (9) Assistant Secretary, Finance Department, (10) Deputy Commissioner, Sales Tax, Eastern Division, (11) Deputy Secretary, Law and Judiciary, (12) Superintending Engineer, Buildings and Communications, Nagpur, (13) Deputy Director of Medical Services, Nagpur, (14) Deputy Director of Public Health Services, Nagpur, (15) Superintending Engineer, Eastern Public Health Circle, (16) Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government, Town Planning Department, (17) Deputy Director of Animal Husbandry, (18) Administrative Medical Officer, Employees State Insurance Scheme, Vidarbha Region, (19) Assistant Director, Drugs Control, (20) Superintending Agricultural Officer, (21) Conservator of Forests, Chanda Circle, (22) Conservator of Forests, Nagpur Circle, (23) Regional Dairy Development Officer, Milk Scheme, (24) Deputy Director of Technical Education, (25) Deputy Director of Industries, (26) Deputy Commissioner of Labour, (27) Deputy Chief Inspector of Factories, (28) Member, State Industrial Court, (29) Assistant Director of Government Stationery Department, (30) Assistant Director of Fisheries, (31) Regional Assistant Controller, Iron and Steel, (32) Director of Geology and Mining, (33) Assistant Charity Commissioner, Public Trusts, (34) Assistant Director of Accounts and Treasuries, (35) Regional Social Welfare Officer, (36) Superintending Engineer, Nagpur Irrigation Circle.

Officers on District level.—(1) Commandant, District Sailors', Soldiers' and Airmen's Board, (2) District Superintendent of Police (City and Rural separately), (3) Superintendent of Police, South-Eastern Railway, (4) Deputy Superintendent of Police, C.I.D. Unit, (5) Deputy Superintendent of Police, Anti-Corruption, (6) District Commandant, Home Guards, (7) Superintendent, Central Prison, (8) Superintendent, Government Central Workshop, (9) District Statistical Officer, (10) District and Sessions Judge, (11) Executive Engineer, Nagpur Electrical Division, (12) Principal, Public Health Institute, (13) Executive Engineer, Public Health Project Division, (14) Executive

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Collector.

Officers of other departments.

Engineer, Works Division, (15) Executive Engineer, Water Sources Investigation Division No. 3, (16) Civil Surgeon, (17) Medical Superintendent, Mental Hospital, (18) Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, (19) Sub-Regional Employment Officer, (20) Joint Registrar, Co-operative Societies, (21) Manager, Government Press, (22) Officer-in-charge, Departmental Enquiries, (23) Treasury Officer.

The Officers at the Divisional Level mentioned above have to consult the Collector or the District Magistrate in connection with the policy matters lest they may disturb the district administration. As regards the officers at the District level their services in their particular spheres can be requisitioned by the Collector either directly or through their official superiors. These officers of the district have more or less intimate contacts with the Collector in matters relating to their departments and have to carry out his general instructions.

District Magistrate.

The Collector's duties as District Magistrate are mostly executive. He is at the head of all other Executive Magistrates in the district. He exercises the powers under the Criminal Procedure Code and the Indian Penal Code.

When authorised by the State Government the District Magistrate may invest any magistrate subordinate to him with the necessary powers. Besides being in control of the police in the district, the District Magistrate has extensive powers under the Criminal Procedure Code and the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951) and other Acts for the maintenance of Law and Order. It is his duty to examine the records of police stations in order that he may gain insight into the state of crimes in the limits of the police stations and satisfy himself that cases are being promptly disposed of.

In his executive capacity, the District Magistrate is concerned with the issue of licences and permits under the Arms Act (II of 1878), the Petroleum Act (VIII of 1899), the Explosives Act (IV of 1884) and the Poisons Act (I of 1904). He has also to supervise the general administration of these Acts and functions laid down thereunder.

Sanitation and Public Health.

The duties of the Collector in the matter of sanitation are (*a*) to see that ordinary and special sanitary measures are initiated in cases of outbreaks of epidemic diseases, (*b*) to watch and stimulate the efficiency of the daily sanitary administration of municipal committees and other sanitary authorities, and (*c*) to advise and encourage local bodies to improve the permanent sanitary condition of the areas under them so far as the funds at their disposal will allow. He can freely requisition the advice and technical assistance of the District Health Officer and the Assistant Director of Public Health, Nagpur.

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Collector.

The District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.

The Collector in his capacity as President of the D.S.S.&A Board exercises overall control of the Board with the assistance of a paid Secretary duly appointed from the retired military officer's cadre. He maintains liaison between the ex-servicemen and their dependents, with the help of the staff sanctioned for the Board by the Government. The constitution of the Board is as under:—

The District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board is composed of 12 members, a vice-President and a President. The Collector is the ex-officio President of the Board while a retired military officer acts as the vice-President. This Board meets periodically and tackles problems, confronting the ex-servicemen and their dependents.

Control of essential articles.

There were 300 fair price shops functioning in the district as on 31-7-63 for the sale of rice, wheat and sugar. In addition to these, 278 authorised sugar shops have been allotted to Nagpur city only for the distribution of sugar to consumers. The periodical inspection of fair price shops and sugar shops by the inspecting staff ensures efficiency in the working of these shops and prevents malpractices.

Collector's Office.

The Collector's office at Nagpur is divided into the following sections:—

(1) Local Fund; (2) Finance; (3) Treasury; (4) Criminal; (5) (a) Revenue, (b) Revenue Accounts, (c) Grow More Food, (d) Floods, (e) Tenancy; (6) Land Records; (7) Excise and Prohibition; (8) Miscellaneous, *viz.*, (a) Forms and Stationery, (b) Tax, (c) Library, (d) Records, Revenue and Judicial, (9) Food and Civil Supplies; (10) Rehabilitation; (11) Elections; (12) District Village Panchayat; (13) Small Savings; (14) Census; (15) Mining; (16) Vigilance and (17) War.

The sections were introduced in this Collectorate in the middle of 1960. Deputy Collectors at headquarters are kept in charge of these branches or sections.

Prant Officers.

Under the Collector are the Prant officers who are either Assistant Collectors (I.A.S. officers) or District Deputy Collectors (Members of the Maharashtra Civil Service). There are in all five prants or sub-divisions, in the district which are in charge of Sub-Divisional Officers.

Deputy Collectors at Headquarters.

There are ten Deputy Collectors at the District Headquarters for purposes of administration. Their designations are as follows:—

1. Resident Deputy Collector and Additional District Magistrate.
2. Additional District Magistrate (Executive).
3. City Magistrate.
4. Leave Reserve Deputy Collector.
5. Nazul Officer.

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Prant Officers.

Deputy Collectors at Headquarters.

6. Land Acquisition Officer (Nagpur Improvement Trust).
7. Rent Controller.
8. Special Land Acquisition Officer (Umrer Coal Project).
9. Special Land Acquisition Officer (Defence Project).
10. Deputy Collector for Tenancy Law.

The Prant Officers form the connecting link between the Tahsildars, and the Collector. A Prant Officer exercises all the powers conferred on the Collector by the M. P. Land Revenue Code and any other law in force or by executive orders in regard to the tahsils in his charge, except such powers as the Collector may specially reserve to himself.

Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars.

Each tahsil is in charge of a Tahsildar. There is also one Additional Tahsildar for tenancy law posted at each of the tahsils. At each of the tahsils except Nagpur there are four to five Naib-Tahsildars to assist the Tahsildar in the efficient performance of the revenue and other work in the tahsil. At Nagpur there are 12 Naib-Tahsildars as the tahsil is bigger and includes the city of Nagpur also. Besides, there are one Nazul Tahsildar and three Nazul Naib-Tahsildars under him for the performance of Nazul work in the Nagpur city. There are two Sales Tax Tahsildars and one Sales Tax Naib-Tahsildar for the recovery of Sales Tax and Income-Tax dues. Besides these, the following are other officers of Tahsildars' grade:—

Public Relations Officer,
Special Land Acquisition Officer,
Tahsildar (Small Savings) and
Tahsildar (Food Grains Distribution).

Each tahsil has been divided into revenue circles (four to five circles). Each such circle contains 90 to 110 villages. For every revenue circle a Revenue Inspector is appointed for the revenue work of that circle. Patwaris are appointed for *Halkas*; each *Halka* contains on an average three to four villages depending upon the size of the village.

Duties.

(i) *Revenue.*—The Tahsildar's revenue duties are to enquire and report on cases under various Sections of the M. P. Land Revenue Code and other acts to the higher officers who have powers to dispose of the matters. There are certain powers under the M. P. Land Revenue Code, 1954, vested in the Tahsildars under which they themselves can dispose of certain matters.

In regard to the annual demand and collection of land revenue he is to prepare the *Jamabandi* of the tahsil. The *Jamabandi* of a tahsil is an audit of the pervious years' accounts. The demand for fixed agricultural revenue as well as the non-agricultural demand is settled. There are remissions and suspensions to be calculated upon the fixed demand in lean years. Remissions and suspensions are given in accordance with

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars.

Duties.

the crop *annewari* with the determination of which the Tahsildar is most intimately concerned. To the demand of fixed revenue is added the amount of non-agricultural assessment and fluctuating land revenue, such as that arising from the sale of trees, stones, sand, melon beds, etc., when the individuals apply for them.

The main burden of the work of collection of land revenue, tagai dues and other dues recoverable as arrears of land revenue falls on the Tahsildar. He can issue notices, impose fines, distrain and sell moveable or immoveable property under the provisions of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954. In short, he is to follow the procedure laid down in various Sections of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 and the Rules thereunder.

It is also his duty to see that there is no breach of any of the conditions of the lease or any irregularities or encroachments upon Government land and to take immediate cognizance.

Applications for grant of tagai are received by the Tahsildar who makes enquiries into them through the Patwaris (Assistant Gram Sevaks), inspects the sites for the improvement of which tagai is sought, ascertains whether the security offered is sufficient, determines what instalments for repayment would be suitable, etc. Under the provisions of the Agriculturists Loans Act and the Land Improvement Loans Act there are certain limits up to which he himself can grant the loan. If the granting of the loan is not within his powers he enquires into the case thoroughly and submits his report in the case for the orders of the Sub-Divisional Officer or the Collector, whoever is competent to pass final orders regarding the grant of the loan.

The Tahsildar's duties regarding tagai do not end with the granting of it; he has to see that the loan in question is properly utilised, inspect the works undertaken with it, watch the payment and make recoveries from the defaulters. The Tahsildars are primarily responsible for the administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) within the areas under his charge.

Additional Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars (Mahalkaris) have been appointed for each tahsil for the work in connection with the implementation of the Tenancy Law. The Tahsildars are in overall charge of the tahsil administration and are not in any way concerned with matters coming under the purview of the Tenancy Law for which Additional Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars are appointed.

(ii) *Quasi-Judicial.*—There are multifarious duties the Tahsildar has to do in his capacity as a tahsil officer. He is also to enquire in respect of disputed cases in connection with the Record of Rights in each village. The matters which the Tahsildar has to enquire into are registered under appropriate heads mentioned in the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars.

Duties.

(iii) *Magisterial.*—Every Tahsildar is the ex-officio Taluka Magistrate of his tahsil. The Naib-Tahsildars are also appointed as Taluka Magistrates. They are to hear chapter cases under the Criminal Procedure Code from various police stations allotted to them. They have to keep the District Magistrate and the Sub-Divisional Magistrates informed of all the criminal activities in their charge and take steps incidental to the maintenance of law and order in their charge with the aid of police.

(iv) *Treasury and Accounts.*—As a sub-treasury officer the Tahsildar is in charge of the tahsil treasury which is called Sub-treasury. The Sub-treasuries are under the control of the Naib-Tahsildars designated as Sub-Treasury Officers. All moneys due to Government in the tahsil from land revenue, forest, excise, public works, sales tax and income tax dues and other receipts are paid into this treasury and credited to the receipt heads and drawn from it under cheques and bills. The tahsil sub-treasury is also the local depot for stamps, general court-fee and postal of all denominations and for the stock of opium held there for sale to permit-holders.

A currency chest is maintained at almost all sub-treasuries in which surplus cash balances are deposited. From it withdrawals are made to replenish sub-treasury balances. Sub-treasuries are treated as agencies of the Reserve Bank of India for remittance of funds.

The Tahsildar has to verify the balances in the sub-treasury, including those of stamps and opium, on the closing day of each month. The report of the verification, together with the monthly returns of receipts under different heads, has to be submitted by the Tahsildar to the Treasury at Nagpur. The Sub-Treasuries are annually inspected by the Collector and the Sub-Divisional Officers. The District Treasury is also inspected every year by the Collector.

(v) *Other administrative duties.*—In addition to the duties mentioned above he is responsible to the Collector and the Sub-Divisional Officer. He has to keep them constantly informed of all political happenings, outbreak of epidemics and other matters.

He generally helps or guides the officers of other departments in the execution of their respective duties in so far as his tahsil is concerned. He is responsible for the cattle census. The Tahsildar is also expected to propagate co-operative principles in his tahsil. The Tahsildar's position in relation to the tahsil officers of other departments, *e.g.*, the Station Officers of the Police Department, the Sub-Registrar, the Range Forest Officer, Medical Officer, Postmaster, etc., is not definable. Though they are not subordinate to him they are grouped round him and are expected to help and co-operate with him in their spheres.

Though the Tahsildar is not expected to work directly for local bodies he is usually the principal source of the Collector's information about them.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Revenue Inspectors.

In order to assist the Tahsildar in exercising proper supervision over the village officers and village servants Revenue Inspectors are appointed for every Revenue Inspector's circle. Each such Revenue Inspector has under him 25 to 30 Patwaris (Assistant Gram Sewaks). They form a link between the Tahsildar and the village population.

The main duties of the Revenue Inspector as laid down in various manuals concerning revenue matters, and particularly the Revenue Inspector's Manual are as follows:—

(1) To supervise the work of Patwari.

(2) To prepare, maintain and check *rasid bahis*.

(3) To visit each patwari circle in his charge once in three months and each village once in each touring season.

(4) To submit report to Tahsildar and the Sub-Divisional Officer with a copy to District Inspector of Land Records regarding condition of crops, rainfall, prices of foodgrains, fodder and water condition when called upon to do so.

(5) To report the occurrence of any calamity i.e., outbreak of cattle disease, epidemic or anything unusual affecting the condition of the people, crop or cattle.

(6) To conduct survey or measurement of land, prepare any maps or superintend any survey operations whenever required to do so by the revenue officers.

(7) To make local enquiry in respect of correctness of entries in village records and collect information relating to land or agriculture when required by any revenue officer.

(8) To make immediate reports regarding damage from hailstorms, locust, floods, fires, etc., and failure of water-supply, permanent deterioration of land from diluvion, etc.

(9) To attest all entries made by the patwaris in Khasara relating to any land improvement to ensure the exemption of such improvements from assessment.

(10) To watch the proper utilization of loans granted under Land Improvement Loans Act and Agriculturists' Loans Act and report cases of misappropriation to Tahsildar for necessary action.

(11) To detect and report the cases of diversion of Agricultural loans to non-agricultural purposes.

(12) To maintain a register of survey appliances passed by the patwaris and to check the instruments once in every three months.

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Revenue Inspectors.

(13) To check and sign the traced maps, copies of Khasara and Kistbandi prepared by the patwaris in connection with land acquisition work.

(14) To certify mutations only when they follow from the execution or cancellation of a conditional sale or relate to the imposition or discharge of a mortgage.

Patils.

The *Patil* is the principal village official. The duties of the Patil are laid down in section 207 (Chapter XVII) of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 (M. P. II of 1955). Prior to 1st January 1963 there were Revenue and Police Patils functioning at some villages. From 1st January 1963 the posts of revenue patils have been abolished. In smaller villages only one person was doing the duties of revenue as well as police patil. The police patil's duties are laid down in Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867).

Patwaris.

Generally one patwari is appointed for two or three villages which are small. The charge depends on the size of the village and Khasara numbers under each charge. The villages in his charge comprise a Halka. His main duties are—

(1) To prepare Panchsala Khasara as per roster approved by the Collector,

(2) To write land revenue or rental demand in Rasid Bahis,

(3) To prepare Kistbandi Goshwara,

(4) To prepare statements of sales and leases for selected villages in the prescribed form,

(5) To prepare grazing lists for issuing charai passes,

(6) To prepare tenants' list after Girdawari every year,

(7) To report cases of diversion of agricultural land to non-agricultural purposes,

(8) To report regarding breaches of condition of Nistar Wajib-ul-arz,

(9) To submit forecast reports of every crop in time to the district officers,

(10) To report about farm prices of commodities sold in weekly markets from selected villages,

(11) To help in the recovery of land revenue and other Government dues during the visit of revenue officers,

(12) To prepare Irsal-patti,

(13) To supply necessary village records to *chakbandi* officers and also to help them in their work,

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Village Servants.

The village servants or Kotwals are appointed on fixed remuneration and are granted service *inam* lands. There is generally a Kotwal appointed by Government where the village is small. More than one are appointed where the village is big. They assist the village officers to collect land revenue, to summon villagers to the *chavdi*, to carry the land revenue to the tahsil office, to help the Patil in the detection of offences and to help to apprehend known criminals and to keep law and order in the village. Their services have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad since December 1, 1962.

CHAPTER 11—REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

INTRODUCTION.

WITH THE DAWN OF INDEPENDENCE and the idea of establishing a Welfare State, Government activities and expenditure have increased manifold. It is therefore imperative that sources other than land revenue are explored to augment the revenue of the exchequer. Taxes, both Central and State, form the core of Government revenue.

In what follows is described in brief the functioning of those Government departments which are entrusted with the administration of these taxes.

THE DEPARTMENT OF LAND RECORDS.

LAND RECORDS.

Introduction.

The district was a part of the Central Provinces formed in the year 1861, and there was no law regulating the land revenue administration in the district up to 1881. The age old system of settlement and collection of land revenue was followed in the district and in some parts the provisions of the Bengal Land Revenue Laws were applicable. There was neither uniformity nor scientific basis on which settlement and collection of Land Revenue was done. During the earlier days of the British Rule few had any idea of the proprietary rights in land. But due to the diffusion of western education and legal ideas the land holders and the Government were placed apart from each other. The old system was waning away and the need for laws to define settlement and revenue collection was keenly felt. Accordingly the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act was passed in 1881.

The Land Revenue system prevalent in Nagpur district is *Rayatwari* and is based on a complete survey, soil classification and settlement of the assessment of every field. The original survey settlements were introduced in the district between 1863 and 1866, and the revision settlements between 1891 and 1895. The second revision settlements, introduced between 1912 and 1917, are still in force. Thus the whole district has been surveyed, classified and settled.

The current settlement period had expired in all the tahsils of the district and the question of taking up revision settlement work was under consideration of the former Madhya Pradesh Government. The preliminary forecast report of the district was prepared in the year 1953. However, due to certain administrative difficulties, the settlement operations were held in abeyance.

Survey.

In this district the theodolite frame work is done on what is known as 'Gales closed traverse' method and detailed cadastral maps are drawn to a scale of 16 inches to a mile, i.e., 10 chains

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Survey.

to an inch by plane table method. The village maps thus prepared are the only measurement and record available as no *tippan utaras* of each survey number or holding were prepared at the time of original or revision survey. The unit of area is the English acre and the area is calculated up to two decimal points in acres by Acre Comb or planimeter as the case may be. The traverse frame work is maintained up-to-date by periodical inspection. There are no boundary marks in the shape of stones to the individual holdings.

At present all the measurement work is done by the *patwaris* with the chain and optical square in all cases requiring measurement pertaining to sub-divisions, conversion to non-agricultural land acquisition, etc., and all corrections made in the map and the village copy of the *khasara*. According to the present procedure all the changes effected during the currency of settlement are taken into account at the time of next settlement and the village maps and other records are brought up-to-date by undertaking field operations on a large scale under the supervision of the Settlement Officer.

Village, Tahsil & District maps for Surveyed villages.

After a careful survey at the time of settlement of a village or a mahal, a map is prepared and attached to the settlement records. In this map, separate plots of land as assigned to each tenant or cultivator are shown and the same numbers are referred to in the *khasara* numbers allotted, not only to each plot of land which is actually brought under cultivation, but also to all lands cultivable or uncultivable, rivers, nullahs, hills and mountains including *abadi* lands. No system of construction or maintenance of boundary marks for each field or survey number was introduced as the *Malguzar* system was prevailing in the district. Two maps were prepared at the time of each settlement, one called the "reference map" deposited in the district record room and the other working map, given to the *patwari* for his day-to-day use. When the necessity for a fresh map arises, the *patwari* is required to make fresh traces from the settlement sheet with the help of tracing glass. Such portions as are subsequently surveyed and corrected are then traced or plotted from the working map. From these village maps tahsil maps (called *majmuli* maps) are constructed on a scale of 1"=2 miles (3.219 km.). No district maps are separately constructed but they are prepared by posting the tahsil maps together.

Soil classification.

The soil classification (as in the districts of the former Bombay State) has been primarily devised for the equitable distribution of assessment. In Nagpur district, the soils are denoted by common names by which the cultivators themselves recognise them, such as *kali, kanhar, khardi, bardi,* etc.

The depth and quality of soil along with the productivity of land is primarily considered as also its position, i.e., the layout of surface, irrigation, embankments, advantages such as proximity to the village sites from which it receives manure (the crop capacity), nearness to jungle, etc. Faults recognised in Bombay system like valsar, chunkhad, gochu, reswat, etc., are not recognised as they

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Soil classification.

stand included in the description of the particular class of land separately recognised, *viz.*, kali I would mean Kali without faults while kali II would mean with faults. Position of these soils have been classified as *saman, sadharan* and *pathar* meaning flat, ordinary and sloping of cut up land, respectively.

The Soil unit system and factor scale.

Under the soil unit system devised by Mr. J. B. Euller, late Commissioner of Settlements, large number of soils recognised in the classification system gave rise to the question of fixation of superiority of soils and positions. This is achieved by what is technically known as a factor scale. The figures taken to represent the relative value of each class of soil are technically known as factor. The exact figures taken are immaterial provided their relative proportion is unaltered. It is, however, the usual practice to take 32 or in some settlements 30 as representing the comparative value of one acre of average black soil with no special advantages or disadvantages of position and to frame the scale of factors on that basis.

Settlement and Assessment.

Before the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954, came into force, the settlement procedure, as prescribed under the Settlement Code of the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act of 1891 was followed. This Act after being in force for nearly 35 years was repealed by the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act, 1917, and subsequently by the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code of 1954 (II of 1955). Under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954:—

(1) 'Settlement' indicates the results of the operations of a "Revenue Survey" carried out in order to determine the land revenue payable on all agricultural lands and the period during which such results are to be enforced is called the "term of settlement" (section 55) and this period shall in no case be less than 20 years [section 80 (2)].

(2) The Settlement Officer appointed by the State Government under section 59 (1) is required to examine fully the past revenue history of the area under settlement with a view to assessing the general effect of the existing incidence of assessment on economic conditions of the area during the period of current settlement with particular reference to the various statistical data available.

The Settlement Officer collects information in respect of the following matters in the manner prescribed under Section 70 and rules under Section 73 by local enquiries in as many villages as possible:—

(1) Position of the group and the number of villages which it contains.

(2) Important natural features, communications and trade.

(3) Population.

(4) Soils and any distinctive features in the system of agriculture in the group.

(5) Cultivation, irrigation and the number of ploughs.

(6) Cropping.

(7) Distribution of the occupied area between different classes of holders of land.

(8) History of assessment and the present pressure of assessment of soil-class.

(9) Appreciation of the general circumstances of the group with special reference to—

(a) Whether the area under cultivation has expanded or contracted,

(b) Whether the existing assessment has been collected with care or not,

(c) Whether the material conditions of the people are prosperous or otherwise,

(d) Markets and communications,

(e) History of prices of main staple crops,

(f) Selling and letting values of land, consideration paid for leases, sales prices of land and principal money on mortgages,

(g) Figures of profits of cultivation, and

(h) Such other factors as may be directed to be dealt with under separate instructions.

(10) Extent of enhancement, if any, and the justifiable standard rate.

(11) Estimated increase in the revenue demand as a result of his settlement proposals and proposed term of settlement.

The standard rates approved by the State Government will be so fixed that the aggregate enhanced assessment on the agricultural lands shall not exceed the existing assessment by fifty per cent, as laid down under section 76 (6).

The assessment of a holding in which improvements have been effected at any time during the period of the current settlement by or at the expense of the holder thereof, is fixed, as if no such improvements had been made [Section 76 (6)] in order to induce the cultivators to invest money for improvement of their lands.

The Settlement Officer formulates his proposals of settlement on the above basis and submits his proposals to the State Government in statements 1 and 2 prescribed by rules made under Section 73.

The assessment is fixed *khatawise* and on the whole due consideration is given to the practical side of fixation of assessment with a view to its unimpeded recovery during the period of settlement. But this practice of fixing the rent is found to be disregarded and reduced to the minimum during the recent settlement. Assessments, whether original or revised, are notified in

the village in form C and are proclaimed by beat of drums in the village concerned at least a fortnight prior to the date specified for such a declaration. During the announcement of assessment of each survey number any errors in area or assessment of any holding due to mistake of survey or mathematical miscalculations pointed out by any person, are corrected.

Provision is made for putting forth any objections by the agriculturists and the notice of the intention of the State Government to make Settlement is duly published together with the proposals based on the forecast for determination of "Revenue Survey" [Section 63 (2)].

The forecasts and the proposals together with the objections received thereunder from agriculturists and other persons interested are placed before each of the two Houses of the State Legislature before issuing the notification of proposed Revenue Survey (Section 64).

On approval of the proposals regarding the 'Factor scale' and assessment rates under rule 27 made under section 87 of the Code assessment on each holding is calculated. The revised assessment shall not exceed the prior assessment by more than 50 per cent. The unit rate suited to each village is fixed in the group. This unit rate multiplied by the factor for each class of soil will be the acreage rate applicable to the village and on this basis of acreage rate the deduced assessments on individual holdings will be calculated and final figures of assessment eventually fixed (Rule 28 under Section 87).

A settlement, ordinarily remains in force for 30 years [Section 80 (1)] but the State Government, may, for reasons to be recorded in detail, fix the term which may be less than 30 years but which shall in no case be less than 20 years [Section 80 (2)].

The Settlement Officer prepares the following papers (Section 45):—

(*a*) *Khewat* or statement of persons possessing proprietary rights in the mahal, including inferior proprietors or leases or mortgages in possession, specifying the nature and extent of the interest of each.

(*b*) *Khasara* or field book, in which shall be entered the names of all persons cultivating or occupying the land, the right in which it is held, and the rent, if any, payable.

(*c*) *Jamabandi* or lists of persons cultivating or occupying land in the village.

(*d*) Field map of the village except when otherwise directed.

(*e*) The village administration paper (*wajib-ul-arz*).

(*f*) Such other papers as may be prescribed by rules.

Every Record of Right must necessarily contain (*a*) *Khewat*, (*b*) *Khasara*, (*c*) *Jamabandi* and (*d*) Field map.

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LAND RECORDS.

Record of Rights.

Prior to the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954, no Record of Rights was introduced in the district.

In the districts of Nagpur, Wardha, Bhandara and Chanda only interim Record of Rights was introduced as per Section 115 (1) of the Code. The full-fledged Record of Rights under Section 103 is yet to be prepared. The Record of Rights under Sections 103 and 115 (1) of the Code includes—

(*a*) names of all persons, other than tenants, who are holders of land,

(*b*) names of all occupancy tenants and protected lessee and other tenants,

(*c*) nature and extent of the respective interests of such persons and the conditions of liabilities, if any, attached thereto,

(*d*) rent or land revenue, if any, payable by such persons, and

(*e*) such other particulars as may be prescribed.

The provisions of the Central Provinces Grazing and Nistar Act of 1948, specify the rights of public in Government land. As per Section 3 (1) of the Act, the right of a resident of a village in respect of cattle grazing and collection of jungle produce (called as Nistar rights) are regulated.

Functions.

Functions of the Land Records Department are as follows:—

(i) to maintain all survey, classification and settlement records up-to-date by keeping careful note of all changes by conducting field operations preliminary to incorporation of the changes in the survey records,

(ii) to collect and provide statistical information necessary for the sound administration of all matters connected with land,

(iii) to simplify the procedure and reduce the cost of litigation in revenue and civil courts by providing reliable survey and other land records for the purposes,

(iv) to supervise the preparation and maintenance of Record of Rights by periodical inspection and maintenance and repairs of the boundary marks of individual fields,

(v) to conduct periodical revision settlement operations,

(vi) to organise and carry out surveys of village sites on an extensive scale and arrange for their proper maintenance,

(vii) to maintain up-to-date all the village maps by incorporating necessary changes as and when they occur,

(viii) to maintain all tahsil maps up-to-date, to reprint them and to arrange for their distribution to various departments for administrative purposes and for sale to public, and

(ix) to train the revenue officers in survey and settlement matters.

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Functions.

The land records work in the district is directly supervised by the Collector who is the administrative head of the department in the district and is assisted by an officer in charge of the land records section. The District Inspector of Land Records, Nagpur, works under the direct guidance of the officer-in-charge and the Collector. The District Inspector of Land Records is a gazetted officer of Mamlatdar's rank. He is the principal inspecting agent in respect of all technical work of the field staff and is responsible to the Collector for exercising effective control over the land records staff and for maintaining requisite work.

He is subordinate to the Superintendent of Land Records, Nagpur Circle, Nagpur, for technical matters only.

Duties and functions of the District Inspector of Land Records and his staff.

The field duties of the District Inspector of Land Records and his Assistants are—

(*a*) inspection of Land Records work of villages in *Patwari* circles including *Khasara* (Crop statement), Record of Rights, tenancy work and also certification of mutation,

(*b*) checking of map correction work,

(*c*) checking of survey work done by Cadastral Surveyors and Revenue Inspectors,

(*d*) checking of Land Revenue Demand Register, Day Book and *Rasid Bahis*, etc.,

(*e*) checking of vital statistics,

(*f*) checking of *Siwai* income,

(*g*) checking of grazing list,

(*h*) checking of mining or quarrying leases,

(*i*) seeing that the mining or quarry areas are not used or occupied without payment of compensation for surface rights,

(*j*) determining surface rent for mining or quarrying leases,

(*k*) inspection of *kanungo* offices,

(*l*) inspection of *patwari* and Revenue Inspectors offices (Daftars),

(*m*) detection of cases regarding diversion of agricultural lands to other purposes and their regularisation through the Sub-Divisional Officers,

(*n*) detection of encroachments on Government lands,

(*o*) inspection of *taccavi* works and to ascertain whether the *taccavi* loans are properly utilised for the purpose for which they are advanced,

(*p*) inspection of rainguages,

(*q*) conducting crop experiments,

(*r*) inspection of repairs of boundary marks, and

(*s*) checking of sub-divisions (*Pot Hissas*).

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LAND RECORDS.

Functions.

District Cadastral and Maintenance Surveyors.

Revenue Inspectors.

Previously there were no posts of Cadastral Surveyors. Recently the posts have been created and their services have been placed under the direct supervision of the District Inspector of Land Records.

The staff of Revenue Inspectors is primarily meant (1) to assist the revenue officers in the up-to-date maintenance of the village records and Land Records kept at the village level; (2) to assist the revenue administration. They are, therefore, under the supervision of the District Inspector of Land Records and are controlled by the Collector. They supervise the work of village officers. Their technical work of maintenance of Land Records at the village is supervised by the District Inspector of Land Records.

City and Town Surveys.

City survey has been introduced in the district under Section 64 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code and the survey records prepared, *viz.*, *Khasara*, measurement sheets, and demand registers are regularly maintained.

Unlike other surveyed and settled towns of Vidarbha the Nazul in Nagpur city does not cover the entire area of the city, but it covers only a small part which has been surveyed in isolated pieces of land called *Declared Nazul Plots* which are scattered in different parts of the city, and some survey numbers of villages which were surveyed as agricultural fields. The following is the brief history of the preparation of Nazul records of Nagpur town.

The record of the declared Nazul plots was prepared at the last Nazul Settlement under the provisions of the Central Provinces Land Revenue Act, 1917. Under Section 40 of the 1881 Act and the corresponding Section 63 of 1917 Act, when any local area is under settlement, the Settlement Officer is required to make lists of all lands which have no lawful owner, and shall issue proclamation declaring his intention to demarcate such lands as the property of Government. Thereafter when it is lawfully decided that all plots on which no private person could establish his claim were declared as the property of Government and were notified as such. These plots were called "Declared Nazul Plots."

Most of the Government land in the various revenue villages within the limits of the Nagpur Municipal Corporation has been transferred to the "Nagpur Improvement Trust" for the purpose of management. The land has been developed by the Trust by preparing layouts and by providing other facilities.

As regards Kamptee town, it is not regularly surveyed and settled. The maintenance of the Nazul records is carried out on the basis of the records received from the cantonment authorities in the year 1927 and the records prepared thereafter. Before 1927, the Sadar area which is now termed as Nazul was formerly a part under the cantonment authorities. In the year 1927, the Government of India transferred the management of this area to the civil authorities. The cantonment authorities transferred 428.15 hectares (1058 acres) to the Revenue Department for management with the records. The records handed over by the

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City and Town Surveys.

District Cadastral and Maintenance Surveyors.

cantonment authorities were found incomplete for regular maintenance work and therefore 17 volumes of *khasaras* have been prepared in the year 1940. Now the regular maintenance work is started and two Nazul Maintenance Surveyors are engaged in the work.

In case of Ramtek, Katol and Saoner towns, only theodolite survey work has been completed. The maintenance work of these towns has been entrusted to the regular *Patwaris*.

Consolidation of Holdings.

The Assistant Consolidation Officer, Nagpur, is the district officer entrusted with the preparation and execution of the consolidation schemes. He is a gazetted officer of the cadre of the District Inspector of Land Records and is required to work under the control of the Consolidation Officer, Nagpur. There are two such officers working in the district at present.

Under the provisions of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, the consolidation work was taken up for the first time in the year 1957. It is now governed under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1958, and the Rules thereunder.

Prior to the coming into force of the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings (Extension and Amendment) Act, 1958, 67 villages were confirmed and executed. After the introduction of the Act, consolidation in respect of 67 villages was completed and executed till August 1961.

THE REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT.

REGISTRATION.

Functions.

The main functions performed by the Registration Department are—

(*a*) registration of documents under the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908),

(*b*) registration of marriages under

(i) the Bombay Marriage Registration Act, 1954,

(ii) the Parsee Marriage and Divorce Act (III of 1936), and

(iii) the Special Marriage Act (III of 1872); and

(*c*) registration of births and deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Act (VI of 1886).

Organization.

The Inspector General of Registration is the head of the department. Under him is a District Registrar for each district who supervises the registration work in the district. The Collector of the district functions as an ex-officio District Registrar. Under the District Registrar there are Sub-Registrars. In 1960, there were Sub-Registrars at Nagpur, Katol, Ramtek, Saoner and Umrer in Nagpur district. The Sub-Registrars are appointed by the Inspector General of Registration.

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Revenue Administration.

REGISTRATION.

Organization.

The District Registrar is required to carry out the instructions of the Inspector General of Registration in all departmental matters. He advises on the difficulties encountered by the Sub-Registrars in their day-to-day work. He visits the sub-registry offices in his district at least once in every two years and sends his memoranda of inspection to the Inspector General of Registration. He hears appeals and applications preferred to him under Sections 72 and 75 of the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) against refusals to register documents by the Sub-Registrars under him. Under Sections 25 and 34 of the Act, he is empowered to condone delays in presentation of documents and appearance of executants provided the delay does not exceed four months, and to direct the documents concerned be registered on payment of a fine not exceeding ten times the proper registration fee. He is also competent to order refunds in the case of surcharges and to grant full or partial remission of safe custody fees in suitable cases. A will or codicil may be deposited with him under a sealed cover, and it may be got registered at the cost of the party desiring it, after the depositor's death.

Senior Sub-Registrars are appointed as Inspectors of Registration. Their work is to inspect the work of all sub-registry offices in their charge. The Inspector of Registration, Nagpur Division, has jurisdiction over Nagpur district.

Registration of Documents.

Under the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) compulsory registration is required in the case of certain documents and optional registration is provided for certain other documents. Documents which fulfil the prescribed requirements and for which the required stamp duty and registration fees are paid are registered. A record of such registered documents is kept and extracts of documents affecting immovable property in respect of which Record of Rights is maintained are sent to the offices concerned for making mutations. Certified copies from the preserved records of registered documents are also issued to parties who apply for them.

In all, 15,521 documents were registered in the district during 1960. Of these 14,589 documents falling under compulsory registration were of the aggregate value of Rs. 3,96,26,408, documents falling under optional registration were 115 and their aggregate value was Rs. 2,48,880 and 665 documents affecting moveable property were of the aggregate value of Rs. 27,25,735 and 152 were wills.

Fees are levied for registration according to the prescribed scale, but the State Government have exempted or partially exempted levy of registration fees in respect of documents pertaining to the societies registered under the Co-operative Societies Act.

Photo Copying System.

The photo copying system has not been extended to this district and all offices are under hand copying system.

Income and Expenditure.

The average annual income and expenditure of the Nagpur registration district were Rs. 2,06,122 and Rs. 41,254, respectively (based on the figures for the triennium 1958—1960).

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SALES TAX.

Introduction.

THE SALES TAX DEPARTMENT

Sales Tax, the most important source of revenue to the State, was first introduced in the former State of Madhya Pradesh (Central Provinces and Berar) with effect from 1st June 1947 by the Central Provinces and Berar Act (XXI of 1947). The Act underwent various amendments by the Legislature important amongst which were those effected by the Amendment Acts dated 8th October, 1948, 11th April, 1949, and 1st December, 1953. The Act was repealed on 1st January, 1960, by the Bombay Sales Tax Act (LXXVI of 1959). Up to 30th November 1953, the Act provided for levy of tax only on the sales of goods excluding those mentioned in Schedule II appended to the Act. By the Amendment Act (XX of 1953), however, provision was made to tax the purchase price of the goods purchased, on the strength of declarations prescribed under Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Rules (26 (3) of 1947) and utilized for purposes other than those specified in the declaration, i.e., if resold, out of the former State of Madhya Pradesh or used unauthoritatively in the manufacture of goods.

Dealers liable to Pay Tax.

Under Sub-section (V) of Section 4 of the Act, dealers whose turnover of sales exceeded Rs. 25,000 (even though it be of tax free goods) in a year were liable for registration and consequently liable to pay tax in accordance with other provisions of the Act. The limit of such turnover for importers and manufacturers was Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000 respectively; and the limit of turnover for societies registered under the Co-operative Societies Act (1912) dealing exclusively in goods produced or manufactured by such Society or its members without the aid of hired labour was, however, at Rs. 2,500.

The limit of turnover for importers was subsequently reduced to Rs. 2,500.

Classes of Tax.

Unlike the Bombay Sales Tax Act (1953), the Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Act (1947) provided levy of tax only at the point of sale, i.e., it was a single point tax. The provisions of Section 4 (6) of the Act which came into force with effect from 1st December 1953 do not actually amount to purchase tax but are only intended to seal off a loophole for evasion of sales tax on goods purchased on the strength of declarations.

No tax was levied on goods specified in Schedule II which consists of 43 entries. Goods specified in Part I of Schedule I were taxable at one anna in a rupee up to 7th April 1957. This rate was changed to 7 paise after the introduction of decimal coinage system. The goods specified in Part II of Schedule I were taxable at 3 pies in a rupee up to 7th April 1957 and at 2 paise from 8th April 1957 onwards. All other goods not covered by any of the entries of Schedule I or II were taxable at 6 pies in a rupee up to 7th April 1957 and at 3 paise from 8th April 1957 onwards.

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Classes of Tax.

The scheme of the Act (1947) is such that no tax is imposed on the sale of goods made in the course of inter-state trade and commerce. Further, tax on a particular transaction is to be paid only once. Generally, the wholesalers or manufacturers are not required to pay tax, unless they sell their goods to unregistered dealers or customers direct. The goods required directly for use in the manufacture of articles for sale can also be purchased free of tax by manufacturers and by giving declaration in the prescribed form to the seller.

Administrative Organization.

Nagpur being the capital of the erstwhile State of Madhya Pradesh, the office of the Sales Tax Commissioner was located at Nagpur. Consequent upon the reorganisation of States with effect from November 1, 1956, Vidarbha region of old Madhya Pradesh was merged in the Maharashtra State and the post of the Sales Tax Commissioner was abolished. The Additional Collector was, however, placed in charge of administration of the Eastern Division comprising the Vidarbha and Marathwada regions of the State. For the purposes of the execution of the Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Act (1947), the Additional Collector was designated as Commissioner of Sales Tax, Eastern Division, Nagpur, and was exercising all powers under that Act. Thus Nagpur remained the headquarters of the Commissioner of Sales Tax even after reorganisation, though the headquarters of the State Government was changed from Nagpur to Bombay. Till reorganisation of State, the Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax, Madhya Pradesh, was assisting the Commissioner in the administration of the Act and had no office of his own. He was also hearing second appeals against the orders of the Sales Tax Officer and Assistant Sales Tax Officers and first appeals against the orders of the Assistant Commissioners. With the reorganisation of States the Deputy Commissioner (now Assistant Commissioner's appeals Range I and II, Nagpur, from January 1, 1960) looks after the appellate work only and has a separate office of his own.

The office of the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax, in charge of administration, was also located at Nagpur right from the commencement of the Act. Till June 1954, he exercised appellate powers. But due to hearing pendency of appeals, an independent post of Assistant Commissioner for appellate work for the whole State of Madhya Pradesh with headquarters at Nagpur was sanctioned. Work was started in June 1954 thereby relieving the Administrative Assistant Commissioner of the appellate work. Nagpur still continues to be the headquarters of Appellate Assistant Commissioner having jurisdiction over the districts of Wardha, Chanda and Bhandara.

The Office of the Sales Tax Officer, Non-Resident Circle, has also been located at Nagpur from January 1954. The Officer was appointed for registration and assessment of those dealers who stay outside but sell goods in Madhya Pradesh.

He is also an assessing authority under the local Sales Tax Act in respect of dealers in the Nagpur district.

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SALES TAX.

Administrative Organisation.

For the purpose of administration Nagpur district has been divided into two circles with effect from 1st April, 1953, *viz.*—

(i) Some wards of Nagpur city with Ramtek and Nagpur tahsils.

(ii) Remaining wards of Nagpur city with Saoner, Katol and Umrer tahsils.

Prior to 1st April, 1953, the entire district of Nagpur had a Sales Tax Officer who at the same time acted as an Excise Officer helped by several assistants. On 1st April, 1953, a separate Sales Tax Department came into existence to look after the administration of the Sales Tax Act.

The Sales Tax Officer exercises the powers delegated to him by the Commissioner of Sales Tax under the rules for the general administration of the Act (1947). He registers dealers who are liable to payment of tax under the Act and receives periodical returns from them which show their gross turnover, taxable turnover and the tax payable by them. After the close of the year followed by dealers, an assessment case of all the returns for that year is prepared and the dealer is assessed by the Sales Tax Officer or the Assistant Sales Tax Officer as the case may be. Up to June 1958, the Assistant Commissioners of Sales Tax used to exercise the powers of assessment of dealers whose gross and taxable turnover exceeded Rs. 20 lakhs and Rs. four lakhs, respectively. In June 1958, powers of assessment of dealers whose gross turnover exceeded Rs. one lakh in the preceding year were delegated to the Sales Tax Officers and the Assistant Commissioners were thus relieved of assessment work. The Assistant Sales Tax Officers were assessing dealers having gross turnover below Rs. one lakh. The Sales Tax Officer is also responsible for detection of cases involving evasion of tax. In short, the Sales Tax Officer is the head of office and is primarily responsible for the general administration of the Circle.

Immediately above the Sales Tax Officer, is the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax, and he is the first appellate authority. Any order passed by the Sales Tax Officer is appealable and the appeals lie with the Assistant Commissioner. The Assistant Commissioner was also in charge of the Administration of the Act in the Circles in his jurisdiction. He used to guide the Sales Tax Officer in complicated matters. Against the appellate order passed by the Assistant Commissioner, second appeal could lie before the Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax. Against the Second appellate order, the dealer could either prefer revision before the Board of Revenue or the Commissioner of Sales Tax. In the latter case, however, the decision of the Commissioner is final, whereas the order of the Board of Revenue is subject to a reference and ultimate revision in the High Court.

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Statistics of Collections.

The following table gives the amount of sales tax collected and the collection charges. The collection charges, however, include the expenditure of the offices of the Assistant Commissioners (Administration), Assistant Commissioner (Appeals), Deputy Commissioner (Appeals) and the office of the then Sales Tax Commissioner, Madhya Pradesh, as all these offices were located at Nagpur:—

Year (1)	Amount Collected (2)	Collection charges (3)
	Rs.	Rs.
1950	45,55,668	80,303
1951	46,73,707	95,075
1952	48,79,707	1,66,557
1953	44,93,429	1,54,433
1954	59,14,597	2,45,713
1955	67,41,178	2,41,315
1-1-1956 to 31-10-1956	53,88,146	2,77,889
1-11-1956 to 31-3-1957	27,64,119	74,827
1957-58	70,77,216	3,05,545
1958-59	66,11,237	4,08,503
1959-60	70,95,438	4,93,354

THE STAMP DEPARTMENT

STAMPS.

Organization.

The Superintendent of Stamps, Bombay, is the authority which controls the supply and sale of stamps in the State, while in Nagpur district the Collector holds general charge of the district administration of the Stamp Department as the administrative head of the district. There is no independent officer in the district specially in charge of stamps. The work is done by the Head Clerk under the supervision and control of the Additional Treasury Officer, Nagpur, who is a gazetted officer. He is in charge of the local depot at Nagpur and is responsible for the maintenance of the stock of stamps, their distribution to the branch depots and their sale to the public. A branch depot is located at every tahsil headquarters and is in the charge of the Tahsildar in his capacity as Sub-Treasury Officer.

The Treasury Officer is not empowered to grant refunds of the value of unused, spoiled or obsolete stamps.

To suit public convenience stamps are sold not only at the local and branch depots but also at various other centres by vendors authorised by Government. There are 23 vendors in the district. Non-Judicial and Judicial stamps above the value

of Rs. 30 and Rs. 100 respectively in each case are sold at the Treasury and the Sub-Treasury and the Stamps Head Clerk and the Sub-Treasury Officers work as ex-officio stamp vendors. Stamps below this value in each case are sold by the authorised vendors.

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Revenue Administration.

STAMPS.

Organization.

Income.

The total income from stamps realised in Nagpur district during 1960-61 was Rs. 7,81,811.27 from judicial stamps and Rs. 22,91,386.98 from non-judicial stamps.

THE MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT

MOTOR VEHICLES.

Motor Vehicles Act.

The Motor Vehicles Department deals with the administration of the Motor Vehicles Act (Amendment Act C of 1956) and the Bombay Motor Vehicles Taxation of Passengers Act (LXV of 1958). Under the first Act all motor vehicles have to be registered; all drivers have to obtain a licence which is given only on their passing a prescribed test of competence; the hours of work of drivers of public vehicles are restricted; and third party insurance of all private vehicles plying in public places has to be effected. It gives power to the State Government to subject vehicles to strict mechanical tests and to control the number of vehicles to be licensed for public hire, to specify their routes and also the freight rates. Fees are leviable for registration and issue of licences and permits.

State Transport Authority.

There is a State Transport Authority for the State, and Regional Transport Authorities have been set up for convenient regions of the State. The State Transport Authority co-ordinates the activities of the Regional Authorities. The Regional Transport Authority controls the different categories of transport vehicles in the region and deals with the issue of permits to them according to the policy laid down by the State Transport Authority and the State Government from time to time. It also performs such duties as grant of authorisations to drive public service vehicles and conductors' licences, take departmental action against those permit-holders who contravene any condition of the permit, etc., and prescribe policy in certain important matters relating to vehicular transport in the region.

Regional Transport Authority.

The Regional Transport Authority for the Nagpur Region with its headquarters at Nagpur has jurisdiction over the Nagpur district and also over the districts of Buldhana, Akola, Amravati, Yeotmal, Wardha, Bhandara and Chanda. It is vested in a body of six members, including the Secretary, four officials and two non-officials, being nominated by the State Government under sub-section (1) of section 44 of the Motor Vehicles Act.

Regional Transport Officer.

The Regional Transport Officer functions as the Secretary and Executive Officer of the Authority. In his capacity as Regional Transport Officer he is the Licensing authority for licensing drivers and the registering authority for registering vehicles. He is invested with powers of prosecuting offenders under the Motor Vehicles Act.

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Revenue Administration.

MOTOR VEHICLES.

Regional Transport Authority.

Other Staff.

The immediate subordinate to the Regional Transport Officer at the headquarters is the Regional Supervisor. He assists the Regional Transport Officer in executing his duties, looks after the office administration and acts for him in his absence. He supervises the work of Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors.

Necessary staff of Inspectors for executive work and for ministerial work is provided to the Assistant Regional Transport Officer.

There are also eight Motor Vehicles Inspectors and three Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors working under the Regional Transport Officer. Inspectors carry out the work of registration, inspection of motor vehicles, holding tests for drivers and conductors, checking of motor vehicles and detection of offences under the Motor Vehicles Act.

Assistant Inspectors carry out routine office work and assist Inspectors in carrying out inspections of vehicles. They look after the work of Inspectors when the latter are on tour or on special duty.

Liaison with Police Department.

This department has liaison with the Police Department which helps in checking motor vehicles periodically and in detecting offences under the Motor Vehicles Act. It also attends to references from the Motor Vehicles Department regarding verification of character of applicants for public service vehicle authorisations, conductors' licences, taxi-cab permits, etc. Besides it helps in the verification of vehicles which are off the street, recovery of arrears of taxes and in specifying particular places for bus stops, etc. The District Magistrate renders all possible help to this department in connection with imposition of restrictions on road transport, fixation of speed limits and location of motor stands at various places, etc.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

Under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act taxes are levied on all motor vehicles, except those designated and used solely for agricultural operations on farms and farm lands. The taxes are imposed according to the type of vehicle (e.g., motor cycles and cycles, goods vehicles, passenger vehicles, etc.) and their laden or unladen weight. The Act has removed all municipal and State tolls on motor vehicles. The Rules under this Act lay down that when a vehicle is to be registered within the State, the registering authority (*i.e.*, the Regional Transport Officer or the Assistant Regional Transport Officer) shall verify the particulars furnished in the application for registration (*e.g.*, the make of the vehicle, its capacity, etc.) and determine the rate of the tax for which the vehicle is liable. Every registered owner who wants to use or keep for use any vehicle in the State has to pay the tax determined in respect of transport vehicles. The limits within which he intends to use the vehicles, *i.e.*, whether only within the limits of particular municipality or cantonment or throughout the State have to be stated. A token for the payment of the tax is issued by the taxation authority

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Revenue Administration.

MOTOR VEHICLES.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

and this has to be attached to and carried on the vehicle at all times when the vehicle is in use in a public place. A fresh declaration has to be made annually or every time the tax is to be paid (*i.e.*, quarterly, half-yearly or annually). The taxation authority before issuing the token in respect of the payment of the tax has to satisfy itself that every declaration is complete in all respects and the proper amount of tax has been paid. Every owner of a motor vehicle has to give an advance intimation of his intention of keeping his vehicle in non-use during any period for which he desires to be exempted from the payment of tax, and declare the place of garage while in non-use.

The Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1958, envisages levy and payment to the State Government of a tax on all passengers carried by stage carriages (including stage carriages used as contract carriages) at 10 per cent inclusive of the amount of the fares payable to the operators of the stage carriages except where such stage carriages ply exclusively within a municipal area or exclusively on such routes serving municipal and adjacent areas as may be approved by the State Government.

THE INCOME TAX DEPARTMENT

INCOME TAX.

The Income Tax Department in the district falls under the administrative charge of the Commissioner of Income Tax, Madhya Pradesh, Nagpur and Bhandara, with headquarters at Nagpur. He is assisted in his work by two Inspecting Assistant Commissioners of Income Tax. One of them assists the Commissioner in the office administration while the other assists him in the training at the Income Tax Officers' Training College at Nagpur. The Commissioner is also assisted by two Appellate Assistant Commissioners of Income Tax who deal with Income Tax appeals. The Assistant Controller of Estate Duty, Nagpur, deals with cases regarding Estate Duty. There are fifteen Income Tax Officers under the Commissioner who assist the Commissioner in office administration, matters regarding Income Tax, Wealth Tax, Expenditure Tax, Gift Tax, etc.

The functions of the officers of the Income Tax Department are governed under the Income Tax Act, 1961.

In Nagpur district the number of persons whose incomes are assessed for purposes of Income Tax are 9,047. The estimated yield of the taxes in 1961-62 was Rs. 1,74,44,000 comprising corporate taxes and taxes on income including income tax, super tax and surcharge, Rs. 165 lakhs; Wealth Tax, Rs. 780 thousand; Expenditure tax, Rs. 11 thousand; Gift tax, Rs. 15 thousand and Estate Duty, Rs. 158 thousand.

THE CENTRAL EXCISE DEPARTMENT

CENTRAL EXCISE Organization

The Collector of Central Excise, Madhya Pradesh and Vidarbha with headquarters at Nagpur, is in charge of the administration of the Vidarbha region of the State alongwith

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Revenue Administration.

CENTRAL EXCISE.

Organization.

the State of Madhya Pradesh. The Assistant Collector of Central Excise, Integrated Division, Nagpur, is in charge of the administration of the department in the Vidarbha region of the State excluding the district of Bhandara He is assisted by three superintendents, one for administration and two for technical work.

Under the Central Excise Rules the Assistant Collector of Central Excise is the licensing authority for manufactured products where the licence fee exceeds Rs. 50 and for unmanufactured products where the licence fee exceeds Rs. 25. The Superintendent of Central Excise also has the same powers. The Assistant Collector of Central Excise can confiscate goods up to the value not exceeding Rs. 5,000 while the limit fixed for the Superintendent is Rs. 1,000. The Assistant Collector can impose penalty up to Rs. 250 while the Superintendent can do so up to Rs. 100.

Under the Gold Control Rules any officer of the department not below the rank of the Superintendent of Central Excise can issue warrants. The Assistant Collector of Central Excise under Rule 126 (2) (6) can adjudge confiscation of gold seized under rule 126 (L) where the value of gold together with the purchase does not exceed Rs. 2,000.

In Nagpur district there are two Multiple Officer Ranges which are in charge of the Deputy Superintendent of Central Excise. The isolated Ranges are in charge of the Inspector of Central Excise. In Nagpur district there are four isolated Ranges, namely, the Empress Mills, Nagpur, the Model Mills, Nagpur, Katol Range and Saoner Range.

Commodities along with the revenue collected therefrom from 1960-61 to 1962-63 by the department are given below—

Income.

Tobacco warehouses, 45; soap factories, 20; package tea, 2; Chinaware, 1; glass and glassware, 1; paints and varnishes, 2; powerlooms, 52; processor, 1; V. N. E. Oils, 77; paper, 1; cosmetics and toilet preparations, 13; wireless sets, 8; patent and proprietary medicines, 3; copper and copper-alloys, 1; electric fans, 1; acids, 2; cotton fabrics, 2; and cotton yarn, 2.

		Rs.
1960-61*	...	4,07,46,380
1961-62*	...	6,52,33,486
1962-63**	...	5,26,01,000

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

THE POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS DEPARTMENT

The administrative set up of the department is headed by the Postmaster General whose jurisdiction extends over the postal services within a Circle. Nagpur district is comprised in the Central Circle with headquarters at Nagpur. The Nagpur Division of post offices covers the revenue district of Nagpur.

*Including Bhandara District.
**Excluding Bhandara District.

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Revenue Administration.

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

The Nagpur Division is headed by the Senior Superintendent of Post Offices who is a Class I gazetted officer. He controls the working of post offices and mail lines, and supervises the functions of the Inspectors of Post Offices who are subordinate to him. He also exercises the administrative and financial powers delegated to him. The Postmaster of Nagpur (General Post Office), who is a Class II gazetted officer, is required to supervise the working of various branches of his own office. Being an immediate subordinate to the Senior Superintendent of Post Offices, he has to exercise administrative and financial powers delegated to him, and to examine the accounts of his branches. Examination of accounts is one of the most important aspects of his duties.

There are three Inspectors of Post Offices (non-gazetted officers), each in charge of East sub-division, West sub-division and Town Post Offices, respectively. The Inspectors are required to make enquiries into the cases and inspect operations of post offices and mail lines allotted to them. They have to do the over-all supervision of the post offices. They are directly subordinate to the Senior Superintendent of Post Offices.

Nagpur is provided with a Central Telegraphs Office which is headed by the Superintendent. The Superintendent of Central Telegraphs is a Class II gazetted officer whose duties consist of arrangement of booking and delivery of telegrams. He controls the disposal of telegrams traffic on the lines allotted to him. He is under the administrative control of the Post-Master General, Central Circle. The Telegraphs Master, Nagpur, who is a non-gazetted officer, is under the administrative control of the Superintendent.

CHAPTER 12—LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT ARE MANIFOLD and those relating to maintenance of law and order, and security to life and property of citizens are carried out through Police, Judicial, Social Welfare and Jail departments. In what follows is detailed the functioning and set up of these departments in the district.

THE POLICE DEPARTMENT

POLICE.

Functions.

The primary functions of the Police are the prevention and detection of crime, i.e., to obtain intelligence concerning the commission of cognizable offences or designs to commit such offences, and to lay such information and to take such other steps consistent with law as shall be best calculated to bring offenders to book or to prevent the commission of offences, the maintenance of order, the prevention of public nuisances, the enforcement of police regulations for preventing breach of peace ; escorting and guarding of prisoners, treasure or property of which they may be placed in charge ; and the apprehension of offenders.

• Organisation.

Under Section 17 of the Bombay Police Act, (XXII of 1951), the District Magistrate of the district has full control over the District Police Force. Under Section 6 (1) of the Act the direction and supervision of the whole Police Force in the State is vested in the Inspector-General of Police who is assisted by one or more Assistant Inspector-Generals of Police of the rank of the District Superintendent of Police. It is the duty of the Inspector-General of Police to decide, or to advise the Government on all problems requiring greater attention especially those of general policy connected with personnel, their training and equipment, supplies and stores, financial provision required for the maintenance of the Force and the powers and duties of the various grades of officers, to make rules and orders for the guidance of officers on all such matters, and to keep in touch by frequent inspections with the requirements of efficiency in all matters relating to maintenance of law and order and the prevention and detection of crime.

For the purposes of Police administration, the State is divided into five units, *viz.*, Greater Bombay (comprising Bombay City and suburbs) and Bombay, Poona, Aurangabad and Nagpur Ranges. Greater Bombay is under the control of the Commissioner of Police while each of the four ranges is under a Deputy Inspector-General of Police. Below these officers are the District Superintendents of Police in charge of the districts and Superintendents of Police in charge of Railways*.

* Recently Police Commissioners have been appointed at Poona and Nagpur.

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

Organisation.

Subject to the orders of the District Magistrate and the Inspector-General of Police in their respective spheres of authority, the direction and regulation of Police throughout the district is vested in the District Superintendent of Police as the executive head of the force and he has full control over the internal economy of the force under him including arms, drill, exercise, prevention and investigation of crime, prosecution, discipline and other matters of executive details. An additional Superintendent of Police is in the same position as that of the Superintendent of Police.

Nagpur district, for the purposes of police administration, is divided into two charges, City and Rural. The control of the Nagpur City Police is invested in the District Superintendent of Police and Additional District Superintendent of Police, Nagpur City, and that of Rural Police in the District Superintendent of Police, Nagpur Rural. Nagpur city is divided into two sub-divisions, *viz.*, Kotwali and Sitabuldi, each in charge of a Sub-Divisional Police Officer. Each of these two Sub-Divisions contains four Police Stations. Of these eight Police Stations, six are in charge of Police Inspectors and two in charge of Sub-Inspectors. The rural area is divided into two Sub-Divisions, *viz.*, Kamptee and Umrer, the former directly under the charge of the District Superintendent of Police, Nagpur Rural, and the latter under the charge of a Sub-Divisional Police Officer. Kamptee Sub-Division contains seven police stations and two out-posts. The Umrer Sub-Division has 19 police stations and four out-posts. The police stations are in charge of the Sub-Inspectors of Police and the out-posts in charge of the Head Constables.

Recruitment and training of the constabulary and personnel required for other work in the district is done at the head-quarters at Nagpur which is in charge of a Reserve Police Inspector. The training of the armed constabulary and all matters pertaining to arms and equipment of the whole police force are the charge of the headquarters. The force at the headquarters consists mainly of the armed reserve and the reserve for casualties such as leave or sickness and recruits under training.

There is a Constables' Training School at Nagpur which caters to the training of unarmed constabulary of the districts in the Nagpur Range. It functions on regional basis and is in charge of a Superintendent of the rank of the Deputy Superintendent of Police who is assisted by the necessary staff of Instructors. It is under the administrative control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police with headquarters at Bombay.

Strength.

On November 1, 1956, there were 96 officers and 1,330 men in the Force. This strength was augmented from time to time and on December 31, 1960, the Police force of the district consisted of 123 officers and 2,615 men.

Expenditure.

The expenditure on the police in 1959-60 was Rs. 24,577.32 (City) and Rs. 10,81,759.82 (Rural).

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Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

Regular duties.

As the chief police officer of the district, the primary duties of the District Superintendent of Police are to keep the force under his control properly trained, efficient and contented and to ensure, by constant supervision, that the prevention, investigation and detection of crime in his district are properly and efficiently dealt with by the police force under his command.

The Assistant Superintendents of Police or the Deputy Superintendents of Police, i.e., officers in charge of Sub-Divisions are responsible for all crime work in their charges and visitation of serious offences as laid down in the standing orders. Under the general orders of the Superintendent of Police, they are responsible for the efficiency and discipline of the officers and men in their divisions and for holding detailed inspections of police stations and out-posts in their charge at regular intervals.

One Police Inspector, designated as Home Police Inspector, works as Office Superintendent in the office of the Superintendent of Police.

The Sub-Inspector of Police is ordinarily the officer-in-charge of a police station. He is responsible for the prevention and detection of crime in his charge.

Head Constables are subject to the orders of the Sub-Inspectors placed over them and of the superior officers of the police force. They are to report to the Sub-Inspector all crimes in their beats, investigate unimportant crime and also to assist the Sub-Inspector in the investigation and detection of important crime. When in charge of particular posts or beats of villages they act, in all police matters, in concert with the heads of the village police. When attached to the police station they hold the charge in the absence of the Sub-Inspector.

Recruitment.

Appointments of Superintendents of Police are made by promotion of Assistant Superintendents of Police and Deputy Superintendents of Police in accordance with the regulations made in that behalf by the Government of India in consultation with the State Government and the Union Public Service Commission. Appointments of Assistant Superintendents of Police are made by the Government of India on the recommendations of the Union Public Service Commission. Before being posted to regular duty they are trained at the Central Police Training College, Mount Abu, and the States' Central Police Training College, Nasik. The Deputy Superintendents of Police are appointed by the Maharashtra Government, 70 per cent by the promotion of meritorious officers from the lower ranks of the Maharashtra Police Force, or, in exceptional cases, by the transfer of meritorious officers in the cadre of Police Prosecutors and 30 per cent by direct recruitment which is made by the State Government from candidates recommended by the Maharashtra Public Service Commission. Direct recruits, on selection, are attached to the Central Police Training College, Nasik, normally for a period of one year. After completion of

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POLICE.

Recruitment.

training, they are attached to a Military Regimental Centre for a period of five weeks to undergo military training and thereafter attached to districts for practical training for a period of two years before their confirmation.

Inspectors are appointed by the Inspector-General of Police. Appointments as a rule are made by promotion of Sub-Inspectors, direct appointments being very rare. Recruitment of Sub-Inspectors is made by the Inspector-General of Police, 50 per cent by competitive examination and 50 per cent by promotion of officers from the lower ranks.

Appointments of Head Constables are made by the District Superintendent of Police, ordinarily by promotion from amongst constables on the basis of seniority-*cum*-fitness after giving them a short refresher course. Direct appointments as Head Constables to the extent of 33⅓ per cent of the vacancies that may occur are also made by the Superintendent of Police with the sanction of the Deputy Inspector-General of the Range. Police Constables possessing requisite qualifications are considered for appointments as Head Constables. Appointments of Constables are made by the District Superintendent of Police.

Armed and Unarmed Police.

With a view to bringing in uniformity in the working of the police stations in the State, the reorganization of the police force in the districts of Vidarbha was taken up and the strength of the police force in the region was augmented. In September 1958, the gradation of Head Constables into three categories was introduced. In July 1960, Armed and Unarmed branches of the constabulary were formed. In December 1960, the Armed and Unarmed Sections consisted of 128 Head Constables and 718 Constables and 367 Head Constables and 1,402 Constables, respectively.

To the Armed Police are mainly allotted the duties of guarding jails and lock-ups and of providing escorts to prisoners and treasure. The Unarmed Police are deployed for the prevention and detection of crime.

Women Police.

A women's branch of the police consisting of six Women Police Constables has been created in the district. The main functions of the women police are to render help in the recovery of abducted women, to attend to the convenience and complaints of female passengers at the railway stations, to apprehend and search female offenders, to help in the administration of the Bombay Children Act and to keep vigilance at the places of worship or of entertainments.

Motor Transport.

The district (in 1960) had a fleet of 29 motor vehicles and 8 motor-cycles.

There is a District Motor Transport Section and a Motor Transport Workshop (Range) in the district. The District Motor Transport Section is under the control of the District Superintendent of Police. Technical supervision over the staff is exercised by the Superintendent of Police, Motor Transport,

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Motor Transport.

Maharashtra State, Poona. The Motor Transport Workshop is directly under the control of the Superintendent of Police, Motor Transport. The workshop is in charge of a Police Inspector (Foreman).

A mobile workshop-van fitted with equipment and manned by technicians is attached to the workshop. It moves within the Range at regular intervals and carries out repairs to vehicles on site.

Wireless.

In the district two systems of wireless communications (police) are in operation. One is called the H.F. (High Frequency) System or long distance communication network and the other system is called the V.H.F. (Very High Frequency) or short distance communication network. There is also a special emergency telephone installed for the use of public. On complaints or on information of an offence, immediate assistance is rendered.

Local Crime and Local Intelligence Branches.

Local Crime and Local Intelligence branches are attached to the office of the District Superintendent of Police, Nagpur city and Nagpur Rural. The primary functions of the Local branch are to devote sustained attention to and to make efforts towards the investigation of important cases and those, in particular, in which the activities of local criminals extend over more than one police station and collection, collation and examination of information regarding crime and criminals in the district. The Local Intelligence branch collects intelligence and makes enquiries about political and other developments in the district.

Criminal Investigation Department.

The Range Unit of the State Criminal Investigation Department in the City is under the control of a Deputy Superintendent of Police. Its primary functions are collection of intelligence regarding political activities in the Range as a whole and investigation of important crimes.

The district has also a handwriting and photographic bureau which is a branch of the main bureau located at Poona. The bureau functions under the administrative control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, C.I.D. The unit at Nagpur gives expert opinion on questioned documents and attends to identification of handwriting and all photographic requirements pertaining to finger-prints, chance prints, scenes of accidents, house-breaking and theft cases, unidentified dead bodies, intercepted letters, etc. It also supplies photos of externees and criminals for the purpose of identifying them and watching their movements whenever necessary. Similarly, a regional branch of the Finger-Print Bureau is stationed in the district. The Bureau is under the supervision of the Director, Finger-Print Bureau (Group I), Poona. The State Finger-Print Bureau is a wing of the Criminal Investigation Department and is controlled by the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Criminal Investigation Department.

Anti-Corruption Branch.

There is a sub-unit of the Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Bureau in the district. The unit is under the charge of a Deputy Superintendent of Police.

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State Reserve Police Force.

There is a State Reserve Police Force (Group) stationed at Kamptee consisting of 1,133 persons trained more or less on military lines and equipped with modern weapons. The force is organised with a view to dealing with any disturbances or other emergency in the State. It is under the command of a Commandant who holds the rank of a Superintendent of Police. The Commandant is under the general control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police with headquarters at Bombay.

Railway Police.

A Superintendent of Police who has a Sub-Divisional Police Officer under him is in charge of the Railway Police in the district. The Superintendent is under the general control of the Range Deputy Inspector-General of Police.

Figures of crime.

The following table represents variations in Crime during 1956—1960.

—	1956		1957		1958		1959		1960	
(1)	City (2)	Rural (3)	City (4)	Rural (5)	City (6)	Rural (7)	City (8)	Rural (9)	City (10)	Rural (11)
Total No. of cognizable cases ..	10,401	455	10,110	510	30,717	359	63,035	1,077	51,646	1,214
Total No. of Police cognizable crime.	10,205	3,598	7,676	3,597	11,159	3,819	10,744	3,402	8,246	3,018
Total No. of reported cognizable crime.	6,829	3,598	7,680	3,597	1,161	3,819	10,744	3,402	8,246	3,018
Total No. of magisterial cognizable crime.	..	..	4	..	2	..	..	..	..	..
Real serious crime including murder, and cognate crime, dacoities, robberies, house-breaking and thefts including cattle thefts, receiving stolen property and rioting.	1,925	1,396	2,108	1,272	1,988	1,048	1,653	746	1,599	769
Incidence of cognizable crime per 1,000 of population.	15·79	4·58	11.88	4·58	17·27	4.83	15·08	4·33	12·76	3.85

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Law, Order and Justice.

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Figures of crime.

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Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

Prosecuting Staff and Prosecutions.

In the city charge there were nine police prosecutors (1960). They worked under the supervision of a Deputy Superintendent of Police (Prosecution). The total number of cases conducted by the prosecuting staff during the year 1960 was 8,701 of which 3,769 ended in conviction.

In the rural charge there were one Senior Police Prosecutor and six Police Prosecutors. The total number of cases conducted by the prosecuting staff was 3,735, of which 1,802 cases ended in conviction.

Welfare Fund.

A fund known as the Police Families Welfare Fund was started in the district with a view to providing amenities and comforts to the policemen and their families and other low-paid staff of the department. The fund is of a private nature and is operated by the District Superintendent of Police in his official capacity. Out of the proceeds of the fund, a police canteen, a police mess and a grain shop have been opened at the headquarters. A flour mill, a primary school, a children's park, a small recreation room and a library have also been opened. Besides, a vegetable garden is also maintained.

Village Police.

The district police is helped by the village Headman who is appointed under the Land Revenue Act of the former State of Madhya Pradesh. He is under the sole control of the head of the district administration and is treated not as a subordinate but as co-adjutor of the police. A village watchman who is a village servant assists him but he is not subordinate to the Police. The village Headman is entrusted with the duties of informing the magistracy and the police of offenders and offences in the village.

THE JAIL DEPARTMENT.

JAILS.

Location.

There is a Central Prison at Nagpur. Casual male prisoners sentenced to two years and above and all women prisoners sentenced to more than one month from Chanda, Bhandara, Nagpur, Akola, Buldhana, Yeotmal, Amravati, Wardha and Jalgaon districts are confined in this prison. Casual prisoners convicted and sentenced to more than three months, but not exceeding two years from the Nagpur district, are sent to the Akola District Prison. All habitual prisoners from the district are sent to the Amravati District Prison. Juvenile prisoners from this district are confined in the Chanda Sub-jail. Short-term prisoners of the district with sentences ranging from one week to a month are accommodated in the tahsil jails at Nagpur, Umrer, Saoner and Katol.

Organisation.

The Inspector-General of Prisons exercises, subject to the orders of the State Government, general control and superintendence over all prisons and jails in the State. He is assisted by the Deputy Inspector-General of Prisons, Superintendent of Jail Industries and the other necessary staff.

The prison at Nagpur is classified as a 'Central' Prison and is in charge of a Superintendent. He is assisted by Jailors and other necessary staff. The guarding establishment comprises 89 persons only. The Convict officers (i.e., prisoners promoted to the ranks of Convict Overseers and Night Watchmen under the jail rules) assist the jail guards in their executive duties.

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Law, Order and Justice.

JAILS.

Organisation.

Recruitment.

The Superintendent is vested with the executive management of the prison in all matters relating to internal economy, discipline, labour, punishment and control, subject to the orders and authority of the Inspector-General of Prisons.

The post of the Inspector-General is generally filled in by the appointment of an officer belonging to the Indian Administrative Service or by promotion from amongst those who are borne on the cadre of the Superintendent of Central Prison. The Superintendent of a Central Prison is an officer promoted from the ranks of Superintendents of District Prisons. The Senior-most Superintendent of Central Prisons is usually appointed to hold the post of the Deputy Inspector-General after consulting the Public Service Commission. The Superintendents of District Prisons are appointed both by direct recruitment or by promotion from amongst Jailors Grade I in the proportion of 1:2. Jailors in Grade I are appointed both by direct recruitment and by departmental promotions in the proportion of 1:2. The candidates for direct recruitment to the post of Superintendent of a District Prison and/or Jailor Grade I must be Honours graduates. They are recommended for appointment by the State Public Service Commission. A diploma in Sociology or Penology is considered to be an additional qualification. Appointments to Jailors Grade II are made by the Inspector-General by promotion of Jailors Grade III. Appointments to Jailors Grade III are also made by the Inspector-General, fifty per cent of which are filled in from amongst persons who are graduates and other fifty per cent of the appointments are given to suitable departmental candidates who have passed the S. S. C. or its equivalent examination.

Training.

The Superintendents of Prisons and Jailors receive theoretical as well as practical training in Jail Officers' Training School at Yeravda on a scientific basis in all fields of correctional work. A separate training class of three month's duration for non-commissioned officers has been started at the Jail Officers' Training School to impart the practical knowledge of the duties which are expected of a Jail guard.

A Physical Training Instructor visits the jails in the State in rotation and imparts training in drill, games and other physical activities both to the inmates of the Jail and also to the jail guards.

Guarding Establishment.

Part of the guarding establishment is armed. This section serves as a reserve guard to reinforce the unarmed guards in the immediate charge of prisoners inside the prison or in extramural gangs in the event of assault, mutiny, escape or other emergency. It is also available to mount guard over particularly dangerous prisoners or prisoners sentenced to death who are termed as "Condemned Prisoners".

Matron.

No posts of Matrons are sanctioned for headquarter sub-jails; but the Superintendent is empowered to engage a matron locally whenever a woman prisoner is admitted to the jail.

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Medical Officer.

No medical staff is sanctioned for headquarter Sub-jails; but the Maharashtra Medical Service Officer in charge of the local government dispensary or the Medical Officer attached to the Zilla Parishad or municipal dispensary stationed at or nearest to the place where the sub-jail is situated is deemed to be the Medical Officer of the Jail.

Classification of Prisoners.

Prisoners are classified as Class I or Class II by the Court after taking into consideration their status in society and also the nature of the offence committed. They are further classified as casuals, habituals, undertrials and security or detenus. Prisoners are also grouped as "short termers, medium termers and long termers". Headquarter sub-jails are meant for the confinement of short-term and undertrial prisoners only.

Jail Reforms.

In recent years many reforms,[1] calculated to bring about the reformation of prisoners, have been introduced. With the Abolition of Whipping Act, vide Bombay Act No. XXXIX of 1957 flogging as a jail punishment is stopped altogether. Punishments of penal diet and gunny clothing have been abolished. Rules about letters and interviews have also been liberalised.

Remission of Sentence.

Only long termers come within the ambit of the rule on remission of sentence. Prisoners confined in the main prisons are granted liberal remissions which are ordinary remission, annual good conduct remission, special remission, blood donation remission, remission for conservancy work and remission for physical training. In addition, State remission is awarded by Government on the occasions of public rejoicing. It is granted unconditionally and cannot be forfeited under any circumstances.

Work.

Work is arranged according to the prisoner's health. On admission, the prisoner is examined by the Medical Officer who classifies him as fit for light, medium or hard labour. Work allotment committee is constituted for Central and District Jails, the members of which have to take into account health conditions of the prisoners, their aptitude, past experience, etc., and assign suitable work for newly admitted prisoners with a sentence of six months and above. Any change in the work so allotted to prisoners by the Committee has to be effected only with the concurrence of the members of the Committee. No such committee is to be appointed for short-term prisoners.

Wages.

Medium-term and long-term prisoners, so also security and undertrial prisoners who volunteer to work, are paid one-fifth of the wages, which are paid normally for similar work outside.

Parole and furlough.

A prisoner may be released on parole in case of serious illness or death of any member of his family or his nearest relative or for any other sufficient cause. The period spent on parole will not be counted as part of the sentence. If any prisoner is found

[1] Report of Jail Reforms Committee appointed in 1946.

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Parole and furlough.

to have misused or violated parole rules, he is liable to be punished. Prisoners with a sentence of one year and above are entitled to being released on furlough for a period of two weeks which is counted as a part of the sentence.

Board of visitors.

A Board of Visitors composing of official and non-official visitors is appointed for the central prison and tahsil sub-jails. There are ordinarily six non-official visitors for the central prison of whom three are members of the Maharashtra Legislature and three are nominated by Government including a woman. There are two non-official visitors for each sub-jail. The appointment of non-official visitors other than members of the Maharashtra Legislature is made for a period not exceeding three years. Persons who in the opinion of the Government are interested in the prison administration and are likely to take interest in the welfare of prisoners both, while they are in prison and after their release, are nominated by Government on the Board of Visitors on the recommendations of the District Magistrate concerned and the Inspector-General of Prisons. The Chairman of the Board of visitors who is usually the District Magistrate of the district arranges for a weekly visit to the prison by one of the members of the Board. Quarterly meetings of the Board are also convened. Non-official visitors are also allowed to visit prison on any day at any time during the day in addition to the weekly visit arranged by the Chairman. The Board records in the Visitor's book its observations of the result of the detailed inspection of the jails. Any remark at the quarterly meeting or at the weekly visits deserving special and prompt disposal is immediately forwarded by the Superintendent to the Inspector-General for necessary orders. Other remarks made by the visitors and the quarterly meeting of visitors are forwarded immediately after the end of the month by the Superintendent to the Inspector-General with such remarks as he may desire to offer.

In bigger jails a committee of prisoners is selected for each ward by the prisoners themselves, and the Jailor and the Superintendent consult the committee which is known as "Jail Panchayat Committee" in matters of discipline and general welfare of prisoners.

Education.

Literacy classes are conducted for those prisoners who are ignorant of the three R's under the supervision of literate convicts and paid teachers who are appointed only at some of the main jails in the State. Regular annual examinations are held in the jail by the Deputy Educational Inspectors. Towards these literacy classes, the Jail department receives a grant-in-aid from Education department. Twenty-five per cent of the Grant-in-aid received is given to the Convict Teachers as an encouragement after the quarterly examinations of the students (prisoners) are held and the remaining portion is utilised towards the purchase of books, boards, etc., required for the literacy classes. Films of educational and reformative values are also exhibited by the District or the Regional Publicity Officer concerned.

DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING)

Children Act.

THE CENTRAL PROVINCES AND BERAR CHILDREN ACT, 1928, is in operation in Vidarbha region. The Act except section 3 thereof has already been applied[1] to the City of Nagpur constituted under the City of Nagpur Corporation Act, 1948, with effect from December 15, 1957. Children apprehended under the Children Act are kept in the Remand Home, Nagpur. It is a place of safety where children are observed by the Probation Officers. The Probation Officer institutes proper enquiries in the nature of comprehensive social investigations. He submits his report and suggestions to the Juvenile Court Magistrate for consideration and disposal of the case. There were (in 1961) 43 boys in the Remand Home, Nagpur.

Children are committed to Certified Schools if found necessary by the Juvenile Court. In the Certified Schools craft training is imparted to children in addition to scholastic education.

The Government Certified School for boys at Nagpur has at present 90 boys. The Shraddhanand Anathalaya, Nagpur, which has been recognized as a private Certified School has on its roll 15 boys and 54 girls.

Welfare of Physically Handicapped Children.

The only institution for blind boys, *viz.*, the Blind Boys' Institute, Ajni, Nagpur, has 69 boys. It is a voluntary institution receiving grant-in-aid from Government.

There are three institutions for deaf and mutes, *viz.*, the Deaf, Dumb and Blind Industrial Institute, Nagpur; the Bhosle Deaf-Dumb Institute, Nagpur; and the Bharat Muk Vidyalaya, Gandhi Baug, Nagpur, with 26, 23 and 53 inmates, respectively. The above three institutions are private institutions receiving grant-in-aid from the Government.

The Home for the Crippled Children, Ramdas Peth, Nagpur, established by Government admits orthopaedically handicapped children. There are 32 inmates in the institution.

Indian Orphanages.

There are four orphanages in the district. These orphanages are paid grant at the rate of Rs. 12 per month per orphan below 12 years of age. A list of these orphanages together with the number of inmates and the grant sanctioned in 1960-61 is given below:—

Name (1)	Number of orphans (2)	Grant sanctioned 1960-61 (3)
		Rs.
(1) Mary Immaculate Orphanage, Nagpur	42	6,048
(2) St. Bernandatto's Home, Kamptee	40	5,760
(3) Anath Vidyarthi Griha, Nagpur	30	4,320
(4) Swami Shraddhanand Anathalaya, Nagpur	49	7,056

[1] Government Notification Labour and Social Welfare Department, No. BCA-1057-L, dated 6-12-1957.

There is one Government-run State Home for Rescued Women at Nagpur. It admits women rescued from moral danger and has accommodation for 100 females. Women are first admitted to the nearest Government Reception Centre and after being carefully 'screened' are sent to the State Home, Nagpur.

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

District Judge.

THE DISTRICT JUDGE, NAGPUR, IS THE HIGHEST JUDICIAL AUTHORITY in the district. He presides over the District Court. Under Article 233 of the Constitution of India, appointments, postings and promotion of district judges[1] are to be made by the Governor in consultation with the High Court; and under Article 234, appointments of persons other than district judges to the judicial service[2] are made by the Governor in accordance with the rules made by him after consultation with the State Public Service Commission and with the High Court. Under Article 235, the control over the District Court and the courts subordinate to it, including the posting and promotion of, and the grant of leave to, persons belonging to the judicial service and holding any post inferior to the post of a district judge, is vested in the High Court.

Civil Courts

The District Court is the principal court of original jurisdiction in the district, and it is also a court of appeal from all decrees and orders up to the value of Rs. 10,000 passed by the subordinate courts from which an appeal can be preferred. The District Judge exercises general control over all the civil courts and their establishments and inspects the proceedings of these courts.

There are two courts at Nagpur, *viz.*, (i) Court of Civil Judge, Senior Division, comprising the Civil Judge (Senior Dn.), Joint Civil Judge (Senior Dn.), second Joint Civil Judge (Senior Dn.), and six Joint Civil Judges (Junior Dn.) and (ii) Small Causes Court (inclusive of the Registrar). Of the aforesaid six Joint Civil Judges three are of joint cadre designated as Civil Judges and Judicial Magistrates who temporarily try criminal cases. The Court of Small Causes deals with money suits of Small Causes nature up to Rs. 2,000 in value. Similarly, the Registrar of the Small Causes Court, besides administrative work, takes up cases up to the value of Rs. 100. The Small Causes Court is also entrusted with the cases under the Workmen's Compensation Act and the Payment of Wages Act. There is also a Civil Judge (Junior Dn.) at every tahsil place, *viz.*, Saoner, Katol, Ramtek and Umrer.

[1] Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, the term "District Judge" includes additional district judge, assistant district judge, chief judge of a small causes court, sessions judge, additional sessions judge and assistant sessions judge.

[2] Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, "Judicial service" is described as a service consisting exclusively of persons intended to fill the post of district judge and other civil judicial posts inferior to the post of a district judge.

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Criminal Court.

The District Judge, Nagpur, is also the Sessions Judge of the district. He tries criminal cases which are committed to his court by the Judicial Magistrates after preliminary enquiry and hears appeals against the decisions of the subordinate magistrates.

The Assistant Judges also exercise the powers of Additional Sessions Judges on the criminal side. The Additional Sessions Judges are generally invested with powers of the Sessions Judge. The Sessions Judge and the Additional Sessions Judge may pass any sentence authorised by law, but any sentence of death passed by any such judge is subject to confirmation by the High Court. An Assistant Sessions Judge can pass any sentence authorised by law except a sentence of death or of transportation or imprisonment for a term exceeding seven years.

Separation of Judiciary from the Executive was effected in the district from September 1, 1959. Prior to this date the Magistrates were under the direct control of the District Magistrate, Nagpur. They were of three classes, *viz.*, (i) Magistrate, First Class, (ii) Magistrate, Second Class, and (iii) Magistrate, Third Class. The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions (Extension) and the Code of Criminal Procedure (Provision for Uniformity) Act, 1958 (Bombay XCVII of 1958), have since been applied to this district with effect from September 1, 1959. As a result, Magistrates in the areas of Vidarbha and Marathwada have been divided into two classes, *viz.*, Judicial and Executive Magistrates. In order to avoid any confusion, the Government have withdrawn the powers of all the Magistrates appointed till then in these two areas and appointed Judicial and Executive Magistrates afresh and invested them with requisite powers.

All persons holding office of the Civil Judges were appointed under section 12 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, to be ex-officio Magistrates of the First Class in these districts in which they may, from time to time, be appointed, and all persons holding the office of the Collector under any of the Land Revenue Laws were appointed under sub-section (i) of section 10 of the Code to be District Magistrates of the districts, to which they may be posted for such time, as they hold the aforesaid offices. Similarly, all persons holding the office of the Personal Assistant to the Collector in the aforesaid two areas were appointed, under sub-section (b) (ii) of section 10 of the Code, to be Additional District Magistrates and in exercise of the powers conferred by section 37 of the Code all District Magistrates of the aforesaid area were authorised to invest the Taluka Magistrates subordinate to them with powers under sections 107 and 164 of the said Code.

All legal proceedings, pending before a Magistrate or a Court on the date on which the aforesaid Act came into force, stood transferred to the Magistrate or Court having jurisdiction

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nder the provisions of the relevant Acts as amended by this ct. Further, all such proceedings were pronounced to be eard and disposed of by such Magistrate or Court, and such Iagistrate and Court were entrusted with all the powers and risdiction thereof as if they had been originally instituted efore such Magistrate or in such court.

The Presidency Magistrates work in Greater Bombay, and ecial Judicial Magistrates are appointed by the State Government in consultation with the High Court to try particular cases classes of cases or cases generally in any local area. Special xecutive Magistrates are appointed by the State Government r particular areas or for the performance of particular nctions.

All Judicial Magistrates are subordinate to the Sessions Judge ho may from time to time make rules or give special orders to the distribution of business among them.

All Executive Magistrates are subordinate to the District Iagistrate. Appeals from orders requiring security for keeping ace or for good behaviour, however, lie from Executive Iagistrates to the Court of Sessions (Section 406, Criminal rocedure Code). The State Government has power by notication to direct that such orders made by a Magistrate other an the District Magistrate shall lie to the District Magistrate d not to the Court of Sessions. Again, under section 406-A the Code any person aggrieved by an order refusing to accept rejecting a surety under section 122 may appeal against such der, if made by a District Magistrate, to the Court of Sessions. nder section 435 (4), the High Court is empowered to call for d examine the record of any proceeding under sections 143 rohibition of repetition of nuisance), 144 (temporary order in gent cases of nuisance or apprehended danger) and 145 rocedure where disputes as to immoveable property are likely cause breach of peace), even though such proceeding was efore an executive magistrate.

There are no Judicial Magistrates who are entrusted with the owers of the Magistrates of the Third and Second Class. All them are First Class Magistrates. In exercise of the powers nferred by Section XIV of the Code some of the Judicial Iagistrates were invested with (i) all ordinary powers of the Iagistrate, First Class, specified in schedule III of the said Code; nd (ii) additional special powers cognizable by a Magistrate, rst class.

There are fourteen courts of Judicial Magistrates in the istrict. They are all appointed for different purposes. Besides, hree Civil Judges are entrusted with criminal cases. There is a idicial magistrate working at each tahsil headquarters in the istrict.

Other Law Officers.

Besides, a Police Prosecutor, a District Government Pleader nd Public Prosecutor and two Additional Public Prosecutors ere functioning in the district.

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Number of legal practitioners.

In January 1961, in the district 258 advocates, 185 pleaders and seven barristers were practising in the various Civil Courts.

Bar Associations.

There were six associations of lawyers in the district. Out of these, two were at Nagpur and one each at Katol, Saoner, Ramtek and Umrer. One of the two bar associations at Nagpur was named as the High Court Bar Association and the other as the District Bar Association. Both were registered. The former was registered about 40 years back and the latter in 1935. Their membership was 120 and 350, respectively (1960). None of the bar associations at the taluka places was registered. These associations undertook to promote facilities for the study of law through their libraries and to promote the feelings of unity amongst its members.

Nyaya Panchayats.

Under the Bombay Village Panchayat Act, 1958, 69 Nyaya Panchayats have been formed in several villages. They have been empowered to try petty Civil Suits and Criminal cases. The constitution and powers of the Panchayats are detailed in Chapter VI, Sections 63 to 89 of the Bombay Village Panchayat Act, 1958. A revision lies to the District Court against a decree passed by a Nyaya Panchayat in any suit, or to the Sessions Courts against any order in any case.

Statistics of Civil Courts.

In the district, 3,912 suits were pending at the end of the year 1958. In the year 1959, 4,142 suits were instituted, 8,290 were disposed of and 3,347 were pending at the end of the year. Of the 4,142 suits instituted, 3,040 were either for money or moveable property, 874 were for immoveable property and 228 other suits not falling under any of the aforesaid category. On the basis of the sums of money involved 961 suits were of value not exceeding Rs. 100, 2,434 were of value above Rs. 100 but not exceeding Rs. 1,000, 435 were of value above Rs. 1,000 but not exceeding Rs. 5,000 and 210 were of such value which cannot be estimated in money. The total value of the suits instituted was Rs. 53,82,787.

Of the 8,290 suits disposed of, 1,017 were without trial, 897 *ex parte*, 684 on admission of claims, 711 by compromise, 1,368 after full trial, 3,510 by transfer and 2 by reference to arbitration.

There were 193 appeals (including Miscellaneous Appeals) pending at the end of the year 1958. During the year 1959, 615 appeals were instituted, 533 were disposed of and 275 were pending at the end of the year. Of the appeals disposed of during the year 1959, 49 were either dismissed or not prosecuted, 146 confirmed, 101 modified, 124 reversed and 51 remanded for retrial.

Statistics of Criminal Courts.

In 1959, there were 14,853 offences reported in the criminal courts of the district. Persons under trial numbered 18,509, persons whose cases were disposed of, 7,745; persons discharged or acquitted, 952; persons convicted, 6,365; persons committed to sessions or referred to higher tribunals 34, and persons died or escaped or transferred to another State, 290. None was

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Statistics of Sessions Courts

sentenced to death, two were sentenced to transportation or penal servitude, 1,361 to imprisonment and 4,863 to fine and 57 were asked to give security.

In 1959, 66 offences were reported in the Sessions Court. During the same period 109 persons were committed to Sessions. One hundred and two persons were tried in the Sessions Court. Of them 48 were acquitted and 54 convicted including one who was awarded death sentence. There were 50 criminal appeals pending at the end of the year 1958. During the year 1959, 331 criminal appeals were instituted, 343 were disposed of and 38 were pending at the end of the year. Of the 343 appeals disposed of, the sentence was confirmed in 122 cases, modified in 98 cases and was reversed in 123 cases. Similarly, there were 50 criminal revisions pending at the end of the year 1958. In 1959, 186 criminal revisions were instituted, 197 were disposed of and 39 were pending at the end of the year. Of the 197 revisions disposed of, applications were rejected in 153 cases and references to the High Court were made in 44 cases.

Revenue and Expenditure.

In 1959-60 the income of the Judicial Department in Nagpur district came to Rs. 14,889 comprising fines by Civil and Sessions Courts, Rs. 2,777; cash receipts of record rooms Rs. 11,862; and miscellaneous receipts, Rs. 250. During the same period the expenditure amounted to Rs. 6,61,982 consisting of pay of officers, Rs. 1,23,363; pay of establishment, Rs. 1,75,503; pay of process-serving establishment, Rs. 26,633; travelling allowance, Rs. 3,589; house rent allowance, Rs. 30,205; dearness allowance, Rs. 2,73,510 and contingencies, Rs. 29,179.

CHAPTER 13 — OTHER DEPARTMENTS

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

Buildings and Communications Department

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Organisation.

The Buildings and Communications Department at the district level is under the dual control of the State Government and the Zilla Parishad, respectively. The sphere of activities has been divided into two sectors. The works regarding the Major District Roads and the roads of the lower order, buildings required by the Animal Husbandry department and other departments at the tahsil level, constructional activities under the block development schemes and works relating to tanks that will irrigate less than 2,000 acres of land are the responsibility of the Zilla Parishad while the works relating to National Highways, State Highways and the buildings required for the administrative departments in the State sector, such as judicial department, police department, etc., are entrusted to the department in the State sector. Buildings required for research and agricultural college by the department of agriculture are also the responsibility of the department in the State sector.

Chief Engineer and other Functionaries.

The Chief Engineer who is also the Joint Secretary to the Government is the head of the department at the State level. Under the Chief Engineer are the Superintending Engineers of Buildings and Communications Circles and Electrical Engineer to the Government. Each Circle comprising five or more divisions is controlled by a Superintending Engineer. The divisions are in charge of Executive Engineers and Sub-divisions of Assistant Engineers or Deputy Engineers. The Sub-divisions are further divided into sections each in charge of an overseer. Nagpur, division I, has 28 overseers; division II, 18; Road Project sub-divisions, 13 and Building Project sub-division, 8.

Superintending Engineer.

The Superintending Engineer is responsible for administration and general professional control over public works in charge of the department. He has to inspect the state of various works within his circle and to satisfy himself that the system of management prevailing is efficient and economical. He is required to ascertain efficiency of subordinate officers and petty establishments and to report whether the staff employed in each division is actually necessary or adequate for the management. The Superintending Engineer is empowered to transfer and post Deputy Engineers and overseers within his circle in the interest of administration. However, Executive Engineers of divisions are consulted before posting these officers to particular sub-divisional charges under their control. It is also the duty of the Superintending Engineer to recommend removals or transfers of Executive Engineers from his own circle.

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Other Departments.

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Superintending Engineer.

Under Superintending Engineer, Nagpur Circle, are three buildings and communications divisions, *viz.*, Nagpur division Nos. I and II which comprise Nagpur and Bhandara districts and the Road Project division having jurisdiction over four districts of Nagpur, Bhandara, Chanda and Wardha.

Road project sub-division No. I, Nagpur, has jurisdiction over Nagpur and Bhandara districts. The jurisdiction of Building Project sub-division at Nagpur extends over the districts of Nagpur, Bhandara, Chanda and Wardha.

In the district sector the Zilla Parishad has one District Engineer known as Parishad Engineer of the rank of the Executive Engineer with four or five Deputy Engineers under him.

As on March 31, 1962, of the 766·05 km. (476 miles) of metalled roads including bridges and culverts on these roads 255·886 km. (159 miles), were transferred to the Zilla Parishad for maintenance.

IRRIGATION AND POWER DEPARTMENT.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

The Irrigation and Power Department deals with major and medium irrigation works, hydro-electric projects, minor irrigation works, water-supply and drainage works and flood control works.

Organisation.

The department is headed by the Secretary to the Government who is assisted by Chief Engineers in charge of major and medium irrigation projects and water-supply and development schemes in the State and the Director of Minor Irrigation in charge of minor irrigation projects in the State. The Superintending Engineer who is responsible to the Chief Engineer and the Director of Minor Irrigation for the works in their respective spheres is placed in charge of a circle normally consisting of four to five divisions. The division is headed by the Executive Engineer. Each division normally comprises four to five sub-divisions. The sub-division is placed in charge of a sub-divisional officer which is divided further into four to five sections each to be in charge of an overseer. The section is generally formed for maintenance of about 2023·430 hectares (5,000 acres) of irrigated land or where capital expenditure of rupees one to two lakhs is involved.

Superintending Engineer.

In Nagpur district the irrigation programme is implemented by the Superintending Engineer, Nagpur Irrigation Circle. He is in charge of Nagpur Irrigation division, *Malguzari* Tanks division, Minor Irrigation division (Bhandara) and Minor Irrigation division (Chanda).

The Water Resources Investigation division, Nagpur, is controlled by the Superintending Engineer, Water Resources Investigation circle, Poona, and it has been entrusted with water resources investigation programme.

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The Superintending Engineer, Eastern Public Health circle, Nagpur, has jurisdiction over the Public Health Works division and Public Health Projects division at Nagpur. The public health engineering schemes in the district are attended to by the Parishad Engineer, Nagpur Zilla Parishad.

Ramtek Tank.

The work on the Ramtek tank scheme was started in 1906 and was completed in 1913. The height of the main dam of the tank is 22·189 metres (72·8 feet) while the length is 229·210 metres (752 feet). The tank has a catchment area of 212·38 km.^{2} (82 square miles). The capacity of the tank is 114·935 million cubic metres (4,059 million cubic feet). It irrigates 9712.464 hectares and 809·372 hectares (24,000 and 2,000 acres) of *kharif* and *rabi* crops, respectively. It was constructed at a total cost of Rs. 29,11,886.

Dahegaon Tank.

The Dahegaon tank was undertaken during the First Five-Year Plan and has been completed at a cost of Rs. 23,000. It irrigates about 202·343 hectares (500 acres) of land.

Pindarabori Tank Scheme.

The work of constructing an earthen dam across the Amla measuring 15·265 metres (51 feet) in height and 1·059 km. (3,475 feet) in length was undertaken in 1959-60. The dam has a catchment area of 44·029 km.^{2} (17 square miles). The capacity of the tank will be 13·835 million cubic metres (488·61 million cubic feet). It is known as Pindarabori Tank Scheme and is estimated to cost Rs. 37·50 lakhs. It will irrigate 2043·664 hectares (5,050 acres) of land.

Satighat Scheme.

The Satighat scheme envisages an earthen dam over the Sati nalla which will be 60.960 metres (200 feet) in length. It has a catchment area of 5.96 km.^{2} (2.30 square miles) and will have a capacity of 3.108 million cubic metres (109.54 million cubic feet). It will irrigate 485.623 hectares (1,200 acres) of land.

Wunna River Project.

A medium irrigation scheme on the Wunna River in Nagpur tahsil is included in the Third Five-Year Plan. The Scheme is expected to cost Rs. 70 lakhs and will irrigate 6070·290 hectares (15,000 acres) on completion.

Government Central Workshop, Nagpur.

The Government Central Workshop and Stores located at Nagpur is also under the administrative control of the Irrigation and Power department. The Workshop undertakes repairs of mechanical equipments including automobiles owned by various Government departments, manufacture of special equipments and machinery required by small-scale and cottage industries, hospitals, schools, etc., and gives facilities for training of skilled and semi-skilled artisans. The Government is further considering the proposal of setting up a Regional Workshop at Nagpur for the upkeep of heavy earth-moving machinery required for execution of ambitious major and medium irrigation programme in the Third Plan in Vidarbha region.

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Other Departments.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Water-Supply and Drainage.

The main functions of Public Health Engineering Organisation under the Irrigation and Power department is to plan and execute Government and municipal water-supply and drainage schemes, to scrutinise and to supervise water-supply and drainage schemes prepared and executed by local bodies through their own agencies, to give advice, so far as public health problems are concerned, to other departments of Government and to maintain water-works either owned by Government or by local bodies but entrusted to Government for running at the cost of the local bodies in the State.

The Executive Engineer, Public Health Works division, Nagpur, is in charge of the execution of water-supply and drainage schemes and Executive Engineer, Public Health Project division, Nagpur, in charge of preparation of major water-supply and drainage schemes in Nagpur and other districts of Vidarbha and Marathwada regions. These divisions are under the control of the Superintending Engineer, Eastern Public Health Circle, Nagpur.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

AGRICULTURE.

Organisation.

Agriculture department, like many other departments, was split into two sectors, *viz.*, State and district with the formation of the Zilla Parishads. Schemes such as town compost, sugarcane development, cotton extension, tahsil seed farms, experimental and research farms, soil conservation and *gram sevak* training centre have been retained under the State sector while those such as *kharif* and *rabi* campaigns, paddy pilot, horticultural development, construction of tahsil godowns, *vidya mandir* plots, air compressor and blasting and tractor ploughing, rural compost, fertiliser distribution, plant protection and appliances on 50 per cent., subsidy, green manuring, intensive cultivation of food crops and pulses, multiplication, distribution and stocking of seed, vegetable cultivation and distribution of cement, iron and steel have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad.

The department in the State sector is headed by the Director of Agriculture, Maharashtra State, Poona. The activities under the State sector are controlled by the Assistant Cotton Extension Officer who is subordinate to the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Nagpur. He is designated as Officer in charge of Residuary Activities.

District Agricultural Officer.

The schemes under the Zilla Parishad are looked after by the District Agricultural Officer who is responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. He has also to work as the Secretary to the Agriculture Committee of the Zilla Parishad. He is assisted by three Agricultural Officers of whom one is in charge of *kharif* and *rabi* campaigns, the other in charge of the paddy pilot scheme and the third attached to the District Agricultural Officer to assist him in his day-to-day work. He has under him three Agricultural Supervisors, 28 Agricultural Assistants and other necessary staff.

Agricultural Schemes under Zilla Parishad.

In what follows is given a short account of the schemes that are controlled by the Zilla Parishad.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

AGRICULTURE.

Agricultural Schemes under Zilla Parishad.

Demonstration and Propaganda.

There are 82 agricultural demonstration centres in the district where field demonstrations in improved agricultural practices are given on the lands owned by the private agriculturists under the supervision of *gram sevaks* in the blocks. General propaganda work is carried out by the Agricultural Officer with the help of *gram sevaks* and agricultural assistants. The district is divided into 13 blocks, *viz.*, Nagpur, Ramtek, Katol, Saoner, Umrer, Bhiwapur, Kuhi, Mouda, Parseoni, Kamptee, Hingna, Kalmeshwar and Narkhed where agricultural programme is implemented through the Agricultural Extension Officers under the guidance of the Block Development Officers.

Tractor Ploughing and Blasting.

Tractor ploughing is adopted in the areas selected by the Agricultural Committee of the Zilla Parishad with the aid of machinery and staff provided by the State. An Agricultural Supervisor, three Agricultural Assistants and one *Patwari* work on the tractor unit. The receipts on account of ploughing are credited to the Government. One blasting unit has also been provided for in the district.

Horticultural Development.

The cultivators requiring planting orchards are advanced *taccavi* loans by the Collector from the State sector. The applications for *taccavi* are received by the Block Development Officers and Agricultural Officers and are submitted to the Collector after proper scrutiny and recommendations.

Crop-cutting experiments.

Three types of crop-cutting experiments are conducted in the district covering assessment survey of *kharif* and *rabi* campaigns, crop-estimation survey of orange and crop-estimation survey of revenue circles. Where the work is carried on vigorously, the villages for the survey are selected on random sample basis.

Farmer s Unions.

Farmers unions numbering 1,103 with a total membership of 56,248 have been established in the district. The district farmers' union is yet to be registered under the Public Trusts Act.

Citrus Psylla Campaign.

The staff working under the Zilla Parishad such as Agricultural Officer, Agricultural Supervisors and others arrange to spray insecticides under the directions of Agricultural Extension Officer on orange trees mainly in Katol, Narkhed and Kalmeshwar blocks. This is carried out with the help of the equipment supplied by the State Government. The spraying operations over 9712.464 hectares (24,000 acres) were completed till 1963.

Though all the programmes and activities are carried out by the department in the district sector, advice and guidance in technical matters is sought from the officers of the department in the State sector for proper and successful implementation of the programme.

All the schemes in the State sector are now controlled by the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Nagpur Division, though the Assistant Cotton Extension Officer in his office holds actual charge of the affairs.

Agricultural Schemes under State Sector.

The following is a brief description of the schemes in the State sector.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

AGRICULTURE.

Agricultural Schemes under State Sector.

Research and Experiment Farm at Tharsa.

The Government experimental farm at Tharsa in Ramtek tahsil is in charge of an Agricultural Officer (Grade I) who is assisted by two Agricultural Supervisors and one Agricultural *Kamdar*. He has to work under the administrative control of the Principal, *Gram Sevak* Training Centre, Tharsa. It was established at Tharsa, at a distance of 38.4 km. (24 miles) from Nagpur, in the year 1910-11. The area of the farm stands at 49.606 hectares (122.58 acres). Mostly *rabi* crops like wheat, gram, jowar, linseed, peas, etc., are taken on the farm. Sugarcane and paddy are the only perennial and *kharif* crops grown on the farm. The farm is irrigated from the Khindsi tank. Number of experiments on varietal and manurial aspects are allotted to this farm. The general cropping and manuring programme is approved by the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Nagpur Division. It affords practical training facilities to the trainees at the *Gram Sevak* Training Centre, Tharsa.

Gram Sevak Training Centre, Tharsa.

An extension training centre was established at Tharsa by the then Madhya Pradesh Government on April 18, 1955, to train the personnel required to man the Community Development and National Extension Service projects. It provides training facilities in extension methods regarding agriculture, animal husbandry, social education, public health, co-operation, etc. The extension training centre at Tharsa has been converted into the *gram sevak* training centre having integrated courses of two years duration from March 15, 1959. The Government farm at Tharsa provides facilities for practical training to the trainees at the centre.

Soil Conservation.

Soil conservation activities in the district are in charge of the Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, Katol, who is also in charge of the activities in Bhandara district. He has to work under the control of the Deputy Director of Agriculture (Engineering), Nagpur. He is assisted in his work by Agricultural Supervisors, Agricultural Assistants and other necessary staff. The actual intensive work regarding soil conservation is restricted to a compact zone within a radius of 16 km. (ten miles) from the Sub-Divisional headquarters at Katol.

Agricultural College.

The first step towards the provision of agricultural education in the then Central Provinces was taken in 1888 with the formation of an agricultural class with a course of two years duration. In the course of a few years a separate Agricultural Research Institute was erected. The college conferred Diploma in Agriculture on successful candidates. In 1916 the duration of the course was changed to four years. The Diploma classes of the college were affiliated to the Nagpur University on July 29, 1925. From 1938 was started the Degree Course in agriculture which subsequently provided education up to post-graduate level.

The agricultural college farm at Nagpur covers an area of 99.051 hectares (244.76 acres) of black cotton soil. Jowar, cotton, groundnut, paddy, *tur, udid mug,* wheat, gram, linseed and sugarcane are the main crops taken from the farm.

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Other Departments.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY.

Functions.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT

The Animal Husbandry department deals with the treatment of sick animals, control of cattle epidemics and castrations. The department administers the work of control and destruction of ticks, advises people in the hygienic methods of animal management and participates in the various cattle fairs and shows held at various places in the State by opening veterinary stalls for propaganda.

Animal Husbandry Officer.

The District Animal Husbandry Officer controls the activities of the department and is responsible to the Agricultural Officer of the Zilla Parishad. However, in technical matters, he is responsible to the Director of Animal Husbandry, Maharashtra State, Poona. Six Veterinary Officers are placed in charge of the animal husbandry activities in the *panchayat samitis*. There are 21 stockmen working under the Veterinary Officers who are expected to give first aid to 20 to 30 villages under their jurisdictions and to treat ailing animals, to castrate the scrub bulls and to vaccinate the animals against different contagious diseases.

Veterinary Hospital, Nagpur.

The District Veterinary hospital at Nagpur is attached to the veterinary college where the students carry out their practicals. The veterinary dispensaries have been established at Narkhed, Kuhi, Kalmeshwar, Katol, Ramtek, Saoner and Umrer. The veterinary aid centres are established at Sawargaon, Mandle, Kuhi, Kamptee, Butibori, Jalalkheda, Nand, Vadoda, Mowad, Khabala, Veltur, Aroli, Ashta, Vihirgaon, Bhiwapur, Mohpa and Pipla Keolaram. The only branch—veterinary dispensary in the district is located at Fetri. In addition to these dispensaries and aid centres, the department has also established poultry demonstration centres at Mouda and Kalmeshwar, a poultry unit at Narkhed and has taken up key village schemes in Barshingi, Kodamendhi, Haladgaon and Kondale villages.

FOREST DEPARTMENT

FOREST.

Organisation.

The Chief Conservator of Forests is the Head of the Forest Department in the State with headquarters at Poona. For administrative purposes, the whole State is divided into six circles as shown below:—

Name of Circle (1)	Headquarters (2)
1. Nasik Circle	Nasik.
2. Poona Circle	Poona.
3. Nagpur Circle	Nagpur.
4. Amravati Circle	Amravati.
5. Chanda Circle	Nagpur.
6. Bombay Circle	Thana.

At the headquarters of each Circle is a Conservator of Forests.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

FOREST.

Organisation.

The Conservators have under them Divisional Forest Officers and Sub-Divisional Forest Officers, to look after the administration of the divisions and independent sub-divisions, respectively. The Divisional Forest Officers belong to the Maharashtra Forest Service, Class I, and the Sub-Divisional Forest Officers to Maharashtra Forest Service, Class II. The divisions in some cases are divided into sub-divisions which are in charge of Sub-Divisional Forest Officers. The divisions or sub-divisions, as the case may be, are divided into small executive parts called ranges and each range is managed by a Range Forest Officer, under the control of the Divisional Forest Officer or Sub-Divisional Forest Officer, as the case may be. The Range Forest Officer is a non-gazetted subordinate officer (Class III) who is usually trained at one of the forest colleges of India, i.e., those at Dehra Dun and Coimbatore. Each range is sub-divided into rounds and each round is managed by a Round Officer or a Forester who is usually trained at one of the Forest Classes in the State. Finally each round is sub-divided into beats and each beat is in charge of a beat guard.

Working Plans.

All the forest area in Nagpur district in charge of the Forest Department is included in the Nagpur Forest Division. This division is controlled by the Conservator of Forests, Nagpur. The Divisional Forest Officer is in charge of the administration of the division.

In the year 1879, Government declared the forests in Nagpur Division as 'Protected' under Indian Forests Act (VII of 1878). These forests, thereafter, were constituted into Reserved Forests under the Indian Forests Act during the period from 1879 to 1893. The working of forests was not, however, regulated then by any scheme or plan. It was not till 1895 that the systematic management was taken up by drawing up the first working plan by Mr. Dobbs.

These plans cover the forest area of 1,326·365 km.^{2} (512·11 sq. miles) of Reserved Forests in Nagpur Division. Since then four working plans have been prepared for these forests covering the period from 1895 to 1912, 1912 to 1935, 1935-36 to 1946-47 and 1947-48 to 1956-57. These plans were prepared by the different officers of the department.

After the abolition of proprietary rights in forests in 1951, 960·294 km.^{2} (370·77 sq. miles) of forests formerly privately owned were transferred for management to the Forest Department.

Regeneration and Maintenance.

Forests are managed by the Forest Department for the proper performance of the productive and protective functions. Protective functions imply that they are to be managed in such a way as to preserve the physical features, make the climate more equable and maintain the fertility of lands by checking erosion and regulating the flow of water. They are to be guarded against

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

FOREST.

damages from fires, thefts, encroachment on forest lands, misuse or rights and privileges, etc. For productive functions the department envisages management of forest in such a way so as to provide for certain needs indispensable to the people and a variety of products of commercial importance.

Systems of Management.

Since the climate throughout the district is more or less the same, i.e., hot and dry, annual rainfall being 1270 mm. (50″) and maximum summer temperature being 46·7°C. (116°F.), the forests met with are of one main type, i.e., southern tropical dry deciduous forests' of Champion's classification.

For the purpose of management the following broad classes of forests are distinguished, according to the function they can best fulfil:—

(i) Protected forests.
(ii) Tree forests.
(iii) Minor forests.
(iv) Pasture lands.
(v) Remaining forests, i.e., grass reserves and recreation reserves, forest villages, etc.

Protected forests include all the areas, which contain precipitous and very steep slopes. Hilly areas of Pench ranges on either side of the Pench river have been included under them. These are preserved in the interest of soil conservation and water-supply. These are managed under "section-*cum*-improvement system" and constitute the 'protection—working circle'.

Tree forests include all areas capable of producing large size timber, especially teak. Teak bearing areas of West Pench, Deolapar and Ramtek ranges, and other ranges are grouped with these. The management is of high forest conversion system. The following working circles have been formed:

Pench High Forest Conversion Working Circle.—Areas in West Pench, Deolapar and Ramtek ranges are included in this working circle. Rotation is of 80 years. Teak trees of 1·22 metre (4 feet) girth at breast height are obtained from these forests.

General High Forest Working Circle.—Better type of forests in Kondhali and Umrer ranges are included in this working circle. Rotation is of 60 years. Teak trees of ·914 metre (3 feet) girth at breast height are obtainable from these forests.

Minor forests include all areas which contain inferior tree growth and which are capable of producing small timber up to .61 to .76 metre (24″—30″) girth at breast height, poles and fire-wood. Local demand for fodder and grazing is also met with. The system adopted is coppice-with-reserves. Rotation period is of 48 years.

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Other Departments.

FOREST.

System of Management.

Pasture forests include areas in which the primary object of management is to provide fodder and grass to the maximum extent possible, consistent with the preservation and improvement of pastures. These forests contain very little tree growth of value. Grazing units have been formed providing rotational grazing. Pasture working circle has been constituted for the purpose.

Miscellaneous forests include all grass birs and areas under forest villages. Grass birs are closed permanently to grazing, catering to the need for fodder grass. Forest village areas are meant for the establishment of permanent source of labour supply for forest works. A miscellaneous working circle has also been constituted in these areas.

Besides these, there are overlapping working circles for bamboo working and *semal* working.

Exploitation.

The forests in this division are exploited to obtain sustained supplies of timber and other forest products required for industry, communications and defence and to realise the maximum annual revenue for all time. With this in view, equi-productive annual areas called 'Coupes' equal to the number of years of felling cycle or rotation are laid out for working. Thus, coupes form the unit of exploitation and are mainly worked through the agency of contractors. The areas to be worked through the agency of contractors are sold by public auction annually. The contractors are governed by a set of rules called 'Forest Contract Rules'. The policy of the department now is to replace contractors by co-operatives.

Areas needing special treatment or areas unsold are worked departmentally. Minor forest produce is removed on forest rates passed under the sanctioned schedule of rates.

The total outturn of timber and other important forest produce extracted annually (from 1958-59 to 1960-61) from the division is as follows:—

OUTTURN OF FOREST PRODUCE.

Year (1)	Timber in 1,000 cubic metres* (2)	Fuel in 1,000 cubic metres* (3)	Bamboos in terms of value (4)	Other forest produce in terms of value (5)
			Rs.	Rs.
1958-59	34·625 (1,236·60)	1,049·297 (37,474·90)	5,190	4,06,627
1959-60	16·462 (587·94)	88·532 (3,161·86)	3,092	3,63,969
1960-61	12·146 (433·79)	68·751 (2,455·38)	10,197	3,78,841

*Figures in brackets denote figures in 1,000 cubic feet.

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Other Departments.

FOREST.

Exploitation.

The total net revenue and expenditure of the division for three years from 1958-59 to 1960-61 is given below:—

Year (1)	Revenue (2)	Expenditure (3)	Surplus (4)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1958-59	39,63,208	7,48,527	32,14,681
1959-60	45,99,717	9,95,097	36,04,620
1960-61	35,63,295	7,53,390	28,29,905

Mining leases and prospecting licences.

The areas of Ramtek, West Pench and Deolapar ranges are rich in manganese ore. Annual revenue on account of dead and surface rent of the mining leases is collected to the tune of Rs. 70,000 to Rs. 80,000.

Forest Settlement.

Out of 2,286·959 km.^{2} (882·88 sq. miles) of forests under the department in Nagpur Division 1,326.365 km.^{2} (512.11 sq. miles) have already been constituted into reserved forests since 1879. After abolition of proprietary rights in 1951, 960·294 km.^{2} (370·77 sq. miles) of privately owned forests were transferred to Forest department for management. They were declared as protected forests in 1955 and notification under Section 4 of Indian Forests Act was issued to constitute them into reserved forests.

Co-operation in Forestry.

In the exploitation of forest produce the contractors' agency is being slowly replaced by co-operative societies. Contract areas, i.e., coupes, are leased to the societies at prices fixed by Forest department. The societies remove the produce sold to them under the technical guidance and supervision of the department.

During 1959-60 there were four co-operative societies which were allotted four coupes, in 1960-61 five societies were allotted three coupes and during 1961-62, eight societies were allotted eleven coupes.

Apart from timber and fuel coupes, the societies have been allotted bamboo coupes, tendu units and grass birs.

Wild Life Preservation.

To regulate licenced shooting, the forest area is divided into 'shooting blocks'. List of shooting blocks is published by the Conservator of Forests in the State Gazette annually. Shooting in the reserved forests is controlled and regulated by the issue of permits for 15 days or one month by Divisional Forest Officer with the approval of the Conservator of Forests. There are 22 shooting blocks in Nagpur Forest Division.

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Other Departments.

FOREST.

Schemes under the Five-Year Plans.

During the Second Five-Year Plan following works were taken up in Nagpur Division:—

Scheme	*Works undertaken*	*Target achieved*	*Expenditure*
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
			Rs.
(1) Construction of Roads, dams, etc.	Roads—1	32·18 km. (20 miles) length.	66,548
	Dams and bunds—2.	2 dams.	1,41,861
(2) Construction of buildings.	R. F. O.s quarters—1 F. G. Nakas and other staff quarters—4	27 buildings ..	1,14,138
(3) Raising plantations of teak and semal.	Plantation of teak and semal—3.	827·572 hectares (2,045 acres).	1,25,995
(4) Survey and Demarcation of forests.	Survey and demarcation—1.	453·248 km.² (175 Sq. miles).	70,199
(5) Establishment of nurseries.	Wet nursery—1 ..	..	3,515
(6) Provision of Mobile squad.	Mobile squad—1 ..	..	26,324
(7) Other schemes ..	Other schemes—4 ..	..	22,171
	Total Schemes .. 16	Total expenditure..	4,43,751

The following schemes are under the Third Five-Year Plan:—

Scheme	*Target*	*Expenditure*
(1)	(2)	(3)
		Rs.
(1) Establishment of nurseries ..	2 Nurseries at Tangla and Ranbodi.	3,900
(2) Raising of bamboo plantations..	8·094 hectares (20 acres) in Kondhali range. Pre-monsoon works over 75 acres.	1,486
(3) Afforestation of catchment areas	Pre-monsoon works over 24·281 hectares (60 acres) in Kondhali range.	8,685
(4) Forest Village Panchayat scheme	2 villages..	1,000

Agriculture.

Cultivable land is given free of cost to the villagers who settle in forest villages. Forest villages are established with a view to making provision for adequate forest labourers and to provide wages to the poor people. There are 18 forest villages in Nagpur Division. Every facility including that of *taccavi* loans is given to these villages so as to encourage them in adopting better cultivation methods and in increasing the food production.

Relations with the public.

The produce from the private forests is permitted to be removed by the villagers as per provision of the *Nistar Patraks* and *Wajib-ul-arz* of each village on the passes issued by *Nistar* Committees for the *bona fide* use of the villagers. The passes are issued by the village Mukadams where no *Nistar* Committees have been formed. The quantum of *Nistar* is fixed by the Government. Small timber, khod and firewood for *Nistar* is given to agriculturist from coupes under marking of forests on forest rates.

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FOREST.

Roads.

The division is well served by an excellent net-work of roads. There are adequate forest roads except in the Pench Valley. Forest roads in the division are fair weather roads which are motorable only in fair season.

Buildings.

Besides the residential quarters for forest staff in different ranges, the forest rest houses are situated at Kholdhoda in Umrer range, Sillari in Deolapar range and Surera, Salaighat, Nagalwadi and Ghat-Pendri in West Pench range. The forest inspection bungalows are located at Botezari in Umrer range and Paoni in Ramtek range. The only school in forest villages is at Manegaon in Deolapar range.

DIRECTORATE OF INDUSTRIES.

INDUSTRIES.

Organisation.

The work of the Directorate of Industries is mainly confined to the development and progress of cottage, small-scale and large-scale industries in the State.

Deputy Director of Industries, Nagpur.

The officer in charge of cottage, small-scale and large-scale industries in the Nagpur district is the Deputy Director of Industries (Class I, State Industries Service) who has his headquarters at Nagpur, and whose jurisdiction extends over the districts of Bhandara, Amravati, Buldhana, Akola, Wardha, Yeotmal and Chanda also. He works directly under the Industries Commissioner, Maharashtra State, Bombay. The Deputy Director of Industries, Nagpur, is also in charge of work connected with the administration of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958, and Rules thereunder. Under the above Act, his functions relate to enforcement and administration of the Weights and Measures Act, collection of revenue in the form of fees for verification and/or re-verification and stamping of weights and measures, etc. He is also authorised to grant licences as repairers of and/or dealing in weights and measures to the applicants complying with the requirements of the said Act and Rules, under intimation to the Directorate of Industries. He renders all possible assistance to the owners of factories, and collects industrial and commercial information. He undertakes investigations in connection with cases of trade disputes with parties in the district referred to by Indian embassies abroad or foreign embassies in India. Breaches of the provision of the Trade Marks Act, 1958 or Emblems and Names (Prevention of Improper Use) Act (XII of 1950) are also investigated by him. In addition, he is empowered to sanction loans under the State-Aid to Industries Rules to the limit of Rs. 3,000 in each case, to applicants in his jurisdiction. His miscellaneous duties extend over investigation of applications (made for industrial purposes) from parties in his area for a licence under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, land acquisition, power, water, erection of buildings and for issue of essentiality certificate in connection with the import applications for raw materials and machinery, export and purchase of controlled materials such as iron, steel, cement, etc.

The Deputy Director of Industries is assisted in his work by an Industries Officer, three Senior Industries Inspectors and others.

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Other Departments.

INDUSTRIES.

Industries Inspectors.

The duties assigned to the former Inspectors of Weights and Measures under the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Rules are now carried out by the Industries Inspectors. The main purpose of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act is to provide for the adoption and compulsory use of standard weights and measures in the State. No weights or measures or weighing or measuring instruments may be sold, delivered or used for trade, unless they have been verified or re-verified in the manner prescribed by rules made under the said Act and stamped by an Inspector with a stamp of verification. It is the duty of the Inspectors to carry out verification and stamping and to collect the fees.

Weights and Measures Acts.

The Standards of Weights and Measures Act, 1956, has established the Standard Weights and Measures based on Metric system in India. The Government of Maharashtra have enacted the complementary legislation, *viz.*, the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958, for the enforcement of the standard weights and measures, based on Metric system in the State and have framed necessary rules thereunder.

Collection of Statistics.

The Industries Inspectors have also to carry out the duties in connection with collection of statistics from scheduled industries coming under the first schedule of the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, employing 10—49 workers. Government of India have delegated the powers for collecting quarterly production statistics from such units, under the statutory Rules, *viz.*, Industrial Undertakings (Collection of Information and Statistics) Rules, 1959. The units are required to submit quarterly statistical returns, in the prescribed *pro forma*. The Inspectors have to ensure that the factories concerned maintain proper accounts and registers and have to render assistance in completing the returns. They have also to attend to the work connected with the conduct of *ad hoc* surveys of various small-scale industries at the instance of the State and Central Governments. The Industries Inspectors have also to carry out duties in connection with the registration of small-scale industrial undertakings in order to know the progress of various small-scale industries in the State.

Cottage Industries.

With the transfer of activities of cottage industries to the Directorate with effect from December 1, 1960, the Deputy Director of Industries, Nagpur, has to look after the work of the following schemes transferred from the Cottage Industries department, *viz.*, establishment of a Central Textile Institute at Nagpur, development of wood-works and carpentary at Nagpur, expansion of industrial institute at Nagpur, development of the fruit preservation industry on small-scale industry basis at Nagpur, development of wood-works and carpentry at Nagpur, development of small-scale woollen industry in Vidarbha, scheme for village industries, Vidarbha and tribal welfare section, Vidarbha. Subsequently, with the establishment of the Nagpur Zilla Parishad the work has been transferred to the Industries and Co-operation Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

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Other Departments.

CO-OPERATION.

CO-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT.

An agro-industrial economy like that of India with her emphasis on socio-economic change has a vast scope for the organisation and development of co-operative activity. The lead in this behalf is provided for by the Co-operative department of the Government. The activities of the Co-operative department extend to the fields of rural finance, agricultural marketing, industrial co-operative and money-lending business in the district. All these activities are governed under the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1961.

Organisation.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishads, co-operation has come under the dual control of the Zilla Parishad and the State Government. The Co-operative department of the Zilla Parishad is responsible for the registration, organisation, supervision, inspection, etc., of all types of co-operatives in rural areas, having authorised share capital up to Rs. 50,000 or working capital up to Rs. 5 lakhs. It has also to control and supervise all regulated markets. All other schemes are looked after by the department in the State sector.

The Registrar of Co-operative Societies is the head of the Co-operative department at the State level. At the divisional level is the Divisional Joint Registrar assisted by a Divisional Deputy Registrar and three Divisional Assistant Registrars. The Divisional Special Auditor is in charge of the audit section.

In the State sector Nagpur district is placed in charge of the District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Nagpur, a Class I gazetted officer of the Maharashtra Co-operative Service. He is assisted by two Assistant Registrars whose jurisdiction extends over an area specified by the District Deputy Registrar after taking into account the actual work load. Under the Assistant Registrars are the Co-operative Officer and the Assistant Co-operative Officer. The Assistant Registrars enjoy all powers under the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1961, except those under sections 64 and 64-A of the former Act of 1925 which has been replaced by the 1961 Act. They also work as Assistant Registrars of Money Lenders for their respective jurisdictions.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad one of the three Assistant Registrars has been transferred to it. He works as the Industries and Co-operation Officer of the Zilla Parishad. He is directly responsible to the Chief Executive Officer. He is delegated certain powers of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies so far as registration of new societies and amendments to the bye-laws of certain types of societies coming under the purview of the Zilla Parishad are concerned. He has also to work on the Co-operation Committee of the Zilla Parishad.

The Co-operative Officer and the Assistant Co-operative Officer are in charge of the activities of the department under the State sector. They are appointed by the Registrar of Co-operative

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. CO-OPERATION. Organisation.

Societies and the Divisional Joint Registrar of Co-operative Societies, respectively. The Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies who is the Industries and Co-operation Officer is assisted by the Block Development Officers and the Extension Officers.

The main responsibility of the supervising staff is confined to detailed supervision over the working of all agricultural credit and multi-purpose societies in the district. They are expected to supervise every society in their charge. There are, at present, 14 Supervisors working in the district whose appointments are made by the Divisional Joint Registrar, Nagpur. They are placed under the administrative control of the Assistant Registrars. In pursuance of the policy of democratic decentralisation, supervising unions have been organised at 13 development blocks. The Assistant Co-operative Officers work as the *ex officio* Secretaries of these unions. Services of the Supervisors are also placed at the disposal of these unions for inspection and supervision of affiliated primary societies.

District Supervision Committee.

The District Supervision Committee is an *ad hoc* body which has taken up the task of appointment and allotment of work to the supervising unions. It works as a link between the tahsil (Block) supervising unions and the State Board of Supervision. It has recommendatory powers.

Education and training in co-operation and propaganda for the spread of co-operative movement are carried out by the District Co-operative Board under the guidance of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union Ltd., Bombay. The membership of the Board is of two classes, *viz.*, ordinary, consisting of all co-operative societies in the district, and associate, consisting of individuals. A nominee of the financing agency (The Nagpur District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., Nagpur), the District Deputy Registrar and the Executive Officer of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union are *ex officio* members of the Board. It has a membership of 600.

Audit.

Section 81 of the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1961, provides for statutory audit of every society at least once in a year by the Registrar or by persons authorised by him. In the district it is the responsibility of the Divisional Special Auditor, Co-operative Societies, Nagpur.

The work of organisation of industrial co-operatives has, since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, been transferred to it and the Block Development Officers and Extension Officers look after this work. The services of Industrial Supervisors and Stamping Inspectors are also placed at their disposal.

Money-lending.

The salient features of the Bombay Money-lenders Act are licensing of money-lenders, maintenance of accounts by money-lenders in prescribed forms and restrictions on rates of interests.

The Joint Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Nagpur, works as the Divisional Joint Registrar of Money-lenders. The Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies works as Assistant

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. CO-OPERATION. Money-lending.

Registrar of Money-lenders in his respective jurisdiction while the District Deputy Registrar works as Registrar of Money-lenders in the district and issues licences to money-lenders and is responsible for the administration of the Bombay Money-lenders Act. The Co-operative Officers have to work in dual capacity both as Co-operative Officers and Inspectors of Money-lenders.

Accomplishments.

The co-operative movement in Nagpur district is developed more or less on progressive lines. The (Maharashtra) Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute has established a Regional Co-operative School at Nagpur. It imparts training in co-operation to the employees of the Co-operative department, and institutions and supervisors, bank inspectors and secretaries of multi-purpose societies and purchase and sale unions.

Vidarbha Co-operative Marketing Society Ltd.

The Vidarbha Co-operative Marketing Society is an apex non-credit society having jurisdiction over the whole of Vidarbha region. It channelises distribution of fertilisers and oil engines and acts as wholesale distributor of sugar for the district. It pools cotton from the cotton growing region through purchase and sales societies affiliated to it and also undertakes marketing of agricultural produce particularly in the paddy growing tracts. The society has 141 affiliated societies and 452 individuals as members. It has constructed seven godowns. It receives fertilisers from Government on consignment basis and supplies them to the cultivators in the remotest villages through its agents and sub-agents which are co-operative institutions only. It has received financial assistance in the form of loans and subsidies to the tune of Rs. 1.4 lakhs for construction of godowns. The Government have also contributed Rs. 2.45 lakhs to the share capital of the society.

Nagpur Orange Growers' Co-operative Association Ltd.

Nagpur Orange Growers Co-operative Association is a marketing body so far as marketing of oranges, other fruits and vegetables is concerned. It renders technical advice particularly to orange growers. The Association has opened a sales depot at Delhi where the oranges are in great demand. It has also started a processing plant. To this Association are affiliated 49 primary societies of orange growers, credit facilities to which are provided for by the co-operative banks on condition that they should market their produce through the Association. The Government have contributed Rs. 11.50 lakhs towards the share capital of the Association.

Co-operative Associations for Chilli and Betel-leaves.

A Chilli Growers Association has been established at Umrer activities of which extend over marketing and processing of chillis. Government have contributed Rs. 3,400 towards its share capital. A Betel-Leaves Co-operative Association has also been established at Ramtek.

Co-operative Banks.

Banking and credit facilities to co-operatives in Nagpur district are provided mainly by the Vidarbha Co-operative Bank, the Nagpur District Central Co-operative Bank and the Nagpur Land

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

CO-OPERATION.

Accomplishments.

Co-operative Banks.

Development Bank. The Vidarbha Co-operative Bank channelises the funds received from the Reserve Bank of India to the central financing agencies. It transacts commercial banking business also alongwith playing its role as an apex institution for supplying agricultural finance. It is also an apex institution as far as primary land mortgage banks in the Vidarbha region are concerned. The Nagpur District Central Co-operative Bank makes credit facilities available to agriculturists through the primary societies affiliated to it. The Government have contributed Rs. 7·75 lakhs towards its share capital of Rs. 23·25 lakhs. The eight branches of this bank are spread over all the five tahsils of the district. The Nagpur Land Development Bank makes long-term credit available to the agriculturists towards liquidation of old debts and towards land improvement of permanent nature. Loans up to 50 per cent of the value of the landed property are sanctioned on mortgage of the said landed property.

Service Co-operatives.

The number of service co-operatives in the district stood at 484 on September 30, 1960. Of these, 240 societies were granted subsidy at Rs. 500 each towards the appointment of trained secretaries. Of the 23 multi-purpose societies, Government have contributed Rs. 7,500 each to the share capital of 22 societies. Nine societies have also constructed godowns with the aid of the financial assistance of Rs. 10,000 each received from the Government. Almost all of these societies are engaged in the distribution of foodgrains, fertilisers and improved seeds.

Fisheries Societies.

Of the six fisheries societies only one at Ramtek is flourishing. All others have almost stopped their activities due to the non-availability of tanks. The society at Ramtek gets technical guidance from the Fisheries department of the State. It collects the fry from members and sells in the common markets.

Dairy Societies.

There are 29 dairy societies in the district. The introduction of the Government milk scheme in Nagpur has encouraged their activities. The working of these dairy societies is regulated by the federation of these dairy societies organised on September 22, 1960, for the purpose. Of these societies ten have received financial assistance from the Government to the tune of Rs. 11,000.

Processing Societies.

The pioneering work in respect of the co-operative processing societies has been done with the establishment of the Co-operative Cotton Ginning and Pressing Society at Nagpur. It has received from Government Rs. 50,000 towards its share capital.

Housing Societies.

There were in 1960 54 housing societies in the district inclusive of 37 working under low income group housing scheme having received loans from the Vidarbha Housing Board. Of these 37 societies, 35 are at Nagpur and one each at Katol and Kalmeshwar. The societies in Nagpur have constructed 1,767 tenements. A wholesale market with residential accommodation for shopkeepers is also under construction on co-operative basis.

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Other Departments.

CO-OPERATION.

Accomplishments.

Housing Societies.

Of the twelve Backward Class Co-operative Housing Societies one has received financial assistance to the tune of Rs. 2,25,000 from Government towards the construction of 75 houses. A society at Bhiwapur constructed 25 houses with Government assistance. A society working under the subsidised industrial housing scheme has been granted a loan of Rs. 1,61,000 towards the construction of 100 tenements.

Consumers Societies.

In the district, there are 272 stores established by the consumers societies including 16 stores in rural areas conducted by multipurpose societies. Their activities are mostly confined to running fair price shops.

Farming Societies.

There are four farming societies in the district. All of them are joint farming societies. The society at Khandala in Ramtek tahsil has been granted financial assistance of Rs. 24,000 as loan and Rs. 4,000 as Government contribution towards its share capital as it has been selected for intensive development. These societies command, in aggregate, an area of 344.388 hectares (851 acres).

Fillip to the movement.

The development of the co-operative movement in the district is particularly visible as far as agricultural credit co-operatives, housing and consumer goods societies are concerned. The direct participation of Government has given stimulus to the first two kinds of societies while the Government's policy of entrusting distribution of foodgrains, sugar and other essential commodities to the co-operatives has indirectly given fillip to the third type. As per the declared policy of the Government steps are being taken to link credit with marketing and processing.

FISHERIES DEPARTMENT

FISHERIES.

Organisation.

Prior to the reorganisation of States in 1956, an Assistant Fishery Development Officer posted at Nagpur was in charge of the eight districts of Vidarbha, and three districts of Chhindwada, Seoni and Betul now under Madhya Pradesh. The Assistant Fishery Development Officer then posted at Bhandara was in charge of fish seed collection scheme, with statewide jurisdiction. With the reorganisation of States, the posts of Assistant Fishery Development Officers were redesignated as Superintendents of Fisheries. The Superintendent of Fisheries, Bhandara, was then immediately placed in charge of all the fisheries activities in Bhandara district, while Superintendent of Fisheries, Nagpur, looked after the work in the remaining seven districts of Vidarbha. Both the Superintendents were directly responsible to the Director of Fisheries, Bombay.

In 1958, under the Second Five-Year Plan scheme, one more post of Superintendent of Fisheries was created at Chanda with jurisdiction over Chanda and Yeotmal districts, as well as a post of Assistant Director of Fisheries at Nagpur as a Regional Officer for Vidarbha region. Thus the Superintendent of Fisheries, Nagpur, has now jurisdiction over Nagpur, Wardha, Amravati, Akola and Buldhana districts.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

FISHERIES.

Organisation.

Superintendent of Fisheries.

The Assistant Director of Fisheries is the planning, supervising and co-ordinating officer for all the activities of the department in the three fisheries divisions of Vidarbha region. He represents the department at the meetings of the Divisional Development Council and its sub-committees.

The duties of the Superintendent of Fisheries are as follows:—

(i) To carry out survey of new sheets of water to assess their suitability for pisciculture.

(ii) To stock tanks and ponds with suitable varieties of fish every year.

(iii) To construct nurseries and to nurture fry in them.

(iv) To supervise the tanks.

(v) To form and supervise Fisheries Co-operative Societies and to devise ways and means to improve the socio-economic conditions of fishermen.

(vi) To investigate applications from fishermen for loan and subsidy from the Government.

(vii) To watch and effect loan recoveries and credit the money into the Treasury.

(viii) To associate and encourage fishermen to take advantage of different schemes of the department.

(ix) To collect statistics of fish and other data pertaining to fisheries and fishermen of the district.

(x) To give technical guidance to the deep tank fishing operations conducted by the societies.

(xi) To supervise the working of Ice and Cold Storage Plant.

(xii) To supervise in general the work of development of fisheries in the districts.

MAHARASHTRA STATE ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION

STATE TRANSPORT.

Historical Background.

The road transport in Nagpur district was nationalised long before the district was merged in Maharashtra State consequent upon the reorganisation of States. In 1946, the then Government took over the managing agency of the Provincial Transport Company from Messrs. Mechanical Transport. It continued up to August 31, 1955, as a joint stock company under the Indian Companies Act. From September 1, 1955, it was completely taken over by the Government and was named as "Provincial Transport Services".

The General Manager was the administrative head of the undertaking and was responsible to the Board of Management. The Board comprised the Motor Transport Controller, Maharashtra State, Bombay; the District Commercial Superintendent, South Eastern Railway, Nagpur; the Road Superintendent, Central and Western Railways, Bombay; the Superintending Engineer, Roads and Buildings, Nagpur, and a non-official member.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

STATE TRANSPORT.

Historical Background.

The General Manager was assisted by the Assistant Manager who looks after administrative and traffic matters and the Divisional Mechanical Engineer who looks after technical work. The undertaking was divided into sections for administration, establishment, traffic, audit, accounts and statistics, civil engineering, labour and stores. The Labour Officer used to look after all matters relating to labour relations with the administration.

The undertaking had seven depots out of which four were located at Nagpur and one each at Yeotmal, Amravati and Talegaon. Of these, the one at Talegaon was a sub-depot.

In 1959-60 the undertaking had a fleet of 315 road worthy vehicles of which 47 vehicles were attached to the Nagpur City Service. On an average 214 vehicles used to ply in rural areas and 36 in urban areas.

During the year 1959-60, the undertaking carried 1,58,11,797 passengers. The daily average number of passengers carried during the year worked out to 43,320.

Since the merger of Nagpur district in the then Bombay State in 1956, the Provincial Transport Services was brought under the overall control of the State Government. In order to co-ordinate the activities and organisation of the three state transport organisations in the State, *viz.*, the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation, the Provincial Transport Services and the Marathwada State Transport, they were merged into a single Corporation in July 1961. The new body was termed as the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation with head-quarters at Bombay. As such, the Provincial Transport Services was merged in the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation from July 1961.

Organisation.

For administrative convenience of operating the transport services, a division is created at Nagpur. The Nagpur division* comprises Nagpur and some other districts of Vidarbha. The Divisional Controller who is a Class I Officer is the head of the division. He is immediately under the control of the General Manager, Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation. The Controller has under him the following departments and branches, *viz.*, (1) administration, (2) traffic, (3) mechanical engineering, (4) accounts and audit, (5) statistics, (6) security, (7) stores, (8) secretarial, and (9) regional workshop. He is assisted by Class II Officers who are charged with definite functional responsibilities.

The Divisional Traffic Officer is in charge of all matters related to traffic operations. The Divisional Mechanical Engineer looks after workshops and repairs. He is assisted by the Divisional Works Superintendent. Accounts section is directly under the Divisional Accounts Officer.

*Till 1964 Nagpur division extended its jurisdiction over Nagpur, Wardha, Chanda, Yeotmal, Amravati and Bhandara districts.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

STATE TRANSPORT.

Organisation.

The light and heavy repairs of the buses are carried out at the divisional workshop at Nagpur. The vehicles, after a certain period, are routed to the divisional workshop for preventive maintenance and docking.

The Nagpur bus depot is built in modern style and furnishes the required facilities to the travelling public and operating staff. It provides for a waiting hall, platforms, booking windows, cloak-room, canteen, refreshment room, sanitary and water-supply arrangement. A terminus station for Nagpur City Bus Service has also been constructed at Sitabuldi at Nagpur. Shelters are provided for at major bus stops in the city. The city bus services have been augmented to a great extent recently.* Buses to distant routes run from Nagpur.

METEOROLOGICAL DEPARTMENT

METEOROLOGICAL.

The Director, Regional Meteorological Centre, Nagpur, is the controlling officer of the Meteorological department in the Vidarbha region of the State and in the Madhya Pradesh.

The department has to provide day-to-day weather reports, aviation and non-aviation weather forecasts and warnings, etc. The department also issues Farmers Weather Bulletin containing an outlook of weather for 48 hours for their benefit.

The Regional Meteorological Centre at Nagpur has been divided into (a) Main Meteorological Office, (b) Weather Radar Observatory, (c) Radio Sonde and Pawin Observatory, (d) Radiation measurements, (e) Sterics Observatory and (f) Pilot Balloon Observatory. A class four meteorological observatory is situated in the Mayo Hospital, Nagpur. Ten raingauge stations in the district are located at Nagpur, Umrer, Ramtek, Katol, Saoner, Deolapar, Parsconi, Khindsi, Tharsa and Nagpur farm.

* For details refer Chapter 7—Communications.

CHAPTER 14—LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

INTRODUCTION.

THE LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN THE DISTRICT is conducted by various statutory bodies such as municipalities including Nagpur Municipal Corporation, Village Panchayats and the Zilla Parishad enjoying local autonomy in different degrees. The progress of these institutions could be marked in three spheres. Firstly, in regard to their constitution, from fully or partly nominated bodies, they have now become entirely elective. Secondly, their franchise had gone on widening from restricted franchise based on income to adult franchise. With the enactment of the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities (Bombay Amendment) Act, 1957 (Bombay Act XVI of 1958) every person who (A) is a citizen of India, (B) has attained the age of 21 years and (C) has requisite residence, business premises or taxation qualification is now entitled to be enrolled as a voter. Prior to 1950 reservation of seats for women, Muhammedans, *Harijans*, Christians, Anglo-Indians and backward tribes had been provided for in the municipalities. It has been abolished with coming into force of the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities (Bombay Amendment) Act, 1957 except in case of women and scheduled castes. Thirdly, wider and wider powers have gradually been conferred upon the local bodies culminating in the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961 for the administration of the areas under their charge. This has resulted in the participation of the people in the Local Government creating facilities for training to shoulder higher responsibilities.

The supervision over the local bodies in Nagpur Division is conducted by the Divisional Commissioner, Nagpur Division, Nagpur. He exercises control over the local bodies under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922; the Madhya Pradesh Local Fund Audit Act, 1933; the Madhya Pradesh Public Health Act, 1949; the City of Nagpur Corporation Act, 1948; the Cattle Trespass Act, 1871; the Central Provinces and Berar Primary Education Act, 1920; the Central Provinces and Berar Town Planning Act, 1948; the Central Provinces and Berar Grant-in-aid to Local Bodies Act, 1939; the Hackney Carriage Act, 1879; the Vaccination Act, 1880; the Municipal Taxation Act, 1881; the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act, 1890; the Local Authorities Loans Act, 1914; the Central Provinces Slaughter of Animals Act, 1915 and the Provident Funds Act, 1925.

MUNICIPALITIES.

The total area under the administration of the municipalities in the district in 1961 was 287.366 km². (110.91 sq. miles) with a population of 7,81,448 according to the 1961 census.

The Nagpur Municipal Corporation was constituted by combining the Nagpur municipality and the civil station sub-committee under the City of Nagpur Corporation Act, 1948. The Mohpa Gram Panchayat was converted into a municipality in 1955[1]. The only cantonment in the district (the Kamptee Cantonment) is governed under the Cantonment Act of 1924.

The municipalities at Kamptee, Mohpa, Saoner, Katol, Umrer, Ramtek, Khapa, Narkhed, Kalmeshwar and Mowar are governed under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922.

The following table gives the names of municipalities in the district along with the number of councillors, reserved seats, etc.:—

1 *Vide* notification No. 1482-7825-M-R, dated the 23rd March, 1955.

Municipality	Population 1961 Census	Area in km²	Number of wards	Number of Councillors					
				Total	Reserved for women	Reserved for scheduled castes	Reserved for scheduled tribes	Unreserved	Nominated
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1. Nagpur Municipal Corporation ..	6,43,186	217·56 (84·00)	42	57	..	..	..	..	..
2. Kamptee	40,464	5·18 (2·00)	20	23	2	4	..	17	..
3. Ramtek	11,758	10·36 (4·00)	8	10	1	1	..	8	..
4. Saoner	10,186	9·07 (3·50)	11	13	1	1	..	11	..
5. Katol	14,581	10·36 (4·00)	13	16	2	1	..	13	..
6. Umrer	22,682	2·59 (1·00)	15	18	1	2	..	15	..
7. Kalmeshwar	6,725	3·65 (1·41)	10	12	1	1	..	10	..
8. Mohpa	5,647	5·18 (2·00)	9	10	1	..	..	9	..
9. Narkhed	10,442	7·77 (3·00)	11	13	1	1	..	11	..
10. Mowar	5,841	12·95 (5·00)	10	12	1	1	..	10	..
11. Khapa	9,536	2·59 (1·00)	12	14	1	1	..	12	..

Figures in the brackets denote area in sq. miles.

The term of office of the members of a municipality is five years. According to the Act, every municipality has to be presided[1] over by a President elected by the councillors from amongst themselves. The result of the election is to be notified in the official Gazette by the Collector[2]. Each municipality will have a Vice-President who shall be appointed by the President from amongst the members of the Committee under Sub-section (2) of Section 18 of the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922 which will also be notified in the official Gazette by the Collector.

The President as the head of the municipality has to—

(*a*) preside over the meetings of the municipality,

(*b*) watch over the financial and executive functions as may be performed by the municipality and

(*c*) exercise supervision and control over the acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the municipality.

Every municipality has to constitute a finance sub-committee. Constitution of other executive or consultative committees is optional. The Act stipulates obligatory and optional duties, the municipality has to perform. In addition to the duties stipulated under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act or any other enactments the municipality has to undertake and make provision for lighting public streets, places and buildings, cleaning public streets and places and sewers and all such sites which are not private property and which are open to the public whether such places vest in the municipality or not. The municipality has also to undertake removal of noxious vegetation and to abate public nuisances. The municipality has the responsibility of disposing of night-soil and rubbish, extinguishing fires and protecting life and property when fires occur, regulating or abating offensive or dangerous trade or practices, removing obstruction and projection in public streets or places, establishing and managing pounds including the areas where the Cattle Trespass Act, 1871 is in operation (all functions of the State Government and the Magistrate under Sections 4, 5, 6, 7, 12, 14, 17 and 18 of the Act), securing or removing dangerous buildings and sites; acquiring, maintaining and regulating places for the disposal of dead bodies, constructing and maintaining public streets and culverts in municipal areas, providing other facilities such as markets, slaughter-houses, etc., providing adequate and clean drinking water, naming streets and registering births and deaths, carrying out public vaccination, establishing and maintaining primary schools, taking necessary measures for prevention of outbreak, spread and recurrence of infectious diseases, carrying out annually census of agricultural cattle, etc.

[1] Section 8 of the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922.

[2] Section 20.

A municipality may at its discretion provide out of its funds for the following among other works with previous sanction and approval of the State Government:—

(*a*) Reclaiming unhealthy localities, laying out whether in areas previously built upon or not, new public streets, and acquiring land for the purpose;

(*b*) constructing, establishing and maintaining public parks, gardens, libraries, museums, public halls, offices, *sarais*, rest-houses, hospitals, dispensaries and other public buildings;

(*c*) extending educational activities besides establishment and maintenance of primary schools;

(*d*) watering public streets and places;

(*e*) planting and maintaining trees along the road side;

(*f*) carrying out the census;

(*g*) destroying stray dogs;

(*h*) securing or helping to secure suitable places for the carrying on of the offensive trades mentioned in Section 133;

(*i*) providing piped water-supply to the citizens;

(*j*) maintaining a farm or factory for the disposal of sewage;

(*k*) constructing and maintaining such roads, buildings, and Government works as the Government may in accordance with rules made under the Act transfer to the Committee and

(*l*) taking any measure not specified in Section 50 of the Act which is likely to promote public health, safety or convenience.

The municipality is authorised to levy house tax on annual letting value of the houses; tax on any profession, trade or calling carried on in municipal limits; a tax on vehicles plying in the municipal areas and on domestic animals; a toll on animals entering municipal limits to be maintained as domestic pet animals; an octroi on animals and goods brought within the municipal limits for sale, consumption or use; market dues on persons exposing goods for sale in any market or place under the control of the municipality; fees on registration of cattle sold within municipal limits; latrine or conservancy tax, water-rate, lighting rate or drainage rate if such facilities are provided for by the municipality and a tax on persons travelling by railway to or from a municipality to which pilgrims resort or on pilgrims.

The State Government may by rules made under this Act, regulate imposition of taxes and fix maximum rate for any tax. Any tax that a municipality has to impose for the first time can be imposed only after the prior sanction of the Government. The municipality has also to take previous sanction of the Government for abolition of any tax specified in sub-section (1), clauses (X), (O), (P) or any variation in the amount of rates thereof.

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MUNICIPALITIES.

The State Government may raise objections to the levy of any particular tax which appears to it to be unfair in its incidence or obnoxious to the interest of the general public and suspend the levy of it until such time as the objections are removed. The State Government may require a municipality to impose taxes when it appears to it that the balance of the municipal fund is insufficient for meeting any cost incurred by any person acting under the directions of the Collector or of the Commissioner.

The rates at which taxes are levied by municipalities do not enable them to meet all their expenditure. Their incomes have to be supplemented by numerous Government grants, both recurring and non-recurring. For instance, grants are made by Government to municipalities towards water-supply and drainage schemes, expenditure on controlling epidemics, payment of dearness allowance to staff, etc. These grants add substantially to the municipal income.

Control over the municipalities is exercised by the Collector, Nagpur District, Nagpur; the Commissioner, Nagpur Division, Nagpur and the State Government. The Collector has powers of entry and inspection in regard to any immovable property occupied by a municipality or any work in progress under it. He may also call for extracts from the proceedings of a meeting of the municipality or for any books or documents in its possession or under its control. He may also require a municipality to take into consideration any objection he has to any of its acts or any action on its part. These powers can be delegated by the Collector to the Assistant or Deputy Collector (Sub-Divisional Officers) in the district.

The Collector has powers to order a municipality to prohibit, pending the orders of the State Government, the execution of any of its order or resolution if, in his opinion, it is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or to lead to a breach of peace or is unlawful. In cases of emergency, the Government may provide for the execution of any works or the doing of any act which a municipality is empowered to execute or to do and the immediate execution or doing of which is necessary for the health or safety of the public, and may direct that the expenses shall be paid forthwith by the municipality.

On the recommendations of a municipality the Commissioner can remove any councillor guilty of misconduct in the discharge of his duties.

When satisfied that a municipality has made a default in performing any statutory duty imposed on it, the State Government may direct the Divisional Commissioner to fix a period for the performance of that duty, and if the particular duty is not performed within the period stipulated, the Commissioner may appoint some person to perform it and direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality. If the

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Local Self-Government.

MUNICIPALITIES.

State Government is of the view that any municipality is not competent to perform or persistently makes default in the performance of its duties or exceeds or abuses its powers, it may either dissolve the municipality or supersede it for a specific period. The president or vice-president of a municipality may be removed by the State Government for misconduct or for negligence or incapability in regard to the performance of their duties.

The audit of all local fund accounts is provided for by the Local Fund Audit Act, 1933. The Divisional Commissioner, on receipt of the Report of the Examiner of Local Fund Accounts, may disallow any item of expenditure which appears to him to be contrary to law and surcharge the same on the person making or authorising the making of the illegal payment.

ZILLA PARISHAD.

Historical Background.

Like the Greek City States, the villages in ancient India had always been autonomous units. The characteristic feature of administration in ancient India was the prevalence of freedom and autonomy in governing the village institutions. However, the villages lost their autonomy as more power came to be vested and concentrated in the sovereign kings.

During the British Administration, some attempts were made to revive the Local Self-Government institutions in India with a view to training the people in the administration of such institutions by giving them representations in such local bodies. As a result, municipalities, district school boards and janpadsabhas came to be established, subsequently. Village panchayats also came to be founded and as a result of this it was possible for British Government to regenerate confidence among the masses inhabiting the rural areas.

Vidarbha organised its *gram panchayats* and *nyaya panchayats* in 1946, while in Marathwada region the village panchayats started functioning in every village with a population of 5,000 and above in 1941. After the reorganisation of the erstwhile State of Bombay, the Village Panchayats Act was passed in 1958, for the whole State. This Act envisaged a Village Panchayat Mandal for every district. Not only this but *gat-nyaya panchayats* came to be organised for groups of five or more village panchayats.

In course of time, the experience gained indicated that the progress of rural development was not commensurate with the expectations of the Government. Various development activities introduced in the various Plan periods could not achieve a commendable amount of success owing to non-participation of the villagers in the implementation of such developmental schemes. The Central Government came to the conclusion that it was necessary for the Government to investigate the causes behind such a state of affairs. It therefore appointed a committee called the 'Balwantrai Mehta Committee'.

The 'Balwantrai Mehta Committee' pointed out mainly, among other findings, that the Government could not succeed in appealing and attracting the leadership of the masses to participate in the Community Development and National Developmental Schemes. Institutions of the type of the Local Self-Government had not taken any deep interest to participate in such developmental schemes and had not shown any initiative for such work. The part played by the village panchayats in such works was also not very encouraging. There was very often interference from the Government in the affairs of the working of the Local Boards. The Committee came to the conclusion that the urgent necessity of the day, to remedy this state of affairs, was the decentralisation of power and responsibility at the lower level. The Committee, therefore, suggested that the responsibility for such regional and local development work should be assigned to such local institutions at the district level with the Government accepting the role of guiding, supervising and planning from a higher level, making available the required finances and so on.

The 'Balwantrai Mehta Committee' recommended the formation of Local Committees on par with Block Development Committees, to be named as Panchayat Samitis, and at the district level a District Committee to be called 'Zilla Parishad', instead of the Local Boards, etc., in order to secure integration in the various developmental activities. Thus, the *Gram Panchayat*, the Panchayat Samiti and the Zilla Parishad are the three responsible functionaries in the decentralisation of administration, which are entrusted with the implementation of the Developmental Schemes.

Thus, an Act, to provide for the establishment of Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis, to assign to them local Government functions, and to entrust the execution of certain works and development schemes in the State Five-Year Plans and to provide for the decentralisation of powers and functions under certain enactments was passed in 1961, known as the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

Under the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the following departments of the State operating in the district have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad:—

(1) General Administration Department.

(2) Local Self-Government, excluding municipalities and municipal boroughs.

(3) Developmental Departments: Agriculture, Veterinary, Forests, Co-operation including Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries, Industries, Public Works.

(4) Welfare Departments: Education (excluding training colleges and higher education), Technical and Industrial Training, Medical, Public Health, Labour, Prohibition and Excise, Backward Classes, Community Projects and National Extension Service, Social Welfare.

(5) Miscellaneous Departments: Administration of Managed Estates.

Before the *Zilla Parishad* came into existence, Local Self-Government in the district was working at district, taluka and village level. It was conducted by various statutory bodies, enjoying local autonomy in different degrees. The progress of these institutions was in three spheres. Firstly, in regard to their constitutions, from fully or partly nominated bodies, they have become entirely elective. Secondly, their franchise, which was widening, had, with the enactment of the Bombay Local Authorities Adult Franchise and Removal of Reservation of Seats Act (XVII of 1950), reached the widest limits possible, viz., universal adult franchise; every person who—

(*a*) is a citizen of India,

(*b*) has attained the age of 21 years, and

(*c*) has the requisite residence, business premises or taxation qualification, is now entitled to be enrolled as a voter.

Thirdly, wider and wider powers have been gradually conferred on local bodies for the administration of the areas under their charge. The primary schools in the municipal areas are run by the Zilla Parishad.

Under the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961 which came into force from May 1, 1962, all ex-Boards, i.e., District Local Board, District School Board, District Building Committee, District Development Board were abolished and their work was vested in the Zilla Parishad. All village panchayats have to work under their respective Taluka Samitis.

The following offices of the Government also were taken over by the Zilla Parishad:—

1. District Village Panchayat Mandal.
2. Agriculture Department.
3. Education Department.
4. Animal Husbandry.
5. Co-operative Department (partial).
6. Social Welfare Department.
7. Publicity Department, excluding Publicity Officer.
8. Industries Department, excluding District Industries Officer.
9. Health Department, excluding malaria eradication.
10. Works, excluding national highways.
11. Irrigation up to 101.171 hectares or 250 acres.
12. Dry Farming.

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

ZILLA PARISHAD.

Subjects of Activities.

In what follows is described, in brief, the subjects of activities of different departments:—

Agriculture.

Agriculture.

(*a*) Establishment, management, maintenance and the giving of grants to agricultural schools (including grants-in-aid to agricultural schools), but not including matters relating to (i) laying down of syllabus, (ii) prescription of text-books and (iii) conducting annual examinations.

(*b*) Crop competitions.

(*c*) Crop protection.

(*d*) Crop campaign (including *kharif* and *rabi* crop campaigns and intensive paddy cultivation).

(*e*) Compost and green manures.

(*f*) Distribution of fertilisers, agricultural implements and agricultural quota of iron, steel and cement.

(*g*) Demonstration of improved agricultural practices.

(*h*) Model demonstration of subsidiary seed farms.

(*i*) Importation and distribution of improved seeds.

(*j*) Establishment and maintenance of godowns.

(*k*) Advancement and improvement of agriculture.

(*l*) Eradication of noxious plants.

(*m*) Acclimatisation of exotics.

Animal Husbandry.

Animal Husbandry.

(*a*) Veterinary aid (excluding district veterinary hospitals but including veterinary dispensaries, veterinary aid centres and village veterinary chests).

(*b*) Improvement of breed of cattle, horses, and other livestock (including artificial insemination sub-centres, key village centres, premium bull centres, fodder development plots, silo pits, formation of taluka and district livestock improvement association and the like, and distribution of improved breed of sheep).

(*c*) Distribution of improved poultry.

(*d*) Organisation of cattle shows and rallies.

Forests.

Forests.

(*a*) Village forests and grazing lands (including measures for development of village woodlands for purposes of pasture and fuel).

Social Welfare.

Social Welfare.

(*a*) Educational development of backward classes, including measures relating to—

1. grant of scholarships, freeships and examination fees to backward class students.

(*b*) Economic development of backward classes including—

(1) giving of financial assistance to individual cultivators in the form of loans and subsidies for the purpose of purchasing agricultural requisites,

(2) giving of financial assistance to individual artisans in the form of loan and subsidies for cottage industries and professions,

(3) supply of spinning wheels to *vimukta jatis*,

(4) development of communications in backward areas,

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ZILLA PARISHAD.

Subjects of Activities.

Social Welfare.

(5) maintenance of co-operative stores and grant of subsidies to multipurpose co-operative societies for maintenance of staff (so far as co-operative societies having not more than rupees five lakhs working capital each and having jurisdiction over less than a district, are concerned),

(6) establishment of handicraft centres, and

(7) development of cattle-breeding and poultry farms.

(*c*) Removal of untouchability.

(*d*) Programmes for welfare of backward classes.

Education.

Education.

(*a*) Establishment, management, maintenance and inspection of primary and basic schools, including grants-in-aid to schools but excluding—

(i) laying down of syllabus,

(ii) prescription of text-books,

(iii) conducting scholarship examinations,

(iv) conducting Primary School Certificate Examinations and Standard IV examinations and

(v) such other powers as are vested in the State Government, under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947.

(*b*) Establishment, management, maintenance and inspection of Secondary Schools, excluding—

(i) prescription of curriculum,

(ii) prescription of text-books,

(iii) rates of and conditions for maintenance grants,

(iv) permission for conversion of high schools into higher secondary schools,

(v) rates of fees,

(vi) laying down general conditions for recognition,

(vii) conducting primary and high school scholarship examinations,

(viii) such other powers as may be specifically entrusted to the Director of Education or reserved for the State Government, under the Grant-in-Aid Code.

In the case of private secondary schools, only grants are recommended and disbursed on the receipt of sanction from the Director of Education.

(*c*) Grant of loans and scholarships to students in respect of primary and secondary education.

(*d*) Construction and maintenance of primary and secondary school buildings of the Zilla Parishad.

(*e*) Other educational objects.

(*f*) Provision of equipment and playgrounds for schools.

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Subjects of Activities.

Medical.

(*a*) Taluka dispensaries, including their upgrading.

(*b*) Hospitals, excluding civil and cottage as also big Government hospitals.

(*c*) Subsidised Medical Practitioners' Centres.

(*d*) Rural medical relief centres and public medical relief.

(*e*) Grant of financial assistance to institutions giving anti-rabic treatment to indigent persons.

(*f*) Grants-in-aid to private charitable hospitals, dispensaries, maternity homes and such other institutions.

Ayurvedic.

(*a*) Ayurvedic and Unani dispensaries (including giving grants to such dispensaries).

(*b*) Replenishing stock of ayurvedic medicine chest in villages.

Public Health.

(*a*) Primary health centres.

(*b*) Mobile hygiene units.

(*c*) Combined medical and public health units.

(*d*) Vaccination.

(*e*) School health service.

(*f*) Measures for treatment of Anti-yaws.

(*g*) Maternity and Child Welfare Centres.

(*h*) Maintenance of medicine boxes in villages.

(*i*) Facilities for health education.

(*j*) Rural sanitation.

(*k*) Taking of necessary measures in the interest of public health.

(*l*) Reclamation of unhealthy localities.

Buildings and Communications.

(*a*) Construction, maintenance and repairs of—

(i) village roads,

(ii) other district roads,

(iii) major district roads and

(iv) bridges on above-mentioned roads.

(*b*) Rural parks and gardens.

(*c*) Construction of administrative and other buildings in connection with Zilla Parishad's requirements.

(*d*) Means of communications, other than roads.

(*e*) Public ferries.

(*f*) Maintenance of trees in the vicinity of roads.

(*g*) Light railways and tramways.

(*h*) Telephone lines.

Public Water-supply.

(*a*) Rural water-supply.

(*b*) Protected water-supply for fairs in rural areas.

(*c*) Works for preservation of water for drinking, bathing and cooking from pollution.

Irrigation.

Minor Irrigation Works (only those works which irrigate 250 acres or less).

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Local Self-Government.

ZILLA PARISHAD.

Subjects of Activities.

Industries and Cottage Industries.

Industries.

(*a*) Local Industries
(*b*) Local Arts
} The grants of loans is limited up to rupees ten thousand in each case in respect of small-scale or cottage industries.

(*c*) Training institutes and schools, excluding research institutes and institutes meant for an area larger than a district.

(*d*) Training-*cum*-production centres and production centres.

(*e*) Sales depots and emporia.

(*f*) Giving of grants-in-aid and loans to individual craftsman.

(*g*) Giving of stipends to trainees.

(*h*) Promotion and development of cottage and village industries.

(*i*) Organising marketing facilities for cottage and village industries products.

(*j*) Giving of grants-in-aid and loans to industrial co-operatives.

(*k*) Handlooms.

(*l*) Executive work relating to enforcement of Weights and Measures Act.

Co-operation.

Co-operation.

(*a*) Registration of co-operative societies (only in respect of those societies whose working capital does not exceed rupees five lakhs each and whose jurisdiction is less than a district).

(*b*) Approval to bye-laws of the types of societies mentioned above.

(*c*) Appeals arising out of non-admission of members to the type of societies mentioned above.

(*d*) Administrative supervision over co-operative societies (only to the extent of examination of the general working of societies, their management and financial position, with a view to improving the business standards adopted by the societies and their office-bearers and also extending their activities).

(*e*) Promotion and extension in respect of all types of co-operative societies.

(*f*) Sponsoring of applications of co-operative societies for financial assistance from the State Government.

(*g*) Sponsoring of applications of co-operative societies (such as may be specified by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies) to concerned federal societies in respect of participation in share capital.

(*h*) Taking shares in co-operatives in those cases in which the State Government can take shares subject to conditions laid down by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies.

(*i*) Supervision and control over Agricultural Produce Markets.

Publicity.

Publicity.

(*a*) Mobile publicity vans.

(*b*) Organising district exhibitions.

(*c*) Publicity through recreational activities.

(*d*) Rural broadcasting.

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Subjects of Activities.

Community Development.

Social Education.

Community Development.

(*a*) Community Development Programme.

(*b*) Local Development Works Programme.

Social Education.

(*a*) Community recreation centres.

(*b*) Adult literacy centres.

(*c*) Sports, games, playgrounds, equipment and welfare organisations.

(*d*) Kisan melas.

(*e*) Conducting visits.

(*f*) Dissemination of information.

(*g*) Short camps.

(*h*) Women's organisation and welfare.

(*i*) Children's organisation and welfare.

(*j*) Mobile cinema vans.

(*k*) Libraries and reading-rooms.

(*l*) Fairs, shows and exhibitions.

Rural Housing.

(*a*) Rural housing.

Miscellaneous.

Miscellaneous.

(*a*) Village uplift.

(*b*) Building model villages (including grants and loans for the purposes).

(*c*) Economic welfare of villages.

(*d*) Local works or measures likely to promote health, safety, comfort or convenience of the public.

(*e*) Markets.

(*f*) Dharmashalas, rest-houses, travellers' bungalows, sarais and the like.

(*g*) Chawadis.

(*h*) Other public institutions.

(*i*) Local unemployment, other than industrial unemployment.

(*j*) Improvement and extension of village sites (including grants and loans for the purpose).

(*k*) Laying new village sites (including grants and loans for the purpose).

(*l*) Well-being of employees of Zilla Parishad.

(*m*) Provision of houses for employees of Zilla Parishad.

(*n*) Planting and preservation of trees on public grounds and gardens.

(*o*) Rewards for destruction of wild animals.

(*p*) Public receptions and ceremonies and entertainments.

(*q*) Arrangement for local pilgrimages.

(*r*) Burial and cremation grounds.

(*s*) Sammelans of panchas, sarpanchas of village panchayats and other non-officials.

(*t*) Local vagrancy relief for the poor.

(*u*) Maintenance of poor-houses.

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ZILLA PARISHAD.

Powers and Functions.

President.

The powers and functions of the non-official office-bearers of the Zilla Parishad are detailed below.

The President shall—

(*a*) convene, preside at and conduct meetings of the Zilla Parishad;

(*b*) have access to the records of the Zilla Parishad;

(*c*) discharge all duties imposed, and exercise all the powers conferred on him by or under the Act;

(*d*) watch over the financial and executive administration and submit to the Parishad all questions connected therewith which shall require its orders; and

(*e*) exercise administrative supervision and control over the Chief Executive Officer for securing implementation of resolutions or decisions of the Zilla Parishad or of the Standing Committee, or of any Subjects Committee, or of any Panchayat Samiti.

The President may in cases of emergency direct the execution or suspension or stoppage of any work or the doing of any act which requires the sanction of the Zilla Parishad or any authority thereof, and immediate execution or doing of which, in his opinion, is necessary for the service or safety of the public, and may direct that the expense of executing such work or doing such act shall be paid from the District Fund:

Provided that, he shall report forthwith the action taken under this Section, and the full reasons thereof to the Zilla Parishad, the Standing Committee and the appropriate Subjects Committee at their next meetings and the Zilla Parishad, or the Committee may amend or annul the direction made by the President.

The President of the Zilla Parishad receives an honorarium of Rs. 500 per month with rent-free residential accommodation.

Vice-President.

The Vice-President shall—

(*a*) in the absence of the President, preside at the meetings of the Zilla Parishad;

(*b*) exercise such of the powers and perform such of the duties of the President as the President from time to time may, subject to the rules made by the State Government in this behalf, delegate to him by an order in writing; and

(*c*) pending the election of a President, or during the absence of the President, exercise the powers and perform the duties of the President.

The Vice-President who is the Chairman of two Subjects Committees gets consolidated honorarium of Rs. 300 per month along with rent-free residential accommodation.

Chairman of Standing Committee or Subjects Committee.

Subject to the provisions of the Act, and the rules made thereunder by the State Government, the Chairman of the Standing Committee or a Subjects Committee shall—

(*i*) convene, preside at and conduct meetings of the Committee and

(*ii*) have access to the records of the Committee.

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Local Self-Government.

ZILLA PARISHAD.

Powers and Functions.

Chairman of Standing Committee or Subjects Committee.

The Chairman of any such Committee may, in relation to subjects allotted to the Committee,—

(i) call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any officer employed by or holding office under the Zilla Parishad or any servant thereof and

(ii) enter and inspect any immovable property occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or any work or development scheme in progress undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or under its direction:

Provided that the Chairman of the Standing Committee may, in relation to any subject allotted to any Subjects Committee, also exercise the powers under this clause.

The Chairman of the Standing Committee may grant leave of absence for any period exceeding two months, but not exceeding four months, to any officer of Class I Service (other than the Chief Executive Officer) or Class II Service holding office under the Zilla Parishad.

Save as otherwise provided by or under this Act, the powers to be exercised and the duties to be discharged by, and which subjects enumerated in the district list are to be allotted to, the Standing Committee and each of the Subjects Committees, shall be such as may be prescribed by regulations; but all subjects in relation to social welfare enumerated in the district list are allotted to the Standing Committee.

The Vice-President is the Chairman of two Subjects Committees. The Councillors have to elect from amongst elected Councillors two persons to be Chairmen of the remaining Subjects Committees. They also get an honorarium of Rs. 300 each per month along with rent-free residential accommodation.

Officials.

A Chief Executive Officer, a Deputy Chief Executive Officer, Block Development Officers and the Heads of various departments of the Zilla Parishad are the executive officers of the Zilla Parishad. They are all gazetted officers and are transferable by the State Government to other districts. The Chief Executive Officer belongs to the cadre of Indian Administrative Service and his rank is equal to that of a Collector. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer is an officer of the rank of the Deputy Collector. The Block Development Officers are Class II Officers while the heads of the departments are either Class I or Class II Officers.

Powers and duties of the Executive Officers.

Chief Executive Officer.

The Chief Executive Officer—

(i) shall lay down the duties of all the officers and servants of or holding office under the Zilla Parishad in accordance with the rules made by the State Government;

(ii) shall be entitled to call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any officer or servant of, or holding office under the Zilla Parishad;

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Powers and duties of the Executive Officers.

Chief Executive Officer.

(iii) shall supervise and control the execution of all the activities of the Zilla Parishad;

(iv) shall have papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Zilla Parishad and of its committees[1] (excluding Panchayat Samitis);

(v) shall draw and disburse money out of the District Fund;

(vi) shall exercise supervision and control over the acts of officers and servants holding office under the Zilla Parishad in matters of executive administration and those relating to accounts and records of the Zilla Parishad;

(vii) shall be entitled to attend the meetings of the Zilla Parishad or any of its committees (including any Panchayat Samiti).

(viii) Any of the powers conferred or duties or functions imposed upon or vested in the Chief Executive Officer by or under the Act, may also be exercised, performed or discharged under the control of the Chief Executive Officer and subject to such conditions and limitations, if any, as he may think fit to lay down, by any officer or servant holding office under the Zilla Parishad to whom the Chief Executive Officer generally or specially empowers by order in writing. All such orders of the Chief Executive Officer shall, however, be laid before the President, the Standing Committee and the relevant Subjects Committees for information.

(ix) He shall assess and give his opinion confidentially every year on the work of the officers of Class I service and Class II service holding office under the Zilla Parishad; forward them to such authorities as may be prescribed by the State Government and lay down the procedure for writing such reports about the work of officers and servants of Class III service and Class IV service under the Zilla Parishad.

Deputy Chief Executive Officer.

The Deputy Chief Executive Officer shall be the Secretary, *ex-officio*, of the Zilla Parishad, as well as the Standing Committee[2].

Block Development Officer.

The Block Development Officer—

(i) shall have the custody of all papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Panchayat Samitis;

(ii) shall be the Secretary, *ex-officio*, of the Panchayat Samiti;[3]

(iii) shall, subject to the general order of the Chief Executive Officer, grant leave of absence to an officer or servant of Class III service or of Class IV service of the Zilla Parishad working under the Panchayat Samiti;

(iv) shall call for any information, return, statement, account, report, or explanation from any of the officers or servants working under the Panchayat Samiti;

[1] Sections 95 to 99 of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.
[2] Sections 9 and 79 of the Act.
[3] Section 57 of the Act.

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Powers and duties of the Executive Officers.

(v) shall draw and disburse money out of the grant or rents payable to the Panchayat Samiti under sections 185 and 188;

(vi) shall, in relation to the works and development schemes to be undertaken from the block grants, exercise such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property, sale or transfer thereof, as may be specified by the State Government.

Heads of the departments.

(i) Every head of the department of the Zilla Parishad may, in respect of works and development schemes pertaining to his department, accord technical sanction thereto.

(ii) He shall assess and give his opinion confidentially every year on the work of officers of Class II service working in his department and shall forward them to the Chief Executive Officer.

(iii) The head of department, specified in this behalf, shall be the secretary, *ex-officio*, of such Subjects Committees as the Zilla Parishad may direct[1].

Administrative Organisation.

The Nagpur Zilla Parishad started functioning from May 1, 1962 with the coming into force of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961 (No. V of 1962). The Parishad consists of 63 members, 51 elected and 12 co-opted, co-opted members being two for each Committee. Nine Chairmen of the Panchayat Samitis are elected to the Zilla Parishad while four are *ex-officio* members of the Zilla Parishad by virtue of their being Chairmen of the Panchayat Samitis.

The Zilla Parishad has been divided into six Subjects Committees along with the Standing Committee. The Subjects Committees along with the department of the Zilla Parishad they control are as under:—

Subjects Committee	Department controlled
(1)	(2)
Standing Committee ..	General Administration Department
Finance Committee ..	Finance Department.
Education Committee ..	Education Department.
Co-operation Committee	Co-operation and Industries Department.
Agriculture Committee	Agriculture Department.
Works Committee ..	Works Department.
Health Committee ..	Health Department.

The Chief Executive Officer is the administrative head of the Zilla Parishad.

General Administration Department.

In what follows is given a short description of the working of the departments of the Zilla Parishad.

The General Administration department of the Zilla Parishad came into being with effect from May 1, 1962, along with six other departments of the Zilla Parishad. The General Administration department is headed by the Deputy Chief Executive Officer. He is besides the Secretary of the Standing Committee of the Zilla Parishad. Prior to May 1, 1962, the General

[1] Section 80 of the Act.

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Local Self-Government.

ZILLA PARISHAD.

Administrative Organisation.

General Administration Department

Administration department was not in existence but two branches of the Collector's office *viz.*, the development branch and the village panchayat branch were dealing with the development work. The development branch was headed by the District Project Officer in the Deputy Collector's grade and the village panchayat branch by Village Panchayat Officer who was also in the Deputy Collector's grade. The important role of the General Administration department of the Zilla Parishad is to control the whole non-gazetted establishment of the Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis, to arrange for the meetings of the Zilla Parishad and Subjects Committee, to plan for the development works to be undertaken by the Zilla Parishad and to keep administrative control on all the departments and the Panchayat Samitis. All revenue and village panchayat matters of the Zilla Parishad are dealt with by this department.

The department deals with groups of subjects of a non-technical nature and the work is controlled and supervised by the Standing Committee. The work of the department is done through its different sections such as establishment, parishad, planning and development, panchayat, revenue, miscellaneous, registry and record.

Social Welfare Department.

The Social Welfare department forms a section of the General Administration department, which is headed by the Social Welfare Officer (Class II Gazetted).

The activities carried out by the Social Welfare department in Nagpur district are classified into Backward Class Welfare and Social Welfare Programmes.

Backward Class Welfare Programmes:

Backward Class Welfare programmes aim at the amelioration of the conditions of the backward classes so that they reach the standards of other sections of the society as quickly as possible. Several schemes of educational, financial and miscellaneous nature have been sanctioned for their welfare. Under educational schemes, various concessions towards payment of scholarships, tuition fees and examination fees are granted to all categories of backward classes. The department encourages the voluntary agencies to maintain hostels for boys and girls belonging to backward classes by giving substantial grants-in-aid, the advantage of which is taken by all categories of students belonging to backward classes.

Under the housing programme, subsidy is given to the backward class families towards construction of houses.

Social Welfare:

Though the activities under Social Welfare do not come under the Zilla Parishad, still the Social Welfare Officer of the Zilla Parishad has to do the work concerning the Social Welfare activities in the district. They include—

(1) State Home for Rescued Women, (2) Certified School, (3) Remand Homes, (4) Home for Crippled Children, (5) Government Shelter Workshop for deaf, mute etc., (6) Social and

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ZILLA PARISHAD.

Administrative Organisation.

Social Welfare Department.

Physical Welfare Institutions, (7) dance, drama and music schools, (8) grants to orphanages and (9) grants to institutions for physically handicapped.

The Juvenile Guidance Centre which is functioning at Nagpur has been transferred to the Zilla Parishad on agency basis and the Social Welfare Officer has to look after this Centre though there is an Organizer for the centre.

Kalapathak.—Under the Directorate of Social Welfare of the former Government of Madhya Pradesh, the *Kalapathak* forming a cultural squad was attached to each district. The same squad consisting of seven artistes is being continued in Vidarbha region after the reorganisation of States in November, 1956. Each *Kalapathak* is equipped with musical instruments, stage equipment and green-room accessories. A *Kalapathak* is a song and drama party that instructs while it entertains. Dramatics, *bhajanas, powadas,* dialogues are some of the items of its repertoire. In short, they stage performances to bring into limelight all social handicaps and the ways to overcome them.

Under audio-visual scheme, films and documentaries are exhibited in the villages.

Finance Department.

The Finance department of the Zilla Parishad is entrusted with four-fold duties, viz., accounts, audit, custody of cash, and custody and verification of stores. It has also to act as financial advisor to the several departments of the Zilla Parishad. The Chief Accounts and Finance Officer who is the Secretary of the Finance Committee is the head of the department and is drawn from the Indian Audit and Accounts Service. There is an Accounts Officer to assist him.

Preparation of the budget is also a function of the department which is dealt with by an independent branch created for the purpose. The department co-ordinates the budgets of the several departments before they are placed for approval. The Subjects Committees scrutinise the budget proposals and make recommendations. The Chairman of the Finance Committee is *ex-officio* President of the Standing Committee for Finance and guides the deliberations of the Committee.

The Accounts and Audit branches are under the initial supervision of two experienced Head Assistants, one drawn from the Treasury and the other from the ex-Janapada Sabha.

The department has also a stores branch which is controlled by a Superintendent. This is in addition to another stores branch functioning in the Works department under the supervision of a Store-Keeper.

As mentioned earlier, Finance department is in custody of cash. Pursuant to this, funds required for the activities of the Panchayat Samitis are allotted by the department through the Central Co-operative Bank, Nagpur, which has nine branches in

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ZILLA PARISHAD.

Administrative Organisation.

Finance Department.

Works Department.

the district. The budgets of the Panchayat Samitis are included in the budget of the Zilla Parishad. Otherwise, the Panchayat Samitis work as independent units in respect of works executed in their respective jurisdictions.

During 1962-63, the income of the Nagpur Zilla Parishad was estimated at Rs. 1,58,98,367 and expenditure at Rs. 1,76,06,874.

The Works department like other departments is directly under the administrative control of the Chief Executive Officer. The Parishad Executive Engineer is the head of the department and is solely responsible for execution of works pertaining to buildings, roads and irrigation works under the Parishad. The execution of these works is vested mainly in the Deputy Engineers in charge of the Sub-Divisions under the Parishad Executive Engineer.

In Nagpur district there are 13 Panchayat Samitis and the works in these Panchayat Samitis are under the administrative control of the Block Development Officers concerned. So far as the technical matters are concerned the Block Development Officers are under the administrative control of Parishad Executive Engineer and in respect of all other matters they are directly responsible to the Chief Executive Officer, Zilla Parishad, Nagpur.

The Works Department has undertaken many constructional activities in the district. The construction of Jalalkheda-Karanja road with a length of 9 miles and three furlongs has been completed along with the improvements to Nagpur-Katol Road. Only minor works remain to be done in case of Gondkhairi-Chungri road and Amdi-Naikund-Parseoni roads. The works that are partially completed include Hingna-Hingani road, Girad-Umrer road, Panchgaon-Kuhi road, Hingna-Kanholi road, Narkhed-Sawargaon road, Umrer-Bori road, Godhani-Zilpa road, Sawargaon-Pimpla road, Kalmeshwar-Dhapewada road, Mohpa-Dhapewada road and Kudegaon-Khapa road.

Agriculture Department.

The Agriculture department is in the charge of the Parishad Agricultural Officer who is directly responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. He is assisted by one Assistant District Agricultural Officer and two Agricultural Officers and members of the subordinate service.

The District Agricultural Officer has been specially assigned the work relating to animal husbandry. He is the head of the animal husbandry section of the department. In this work he is assisted by the Animal Husbandry Officer of the Zilla Parishad who is in actual charge of the section.

The Agricultural Officers have to undertake *kharif* and *rabi* campaigns, paddy pilot scheme and have to look after the work of their subordinate staff. The District Agricultural Officer is responsible for the development of agricultural activities with a view to increasing agricultural production in the district.

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ZILLA PARISHAD.

Administrative Organisation.

Agriculture Department.

The Animal Husbandry department at the district level was headed by the District Animal Husbandry Officer and many of the powers of the Regional Deputy Director, Animal Husbandry, had been delegated to him. With the formation of the Zilla Parishad, the Animal Husbandry department is merged with the Agriculture department and it now forms a section of Agriculture department. The Animal Husbandry Officer is responsible for the technical guidance pertaining to all animal husbandry matters and as a head of the Section he is directly responsible to the Chief Executive Officer, Zilla Parishad, Nagpur.

Education Department.

Before the inception of the Zilla Parishad, education was under the jurisdiction of the State Government and the Director of Education was the head of the department at the State level.

Central Government schemes and the State Government policies regarding education were executed at the district level by the Government Inspectorate in the district. The District Inspectorate consisted of one Educational Inspector, one Deputy Educational Inspector and 34 Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors. All educational institutions in the district were under the control of the Educational Inspector. To facilitate the administration of primary education, District School Boards were entrusted with the work of primary education. Secondary schools, primary training colleges and other technical and professional institutions were directly under the control of the Educational Inspector. The Inspector and his deputies visited and inspected these institutions and recommended grants-in-aid. Besides this, the responsibility of the control of the primary education also partly vested with the Educational Inspector, as he was empowered to have general supervision over the administration of the schools.

The District School Board which is now a defunct body was composed of a Chairman, a Vice-chairman, and 14 other elected and nominated members. The Administrative Officer, who worked as the *ex-officio* Secretary of the body, was the representative of the State Government to guide the Board on Government policies in respect of educational matters. He executed the programmes chalked out by the Board for Primary Education in consultation with the Staff Selection Committee, a statutory body under the Primary Education Act, 1947. Teachers were interviewed, selected and appointed by him in accordance with the rules prescribed by the State Government.

The academic side of primary schools was supervised and controlled by the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors working under the control of the Educational Inspector who visited and inspected the primary schools. They recommended cases for opening of primary schools, grants to primary schools, etc., through the Deputy Educational Inspector who was their immediate superior.

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Administrative Organisation.

Education Department.

This was in brief the picture of the administrative set-up with the powers and duties of the functionaries of the Education department prior to the advent of the Zilla Parishad.

The Parishad Educational Officer is the head of the Education department in the district. He has to work under the direct control of the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. He is assisted by two Deputy Educational Officers along with 22 Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors.

In 1962 there were 5 Senior Basic schools, 7 non-Government primary schools both for boys and girls and 781 other primary schools. In addition, there were 75 non-Government and 2 Government middle schools. Thirteen primary schools were given permission to extend the classes up to middle school.

Public Health Department.

Under the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, all responsibilities regarding public health and medical aid in rural areas have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. As such the Public Health Staff and Medical Staff (except that of the Civil hospital and Cottage hospitals) formerly working under Public Health department, Medical department and ex-Janapada Sabha have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad, Nagpur, from May 1, 1962.

The health matters in the district are under dual control. The primary health centres, maternity and child health centres along with other institutions in the district health organisation are looked after entirely by the Zilla Parishad while the leprosy survey, education and treatment units and family planning centres are looked after by the Zilla Parishad on agency basis. The department in the State sector controls the following institutions in the district:—

1. Medical College, Nagpur.
2. Government Civil Hospitals.
3. Ayurvedic College, Nagpur.
4. Mental Hospital, Nagpur.
5. T.B. Control and Training Institute, Nagpur.
6. Malaria Eradication Unit, Nagpur.
7. Filaria Control Unit, Nagpur.
8. Public Health Institute, Nagpur.
9. Health Education Bureau, Nagpur.
10. B.C.G. Unit, Nagpur.
11. Leprosy Subsidiary Centre, Umrer.
12. Family Planning Centre attached to Government Institution.
13. Regional Family Planning Training Centre.
14. Health School, Nagpur.
15. Health Unit, Saoner.

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ZILLA PARISHAD. Administrative Organisation.

Public Health Department.

The municipal allopathic dispensaries run by the different municipal committees are also controlled in the State sector by the Civil Surgeon, Nagpur.

The health department of the Zilla Parishad is looked after by the Public Health Officer of the Zilla Parishad as the head of the department. All the staff pertaining to the schemes controlled by the Zilla Parishad works under him. The services of all Assistant Medical Officers have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. The Public Health Officer works as the Secretary to the Health Committee.

The Zilla Parishad has under its control 12 allopathic dispensaries which were formerly under the different Janapad Sabhas. The ayurvedic dispensaries and the vaccination establishment which were controlled by the Janapad Sabhas have also been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. Six family planning centres in rural areas and organisation of vasectomy camps, orientation camps are some of the duties of the Zilla Parishad. Four leprosy survey, education and treatment centres in rural areas are managed by the Zilla Parishad while the leprosy sub-centre at Umrer and a temporary hospital ward at Mayo Hospital are in the State sector.

The national smallpox eradication scheme is also transferred to the Zilla Parishad. The implementation of the State scheme with central assistance has been given to the Zilla Parishad. The necessary equipment has also been provided to the Zilla Parishad.

The Director of Public Health, Maharashtra State, exercises technical control over all the health activities of the Nagpur Zilla Parishad through the Deputy Director of Public Health Services, Nagpur.

Industries and Co-operation Department.

The revised set-up of the Co-operative department of the State Government came into existence from March 1, 1961 according to which the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, was made the District head and under him three Assistant Registrars were placed with territorial jurisdictions. The co-operative department was executing two types of functions, *viz.*, (1) regulatory and (2) promotional and extension activities. According to the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961 the Zilla Parishad has been entrusted with the promotional and extension activities with certain reservations for municipal areas. The regulatory functions have, however, been retained with the department in the State sector.

The department is headed by the Officer who is designated as Co-operation and Industries Officer. He is assisted by a Co-operative Officer and one Assistant Co-operative Officer along with two Extension Officers, one for co-operation and one for industries, attached to each Panchayat Samiti.

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ZILLA PARISHAD. Administrative Organisation.

The statutory powers under the Co-operative Societies Act, 1960 regarding registration of Co-operative Societies and amendment of bye-laws and hearing appeals for non-admission of membership by co-operative societies are delegated to this officer under the Zilla Parishad.

Panchayat Samitis.

Under Section 57 of the Act, a Panchayat Samiti has been provided for every Block. Every Panchayat Samiti will consist of the following members:—

(*a*) All councillors who are elected on the Zilla Parishad from the electoral divisions in the block.

(*b*) The co-opted councillor of the Zilla Parishad residing in the block.

(*c*) The Chairmen of such co-operative societies conducting the business of purchase and sale of agricultural products in the block as nominated by Government (to be associate members).

(*d*) The Chairman of a co-operative society conducting business relating to agriculture (not being a society falling under 'c' above) in the Block, co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti (to be an associate member).

(*e*) In case of non-availability of a woman member or a member belonging to the scheduled castes or the scheduled tribes, one member who is a regular resident in the Block, to be co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti.

(*f*) Sarpanchas elected by members of the village panchayats.

Chairman.

The term of office of the Chairmen and members of the Panchayat Samitis is co-terminous[1].

The Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 300 per month with the facilities of free residential accommodation[2]. The Deputy Chairman of Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 150 per month[2].

Powers and functions of Chairman:

Subject to the provisions of the Act and the rules or regulations made thereunder,—

(1) the Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti shall—

(*a*) convene, preside at and conduct meetings of the Panchayat Samiti;

(*b*) have access to the records of the Panchayat Samiti;

(*c*) exercise supervision and control over the acts of officers and servants of or under the Zilla Parishad and working in the Block in matters of execution or administration and the accounts and records of the Panchayat Samiti;

(*d*) in relation to works and development schemes to be undertaken from block grants, exercise such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property or sale or transfer thereof as may be specified by the State Government.

[1] Section 59 of the Zilla Parishad Act.

[2] Vide Section 69 of the Act.

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Local Self-Government.

ZILLA PARISHAD.

Panchayat Samitis.

Chairman.

(2) The Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti may—

(*a*) call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any officer or servant working under the Panchayat Samiti;

(*b*) enter on and inspect any immovable property in the Block occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution in the Block under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad, or the Panchayat Samiti or any work or development scheme in progress in the Block undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or under its direction.

Powers and Functions of Deputy Chairman:

Deputy Chairman.

(1) The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti shall—

(*a*) in the absence of the Chairman, preside at the meeting of the Panchayat Samiti;

(*b*) exercise such of the powers and perform such of the duties of the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti as the Chairman from time to time may, subject to the rules made by the State Government in that behalf, delegate to him by an order in writing; and

(*c*) pending the election of the Chairman or during the absence of the Chairman exercise the powers and perform the duties of the Chairman.

(2) The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti may enter on and inspect any immovable property in the Block occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution in the Block under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or any work or development scheme in progress in the Block undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or under its direction and shall send a report of such inspection to the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti.

In Nagpur district the Panchayat Samitis have been formed at Narkhed, Kalmeshwar, Mouda, Kuhi, Nagpur, Katol, Bhiwapur, Saoner, Ramtek, Kamptee, Hingana and Umred.

VILLAGE PANCHAYAT.

The last but not the least important ring in the chain of Government is provided for by the panchayats which form the base of Government.

Historical Background.

During the early times every village was a self-sufficient unit and was administered by grampanchayats. During the British regime, the grampanchayats lost their importance due to centralization of power. In the beginning of 19th century growing need was felt for at least granting restricted local government so as to keep away the popular discontent. Accordingly an Act was passed in 1915, which was implemented in 1920 by the establishment of a few village panchayats in the district. The supervision was entrusted to the District Council, then in existence.

Village Panchayats Act of 1946.

The Village Panchayats Act of 1946, brought in force from 1946, envisaged the establishment of village panchayats for villages the population of which was above 1,000, above 500 and below 500 in three stages. Within one year, the phased programme was completed except for a few villages in the last stage.

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VILLAGE PANCHAYAT.

Village Panchayats Act of 1946.

According to the Act of 1946 the panchayats with membership between 5 and 15 were established on the basis of male adult franchise. They were to elect a *Sarpanch* and an *up-sarpanch* from amongst themselves. The revenue *Patil* of the village was an *ex-officio* member of the panchayat.

The Act divided the duties of the village panchayats into obligatory and optional. The obligatory duties of the village panchayats included sanitary and health measures, construction and repairs of roads, maintenance of birth and death registers, providing water-supply, and to undertake such other works meant for public convenience while the optional duties involved construction and maintenance of *dharmashalas*, development of agriculture, co-operation, veterinary services, etc. The *gram-panchayats* were to undertake the optional functions provided their funds permitted.

The incomes of the village panchayats were derived from various sources such as cesses, house-tax, sanitary-tax, and other taxes as also grants from Janapad Sabhas and the Government.

Judicial functions were also performed by a few *gram-panchayats*. They were authorised to impose fine up to Rs. 20 and conduct civil suits of the value of not more than Rs. 100. The appeals against the decisions were heard by the District and Sessions Judge. The *panchayats* were authorised to appoint the Secretaries and other necessary staff.

Village Panchayats Act of 1958.

After the reorganisation of States, the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958, was made applicable to the district.

According to the Act of 1958 which came into force in the district from June 1, 1959, women got representation over the panchayats; the membership of revenue *Patils* who were *ex-officio* members of the panchayats was abrogated. The division of the duties of village panchayats as obligatory and optional was annulled and the panchavats were made responsible for the all-round development of villages. The Act has given wide powers to village panchayats.

The special features of the new Act are:—

(*a*) reservation of two seats for women in every village panchayat,

(*b*) constitution of *Gram Sabhas* of all adult residents of the village,

(*c*) establishment of District Village Panchayat Mandal for every district (now defunct since the formation of the Zilla Parishad),

(*d*) the secretary of a Village Panchayat to be a Government servant and to be paid by Government.

(*e*) the training of a Village Panchayat Secretary to be undertaken at its own cost,

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VILLAGE PANCHAYAT.

Village Panchayats Act of 1958.

(*f*) entrusting the work of collection of land revenue and maintenance of land records to village panchayats,

(*g*) payments to village panchayats of grants-in-aid of not less than 25 per cent of the land revenue collected in villages, and

(*h*) constitution of group nyaya panchayats for five or more villages with fairly wide judicial powers, both Civil and Criminal.

A District Village Panchayat Officer has been appointed to control the administration of Village Panchayats in Nagpur district. He assisted the Collector in his functions and duties in respect of administration of Village Panchayats with the aid of District Auditor, five Sub-Auditors and other necessary staff. Besides, two Social Welfare Inspectors have been allotted to the district as supervisory staff.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad the District Panchayat Mandal has been abolished and the Village Panchayat Officer now works with the Zilla Parishad. The control of the Village Panchayats now vests in the Zilla Parishad through Panchayat Samitis.

The coverage programme under Village Panchayats as envisaged under the Second Five-Year Plan is now complete in the district. There are 651 Village Panchayats covering 1,874 villages. The entire rural area of the district is now covered by Village Panchayats.

At the Village Assistants Training Centre, Kamptee, so far over 105 Village Assistants (Village Panchayat Secretaries) have been trained. An additional refreshers' course for one month was also held for the Village Assistants and the Patwaris who had undergone training as Village Assistants. The Village Assistant and the Sarpanch work in perfect co-operation and complement each other in the performance of their numerous functions.

Village Panchayats in the district get land revenue grants at a uniform rate of twenty-five per cent of the Land Revenue collected during the preceding year. The total amount disbursed on account of Land Revenue Grants in 1960-61 worked out to Rs. 1,62,407.38.

Village Panchayats have recently gained importance not only as administrative units but also as basic institutions for rural planning and all-round development of rural areas. Village Panchayats have been made the sole non-official agency for executing development works in the Community Development Blocks with the democratic decentralization envisaged by the establishment of the Zilla Parishad and the Panchayat Samitis.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

The Maharashtra State has an independent Town Planning and Valuation department under the administrative control of the Urban Development and Public Health Department. The department principally deals with two important subjects, *viz.*, 'Town Planning' and 'Valuation of Real Property'.

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TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

Duties and Functions.

Town Planning.

2. The Duties and Functions of the department are as under—

(1) To educate the municipalities regarding the advantages of town planning and preparation of development plans and town planning schemes under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954.

(2) To advise the municipalities in the selection of suitable areas for preparation of town planning schemes.

(3) To give the required assistance to the municipalities in the preparation of development plans and town planning schemes in the shape of advice as well as loan of services of technical assistants for the preparation of development plans, draft town planning schemes, etc.

(4) To perform the duties of the Town Planning Officers when so appointed by Government to scrutinise building permission cases, to tender advice to the Board of Appeal and to draw up the final schemes.

(5) To issue Certificates of Tenure and Title to the owners of land included in the town planning schemes.

(6) To advise Government on all matters regarding town and country planning including legislation.

(7) To advise and prepare town development, improvement, extension and slum clearance in schemes under the Municipal Act.

(8) To prepare development schemes or layouts of land:—

(i) belonging to Government, and

(ii) belonging to Co-operative Housing Societies and private bodies with the sanction of Government.

(9) To advise officers concerned in respect of village planning and preparation of layouts for model villages, etc.

(10) To advise Government on housing, slum clearance, regional planning and prevention of ribbon development including legislation.

(11) To prepare type designs for the housing of the middle and poorer classes including Harijans.

(12) To scrutinise miscellaneous building permission cases and layouts received from the Collectors and to recommend suitable building regulations for adoption in the areas concerned.

Valuation.

The Consulting Surveyor to Government is the chief expert adviser of Government on the subject and his duties include—

(1) valuation of agricultural and non-agricultural lands and properties in towns and villages belonging to Government and intended for the purpose of sale or lease;

(2) valuation of Government properties for purposes of rating under the Municipal Act;

(3) valuation for miscellaneous purposes such as Cantonment leases, probate on stamp duty, etc.;

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Duties and Functions.

Valuation.

(4) valuation for purposes of fixing standard rates of non-agricultural assessment and prescribing zones of values in all villages and rising localities in the vicinity of important and growing towns;

(5) valuation for the purposes of fixing standard table of ground rents and land values in respect of lands in cantonments;

(6) scrutiny of awards of compensation (if and when received from Government);

(7) supplying trained technical Assistants to act as Special Land Acquisition Officers in towns where the Land Acquisition work is of a very important and responsible nature;

(8) giving expert evidence when called upon to do so in the District Courts and the High Court when appeals are lodged against awards of compensation under the Land Acquisition Act; and

(9) undertaking valuation work on behalf of Railways and other departments of Central Government and private bodies with the sanction of Government on payment of fees, etc.

Miscellaneous.

(1) To advise the various heads of departments of Government in the selection of sites for public purpose.

(2) To see that all town planning schemes or layout schemes sanctioned by Government are properly executed within a reasonable period or periods stipulated in the schemes.

(3) To advise Government as regards interpretation, amendment or addition to the Bombay Town Planning Act or Rules thereunder.

Organisation.

The department was started in 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government as its head who later on was assisted by one Assistant Consulting Surveyor, one Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor and two Senior Assistants with the requisite staff. As the activities of the department increased, these Assistants had to be posted at prominent places in the State to meet the prime requisites of town and city planning. There has been a considerable increase in the activities of the department in recent years with the consequential increase in the number of branch offices in the State. The head office of this department is at Poona and the other branch offices are at Bombay, Kolhapur, Nagpur, Amravati, Aurangabad, Kalyan and Sholapur. Some of the officers have been appointed to function as the Land Acquisition Officers and there are thus two full-time Special Land Acquisition Officers at Poona and one full-time Land Acquisition Officer at Bombay in addition to two part-time Land Acquisition Officers at Bombay and Poona.

The statutory powers regarding planning were embodied under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915 which was in force so far in the State. This Act has been replaced by the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. The new Act generally incorporates the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915 and in addition makes it obligatory on every Local Authority (barring village

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Organisation.

panchayats) to prepare a development plan for the entire area within its jurisdiction. The development plan aims at the improvement of existing congested *gaothan* portion of the town and contains proposals in respect of the outlying open areas so as to guide their development on planned basis. The proposals of the development plan can be implemented by the preparation of statutory Town-Planning Schemes. In preparing Town Planning Schemes, the planner can ignore to a great extent the existing plot boundaries. In designing this layout the existing holdings can be reconstituted and made subservient to the plan, and building plots of good shape and frontage can be allotted to owners of lands ill-shaped for building purposes and without access. The cost of a scheme can be recovered from the owners benefited to the extent of 50 per cent of the increase in the value of the land estimated to accrue by the carrying out of the works contemplated in the scheme. When a draft Town Planning Scheme prepared by a Local Authority in consultation with the owners is sanctioned, a Town Planning Officer is appointed. His duties are to hear each owner individually, consider his objections or proposals and make suitable adjustments or amendments in the draft Scheme proposals, if found necessary.

Most of the Local Authorities have no technical staff of their own to prepare the development plans and it has been decided that this department should prepare the development plans on behalf of Local Authorities under the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. Accordingly, a scheme for the preparation of Development Plan has been introduced in the Second Five-Year Plan.

In the erstwhile Madhya Pradesh region, the Town Planning department was established in 1947 under a State Town Planning Expert with head office at Nagpur. The department functioned under the administrative control of the Local Self-Government Department of the Madhya Pradesh State. The Central Provinces and Berar Town Planning Act was enacted in 1948 and the Central Provinces and Berar Regulation of Uses of Land Act was also enacted in the same year to provide for the making and execution of Town Planning Schemes and to regulate the development of areas with the object of securing proper sanitary conditions, amenities and convenience to persons living in such areas and in neighbouring areas.

Consequent upon the reorganisation of States that took place on November 1, 1956, a new branch office of this department came into existence at Nagpur for the four districts of Nagpur, Chanda, Wardha and Bhandara. The Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government is the head of the above branch office. The making and execution of town planning schemes and the development of the areas is still being regulated under the above two Acts, which are at present in force there. It is proposed to extend the application of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954 to the above region replacing the Central Provinces and Berar Town Planning Act, 1948.

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TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

Organisation.

The Nagpur Municipal Committee was established in 1864. The Civil Station Sub-Committee was established in 1884.

The Municipal Corporation of Nagpur was constituted with the amalgamation of these two. In 1928, the Municipal Committee passed a resolution for creating an "Improvement Trust" for Nagpur which was established in 1937 under the Nagpur Improvement Trust Act, 1936. This Trust is still working and has collateral jurisdiction over the areas within the limits of the town wherever schemes are prepared by the Trust and approved by the Government. Certain schemes of the Corporation such as underground drainage scheme, schemes for improvement of road junctions are executed by the Trust on behalf of the Corporation. The development of lands within scheme areas is being carried out by the Trust. The work of the Nagpur Improvement Trust concerning the proposals of Trust lands and fixation of rates of premia for such purposes, zoning and layout regulations is required to be scrutinised by this department on behalf of Government.

Master Plans for the towns of Kamptee and Kalmeshwar from the district have been prepared by this department. A town planning scheme for an area admeasuring about 66.773 hectares (165 acres) at Katol is under preparation in the Nagpur branch office on behalf of the Katol Municipal Committee. A number of layouts, *viz.*, of villages under the village housing project scheme, for Industrial Estate at Nagpur, for rehabilitation of displaced persons, for Harijan Housing and layouts of Nazul lands have been prepared so far.

CHAPTER 15—EDUCATION AND CULTURE

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.

No DEFINITE INFORMATION IS AVAILABLE ABOUT THE CENTRES OF learning during the ancient times. However, from the old relics, it is to be presumed that *Yajnyas* were performed during the mediaeval times at Nandiwardhan, a capital of the Vakatakas and a place of learning, situated in the vicinity of Ramtek, 48.28 km. (30 miles) from Nagpur. A *Vedshala*, which is still in existence, was established at Nagpur on December 9, 1879, during the reign of the Bhosles. In this institution *Vedanta*, grammar, *Brahmakarma, Ayurved, Nyaya* and astronomy were taught by learned pundits.

With the establishment of the British rule in India need for western education was increasingly felt in the country and the lead in this behalf in the district was taken by the Church of Scotland. The St. Ursula Primary School financed by the Church of Scotland, was started in Nagpur by Mrs. Cooper in 1858. It was followed soon by another school started by Rev. Hislop. But the orthodox Hindus, though inclined towards western education, did not send their wards to these schools. Subsequently, with the lead of some influential persons in the city who took up the laudable cause of imparting western education to Hindus started English classes in 1869 in a vernacular primary school situated in the house of Shri Munshi Jamaluddin which was conducted by a few private persons. This new school was named as "The grant-in-aid Anglo-Vernacular School" and had 127 students on roll. The school developed slowly into a high school renamed as the New City High School. To-day it is known as D. D. Nagar Vidyalaya and is one of the biggest schools in Nagpur district.

LITERACY AND GROWTH OF LITERACY.

The following table shows an increase in the number of literates per thousand in the 1911, 1921 and 1931 Censuses.

Number of literates per 1,000 in Nagpur district.

Year		Total	Men	Women
1911	...	54	98	8
1921	...	82	141	20
1931	...	110	183	33

During 1911 and 1931 there was a rise of 103.70 per cent in the total number of literates per thousand. During the same period the number of literate men rose by 86.73 per cent while that of women showed an increase of 312.50 per cent. According to the

LITERACY AND GROWTH OF LITERACY.

1951 Census the number of literates stood at 2,96,453 including 2,18,241 men and 78,212 women. The following table shows the classification of literates in different categories as per 1961 census :

NAGPUR : URBAN

	Total	Men	Women
(1) Literate (without educational level) ..	1,29,934	78,401	51,533
Educational Levels			
(2) Primary or Junior Basic	1,90,815	1,29,970	60,845
(3) Matriculation or Higher Secondary ..	44,437	34,345	10,092
(4) Technical diploma not equal to degree	731	718	13
(5) Non-technical diploma not equal to degree.	1,650	881	769
(6) University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree.	8,240	6,781	1,459
(7) Technical degree or diploma equal to degree or Post-graduate degree—			
(a) Engineering	336	336	..
(b) Medicine	649	538	111
(c) Agriculture	221	221	..
(d) Veterinary and Dairying	41	41	..
(e) Technology	79	79	..
(f) Teaching	720	442	278
(g) Others	2,201	2,005	196

NAGPUR : RURAL

(1) Literate (without educationl level) ..	87,136	67,812	19,324
(2) Primary or Junior Basic	61,922	51,836	10,086
(3) Matriculation and above	2,631	2,437	194

GENERAL EDUCATION.

The primary and secondary education in the district is under dual control of the Education Department of the Zilla Parishad and the Education Department of the Government at the State level. At the head of the educational set-up of the district is the Parishad Education Officer of the Maharashtra Education Service deputed to the Zilla Parishad. He is assisted in his work by two Deputy Education Officers, one dealing with primary education and the other assisting the Education Officer in the inspection of secondary schools.

As the district head for education the Parishad Education Officer has powers to supervise, control and guide the work of his subordinates. He has also the powers to inspect and release grants to primary and secondary schools in the district. In case of schools run by the local bodies the grants are released by the Deputy Director of Education, Nagpur. He has also the power of granting recognition to primary, middle and secondary schools. The work of the inspection of primary schools is done by Assistant Deputy Education Officers.

At the State level, the Deputy Director of Education temporarily looks after conducting, guiding and supervising the library service started by the Government of India and the pilot scheme of intensive library service. He is also empowered to give recognition to village libraries and public libraries in the district, and sanction grants to them every year. He is assisted in his work by the District Librarian. The Deputy Director of Education is the

appointing authority of the District Librarian. The appointment of the Assistant Curator of the Government Central Library having jurisdiction over all the districts of the Vidarbha region is made by the Director of Education.

All girls' schools, whether primary or secondary, come within the purview of the Zilla Parishad. Visits and inspection of the primary schools is done by the Assistant Deputy Education Officers of the Zilla Parishad while the secondary schools are inspected by the Inspectress of Schools. The reports of inspection in both the cases is forwarded to the Education Department in the State sector.

The municipalities have been given certain powers under the local self-government enactments of the former Central Provinces and Madhya Pradesh. Accordingly, recognition of schools in the municipal areas and allotment of grants from the State revenue are the duties of the municipality.

In 1959-60, there were 982 primary schools, including 129 exclusively for girls. During the same period there were 63,207 boys and 45,675 girls in lower primary grade and 15,269 boys and 4,297 girls in the upper primary stage. The percentage of school-going children to the population was 10.4. This percentage is on an increase since primary education has been made compulsory in the district.

During the same period these schools employed 7,293 teachers of whom 5,112 were men and 2,181 women. Of male teachers 2,127 were trained while the trained female teachers numbered 1,012.

There were 14 training institutions including four for women. Of these only one institution for men was a Government institution. These institutions imparted training to 1,373 teachers during the same year. The progressive conversion of ordinary primary schools into basic schools has been an accepted policy of Government. This is how the quality of primary education can be improved. But basic education involves teaching of subjects like crafts, agriculture, spinning and weaving, wood-work and kitchen gardening. For this teachers with specialised training are required. The Government, therefore, revised the training courses, expanded training facilities and to encourage private effort to come into the field of primary teachers' training, liberalised its grants-in-aid. There was only one practising school for boys attached to the Government Basic Training College at Kamptee.

The University Training College, Nagpur, was opened on 2nd July, 1945, to meet the growing demands of the increasing number of untrained graduates imparting instructions in the Secondary Schools in Vidarbha Region. The College conducts B.Ed. and M.Ed. (both regular and summer) courses for the students. During 1963-64 the total income of the college was Rs. 46,173.64 while its expenditure amounted to Rs. 1,72,743. The college is managed and maintained by the Nagpur University. There is an Extension Services Department which is permanently attached to

this college. It gives publicity about the latest trends, teaching methods and developments in various fields and topics in regard to secondary education by conducting refresher courses, seminars, group discussions, giving film shows and extending the running library services throughout the Vidarbha Region.

The average cost of educating a pupil was Rs. 59.92 per annum of which Government share was Rs. 21.14. During the same period the number of primary schools under the municipalities stood at 220 and of private schools at 83. These schools had a strength of 1,28,448.

In 1959-60, out of 319 buildings in which primary schools were housed 244 were owned by local bodies, 67 by private institutions and eight by the Government.

Of these primary schools only one is a senior basic school and 28 have been turned into junior basic schools.

The middle schools are also inspected by the Deputy Education Officer of the Zilla Parishad. In 1959-60 there were 135 secondary schools where 55,029 pupils were being educated.

Physical education is controlled by the department at the State level. Under the National Discipline Scheme the instructors are provided in some high schools.

Boy scouts, girl guides and Junior National Cadet Corps are also encouraged in the district. In 1959-60 there were 30 troops for boys and 13 for girls in which 1,200 boy scouts and 520 girl guides participated. There were 29 divisions of Junior National Cadet Corps.

At Kamptee there is a National Cadet Corps Training Centre, where teachers from various colleges are trained into Commissioned Officers of NCC.

There is also an Army Postal Service Centre at Kamptee which is responsible for imparting basic military and postal training to recruits of the Army Postal Service.

Most of the well established schools in the district have radio sets. Some own 16 mm. projectors.

SOCIAL EDUCATION.

During 1959-60, 99 social education classes, 77 for men and 22 for women, were conducted in the district. The total enrolment of these classes was 2,109 comprising 1,482 men and 627 women. During the same period Rs. 9,845 were spent on account of social education.

Nagpur University.

To cater to the needs of higher education an attempt was made to establish a University at Nagpur as early as 1914 when a Committee was constituted to consider the question of an independent university. The committee recommended the establishment of such a university but the proposal was shelved due to the emergency arising on account of the First World War. Later, the University was established at Nagpur on August 4, 1923. The jurisdiction of Nagpur University which then extended over Central Provinces and Berar was curtailed to the eight districts of Vidarbha after the formation of the University at Sagar.

The technical and industrial training in the district is under the control of the Deputy Director of Technical Education, Nagpur, who is responsible to the Director of Technical Education, Maharashtra State, Poona. All the schemes under certificate level are controlled by the Deputy Director of Technical Education, Nagpur. The Regional College of Engineering and Polytechnic for diploma courses at Nagpur is under the direct control of the Director of Technical Education, Maharashtra State, Bombay.

In the secondary stage technical education is imparted under the diversified course in the Patwardhan Higher Secondary School. The Industrial Training Institute conducts courses under craftsman training for draftsmen: civil and mechanical, electricians motor mechanics, machinists, pattern makers, fitters, sheet metal workers, surveyors, turners, welders and moulders. The Government Industrial Training Institute, Sitabuldi, imparts training in pattern making, moulding and blacksmithy.

In the Work and Orientation Centre (Vocational High School) training in electrical work, moulding and welding and carpentry is given. The Government Vocational High School, formerly known as Handicraft School, imparts training in carpentry, metal work, electrical work, tailoring and leather work. Hostel facilities for students are also provided. Government leather training school imparts training in leather work.

In addition to the above technical institutions, there are some institutions which are aided by Government.

Anath Vidyarthi Griha, an occupational institute, imparts training for wiremen apprentice, tailoring and cutting.

Nagpur Shikshan Mandal's Radio Institute gives training in radio servicing. Sarvodaya Kala Vidyalaya gives training in tailoring and cutting.

Besides there are unaided institutions conducting technical education classes in the district.

Jumle tailoring and cutting college and Shivan Kala Vidyalaya impart training in tailoring and cutting. Training in tailoring and cutting is also imparted by institutions such as Ladies Art Academy and Sangam Kala Mandir. The latter has ten branches where embroidery work is also taught.

A law college has been established at Nagpur by the Nagpur University.

In 1906, the College of Agriculture was started in Nagpur with a view to giving impetus to scientific agriculture and agricultural research. The College now provides a full-fledged four-year degree course. Provision is also made for the post-graduate research degrees in the Faculty of Agriculture. A spacious hostel accommodating 170 students is attached to it.

The Robertson Medical School was started in 1915. The minimum qualifications for admission to the medical school was matriculation and the course was of five years' duration. In 1914, a vaccine institute was established which conducted one-year course for vaccinators, which was followed by various courses conducted by the Medical Department of the State. The Health School, Nagpur, gives two and a half years' training to matriculate ladies in the course for health visitors. Trained midwives are also allowed to join the institute.

Sanitary Inspectors' course of nine months' duration for matriculates is also conducted. The Public Health Institute was established in 1959. It conducts post-graduate courses for M.B.B.S. students and diploma course in Public Health. General nursing and midwifery course for matriculate ladies of three and a half years' duration is conducted at the Mayo Hospital and at the Medical College Hospital, Nagpur. Nursing and midwifery course for females is also conducted at the Daga Memorial Hospital. The duration of the course is two years. In addition to these nursing and midwifery classes one such class is attached to Mure Memorial Hospital and one to Maternity Home and Matru Sewa Sangh, Nagpur. Health visitors' class for matriculates with a duration of one year is conducted at the T. B. Centre, Nagpur. Matru Sewa Sangh conducts a family planning training centre. Matriculate widows or married ladies between the ages of 24 and 40 are admitted to the course. The period of training is for one year. A veterinary college has also been started at Nagpur in 1958. It provides a four-year degree course leading to the B.Sc. (Vet.) of Nagpur University.

The present engineering college was originally a school established by the former Government of Madhya Pradesh giving training in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering diploma courses of four years' duration. The college conducted a training class in oil engines. The Government polytechnic which has a hostel attached to it imparts training for diploma and degree courses in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering and art and architecture. There is also a workshop run by Roman Catholics which gives training in turning, fitting, carpentry and smithy.

Technical.

The Nagpur University opened a technological institute with the help of a donation received from late R. B. D. Laxminarayan, a reputed mine owner from the district. The institution is named after him. It provides facilities for research in technical subjects.

Fine Arts.

Till 1931, there were no regular classes for courses in fine arts in the district. The professional artists learnt these arts from their forefathers and earned their livelihood. The Nagpur School of Arts which was started in 1931 gives training in drawing, painting and commercial art. Special painting hobby classes for adults and art classes for children are also conducted by the institution. Students are trained for various examinations conducted by Bombay School of Arts. In addition, a drawing teachers' diploma course of one-year duration is also started for matriculate drawing teachers, having intermediate-grade drawing certificates.

Music.

During the regime of Bhosles there were professional *darbari* musicians. These musicians used to train their disciples in the art of music. Music classes were started as early as 1912. All these institutions prepared students for music examinations conducted by the Gandharva Mahavidyalaya, Bombay, or the Bhatkhande University of Lucknow. The courses were from *Sangit Visharad* to *Sangit Pravin*.

There are 26 institutions imparting training in music in the district.

Dancing.

Dancing was not recognised as an art to be taught to young children of respectable families. Naturally efforts to start such schools for teaching the art were hardly made. In 1936 a school was started on experimental basis (Verna Pani Dancing School) and large number of girls and boys willing to learn the art joined the institution. This was followed by the establishment of the Bharatiya Kala Nikunja and similar other institutions. These institutions prepare the students for the examinations conducted by the Gandharva Mahavidalaya, Bombay.

ORIENTAL EDUCATION.

In 1879 an institution named as Bhosle Ved Shala was established. The learned pundits used to conduct classes for teaching *Vedanta*, grammar, *Brahmakarma*, medicine, *Nyaya*, and astrology. The institution is still in existence.

Brahmakarma Vardhini Mahavidyalaya and Brahmakarma Vardhini Pathshala are two other institutions teaching different courses in oriental languages.

All these institutions prepare the students for higher examinations in Sanskrit, *viz.*, *Pradnya*, *Visharad*, *Shastri* and *Tirtha*.

EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED.

The Bhosle Dumb and Deaf School was established in 1915 under royal patronage. Subsequently, hostel facilities were also made available to the students. In 1928 under the auspices of the Central Provinces and Berar Blind Relief Association, a Residential Blind Boys Institution was formed. The aim of the institution was to make the blind boys economically independent. Subjects like music and handicrafts were taught. Academic subjects were also taught using Braille's system. The Dumb, Deaf and Blind Industrial Institute was started in 1945 where training in various crafts is given. The Bharat Muk Vidyalaya was established in 1958 with the same objective.

During 1960 the Maharashtra Government opened a residential school for the crippled children. In this institution the students are given both education and treatment free of cost. Free residential facilities are made available to 20 students at a time.

In addition to this, the Matru Sewa Sangh has started a school 'Nandanwan' for those who are physically handicapped and mentally retarded. At present there are 20 boys and 5 adults on the roll. Subjects like music and crafts are taught and the medical treatment is given free. Residential facilities are made available only to the orphans.

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

CULTURAL, LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES.

Vidarbha Sahitya Sangh.

The Vidarbha Sahitya Sangh is one of the prominent cultural and literary societies of the district. It was originally started at Amravati in the year 1923. It was shifted to Nagpur in 1930. The Sangh was established with a view to achieving all-sided development of Marathi publication of standard Marathi books and research in historical and religious records. The Sangh arranges lectures, discourses and debates on literary and historical topics and conducts classes and examinations for those who aspire for higher proficiency in Marathi. It publishes a monthly periodical, *Yugawani,* and arranges other cultural activities including dramatics. The society has about 1,560 members including 200 life members. It has a large number of branches spread all over the Vidarbha region. It has its own building and a Ranga Mandir and has recently started a library.

Ramkrishna Ashram.

The Ramkrishna Ashram started by the late Swami Vivekanand has a branch at Nagpur. It runs a charitable dispensary and a free reading room with a library; arranges for religious and cultural discourses and runs a hostel for deserving students. The Vivekanand Vidyarthi Bhavan accommodates about 25 students. Special attention is paid to their physical, intellectual and moral development. The *Jiwan Vikas,* a monthly Marathi magazine, is published by the Ashram with a view to propagating moral, cultural and spiritual values.

Bharatiya Dharma Samiti.

The Samiti was established at Nagpur in 1958 with the objective of studying the culture and ancient literature for the advancement of national values. It publishes the *Pradnya Lok,* a trimonthly, which elaborates views on ancient culture and literature and present social problems.

Sahitya Vikas Mandal.

The Mandal was established with a view to organising progressive writers into one group and raise the standard of literature. It has branches at various places in the district where facilities to publish new literature are provided. *Abhyarchana, Nandadip* and *Niranjana* are some of the publications undertaken by the Mandal so far.

Maharashtra Lekhak Sangh.

It was started with the object of helping new writers in getting their works published under proper guidance.

Sewa Sadan Society.

Situated in the premises owned by the Society is the branch of Sewa Sadan Society, Poona. It conducts various educational institutions right from pre-primary to the high school stage for women. It provides residential facilities for students of the basic training college.

Nagpur Sahitya Sabha.

Established in Nagpur in 1956 with the object of promoting and encouraging cultural and literary activities, the Sabha has 200 members on its roll. It arranges lectures and cultural programmes.

Maharashtra Bhasha Sabha.

The Maharashtra Bhasha Sabha was established at Dhantoli in 1957, with a view to promoting the growth of Hindi language and literature. The Sabha has taken up the work of translating certain good Marathi books into Hindi. The Sabha conducts various Hindi Examinations laid down by the Maharashtra Rashtrabhasha Sabha, Poona.

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CULTURAL, LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES.

Vidarbha Rashtrabhasha Prachar Samiti.

Vidarbha Rashtrabhasha Prachar Samiti, Nagpur, was established in 1937. It is a branch of the Central Rashtrabhasha Prachar Samiti and its sphere of activities extends over Vidarbha only. The object is to promote and spread Hindi as a national language. It conducts various examinations in Hindi as laid down by the Hindi Rashtrabhasha Prachar Samiti, Wardha.

Vidarbha Hindi Sahitya Sammelan.

Vidarbha Hindi Sahitya Sammelan was established at Nagpur in 1959 with the object of promoting the Hindi language and literature. The Sammelan conducts Hindi Examinations of Sahitya Sammelan, Prayag.

Museum.

The central museum, Nagpur, was established in 1863. It is maintained by the Government of Maharashtra.

Scope and Collections.

The museum collections are mainly regional (Vidarbha and Mahakoshala). They are divided into six sections, *viz.,* (1) Art and Industry, (2) Archaeology, (3) Anthropology, (4) Paintings, (5) Geology and (6) Natural History.

Besides the articles exhibited in the public galleries, there are large reserve collections which are available for study with the permission of the Curator.*

Educational Facilities.

The advantage of the museum is taken of by about 100 visitors every day. The museum supplies photographs of the exhibits in the galleries and other photographs obtained from field surveys to scholars for study and publication. There is a small library attached to the museum. Bona fide research workers are permitted to make use of the same. The museum provides facilities for arranging special exhibitions.

*For details see chap. 19.

CHAPTER 16—MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.

THE GROWTH OF PUBLIC HEALTH AND MEDICAL FACILITIES in the country is a development of recent origin. However, this is not true of Nagpur district, where the pioneering work began as early as the sixties of the last century. The Mayo Hospital was started in 1867 and the Murray Hospital in 1896 gave a lead and today the district has a number of well-known institutions for medical relief, public health and research. This however does not mean that the populace was disease-conscious and easily availed of the medical facilities. The disease was rarely ever ascribed to some physiological disorder. Many a time it was ascribed to some outside evil influence which was propitiated by some sacrifice. It was only with the spread of western education that conservatism and orthodoxy were replaced by reason and rational outlook. The *vaidyas, vaidus, hakims* and similar persons dominated the field of medical profession till quite recently. The *vaidyas* used to give treatment according to the Ayurvedic system of medicine. Their knowledge represented a combination of what they inherited from their forefathers and the practical experience they acquired in course of their medical practice. The system of diagnosis by *vaidus* and *hakims* did not essentially differ from the Ayurvedic system of medicine. However, the psychological influence which these created was more important. The *vaidus* moved from place to place and had a good knowledge of rare herbs with rich medicinal properties. In the absence of specialised veterinary practitioners, they occasionally treated the live-stock. The modern and up-to-date maternity facilities were conspicuous by their absence and very often the practical personal experience of the elderly ladies in the joint families proved highly useful to the young expectant mothers.

HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES.*

In Nagpur district there were 12 hospitals in 1958 with 1,307 beds. In the same year these hospitals treated 7,89,176 patients of whom 41,507 were in-door and 7,47,602 out-door patients. The allopathic dispensaries in the same year numbered 21. The number of doctors was 173, of whom 152 were in urban areas and 21 in rural. There were 370 nurses in the district.

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT.

Malaria, filaria, leprosy, tuberculosis, respiratory diseases, dysentery, diarrhoea and epidemic diseases like smallpox and cholera are noted to exist in the district. There are special units for the control of malaria, filaria, tuberculosis and leprosy.

*Socio-Economic Review and District Statistical Abstract of Nagpur District, 1958-59.

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The public health department co-operates with the local bodies in the control of epidemic diseases through the primary health centres, health assistants, sanitary inspectors and sanitary squads.

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT.

The following table gives the number of deaths due to chief diseases in Nagpur district from 1956 to 1960:—

Year (1)	Cholera (2)	Smallpox (3)	Plague (4)	Fevers (5)	Respiratory Diseases (6)	Dysentery and diarrhoea (7)
1956 ..	..	151	..	13,434	2,167	1,145
1957 ..	608	91	..	9,434	3,254	3,528
1958 ..	242	277	..	10,182	4,967	2,452
1959 ..	1	93	..	8,998	3,503	1,998
1960 ..	..	119	..	8,772	3,920	3,412

MEDICAL ORGANISATION.

The medical organisation in the district is essentially a hospital organisation designed to render medical relief to the general population.

The Civil Surgeon, Nagpur, is the administrative head of the medical organisation of the district. He is directly subordinate to the Deputy Director of Medical Services, Vidarbha Region, Nagpur. He is in charge of the medical arrangements of the Mayo Hospital. In addition, he is required to take active part in the public health matters affecting the district in collaboration with the District Health Officer. Prior to the implementation of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act of 1961 the supervision of the tahsil dispensaries, hospitals (including civil and cottage hospitals and other big Government hospitals), subsidised medical practitioners' centres, rural medical relief centres and public medical relief and sanction of grant-in-aid to private charitable institutions like hospitals, maternity homes, dispensaries, etc., vested in the Civil Surgeon. Such institutions and schemes with their staff and the budgetary provision on their account have now been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. The Civil Surgeon is, however, authorised (i) to inspect the concerned institutions or schemes periodically and (ii) to give such guidance, assistance or advice as the institutions may consider necessary. The institutions under management of local bodies are supervised by a Dispensary Committee.

Mayo Hospital.

The Mayo Hospital is the main Government Hospital at Nagpur. The other Government Hospitals are: the Medical College and Hospital; T.B. Control and Training Centre; the Daga Memorial Hospital for Women and Children; the Mental Hospital and the Police Hospital. Besides, a number of Government-aided dispensaries are scattered throughout the district.

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MEDICAL ORGANISATION.

Mayo Hospital.

The Mayo Hospital situated in the heart of the Nagpur City was established in 1867. Originally a single-storeyed building it has now developed considerably with the donations from various charitable trusts like the Lady Dufferin Fund. It now has a number of buildings spread over 18.211 hectares (45 acres). It accommodates about 500 patients and has arrangements for X-ray, electrocardiograph, diathermy apparatus, etc. The out-patient department has separate blocks for medical, surgical, dental, ear, nose, throat, eye, gynaec and obstetric cases and a minor operation theatre. Besides, it has a six-bed leprosy ward, a sub-centre of the T.B. Control and Training Centre. The anti-rabic centre for Nagpur district is also located in the Hospital. The hospital has blood transfusion service and a training centre for nurses since 1927.

In 1960, the indoor patients at the Mayo Hospital numbered 13,609 and outdoor patients 1,84,991. The expenditure was Rs. 10,21,034 and receipts were Rs. 1,24,492. The Hospital has an Advisory Committee attached to it and is composed of the Collector as the Chairman, the Civil Surgeon as the Secretary and 13 other members. The Committee helps in the management of the Hospital and keeps the authorities informed about the public needs.

Employees' State Insurance.

The Employees' State Insurance Scheme is in force in Nagpur since 1954. The total number of persons insured was 32,884 till December 1960. The medical officers working as insurance medical officers under the scheme are medical graduates (17) and licentiates (5). Ambulance service is provided in Nagpur City for the transport of patients. Beds are provided for insured persons at the Government Hospitals and at some of the private hospitals. The Employees' State Insurance Corporation and the State Government have constructed a ward of 25 beds at the Mayo Hospital for treatment of T.B. cases. Persons registered under Employees' Insurance scheme requiring specialised medical treatment are sent to the Medical College Hospital and the Mayo Hospital, Nagpur. The scheme is supervised by the Administrative Medical Officer, Employees' State Insurance Scheme, Vidarbha Region, Nagpur. The Medical Board consisting of the Civil Surgeon, Nagpur, the Professor of Surgery and the Professor of Plastic Surgery, Medical College, Nagpur, examines cases of industrial accidents in Nagpur and Hinganghat. The local committees discuss the local problems and refer complaints to the Corporation. In 1960, the expenditure on dispensary unit was Rs. 5,05,945 shared between the State Government and the Employees' State Insurance Corporation in the proportion of 1:3. The scheme for the extension of medical relief to the families of the workers coming under the Employees' Insurance Scheme has also been sanctioned. When implemented it will cover about 1,20,000 persons, which approximates nearly one-fifth of the city's present population.

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MEDICAL ORGANISATION.

T. B. Control and Training Centre.

The Tuberculosis Control and Training Centre was started in 1952 as a wing of the Medical College with 50 beds. The bed strength has been gradually raised to 150. It is a joint enterprise of the Government of India, the World Health Organisation and the State Government. The World Health Organisation provided an international team of experts, radiological and laboratory apparatus, reference literature, etc. For want of sufficient hospital accommodation the Centre has a domiciliary treatment section with an efficient home-visiting service. The X-ray unit is very helpful in locating the patient's trouble. The Social Welfare Department provides training in some light jobs suitable to the convalescents. The Centre has a children's ward with 30 beds. The Centre conducts laboratory and X-ray technicians' courses and home visitors' training courses in collaboration with the Medical College, Nagpur. The expenditure of the Centre in 1960 amounted to Rs. 1,56,586.

Daga Memorial Hospital.

The Daga Memorial Hospital was started only as a women's wing attached to the Mayo Hospital. The present hospital building was constructed out of a donation of Rs. 3,35,000 received from the late Sir Bisesar Das in memory of his late father Sir Kasturchand Daga in 1928 and was named as the Daga Memorial Hospital. Since 1956 it is under the management of the State Government. It has at present 151 beds, a separate paediatric unit, a family planning centre and an out-patient ward with a pre-natal and post-natal clinic. The hospital is under the supervision of a Class I Medical Officer of the Maharashtra Medical Service. It has arrangement for the training of nurses. The indoor patients treated at the hospital in 1960 numbered 8,336 and the outdoor patients 16,740.

Mental Hospital.

The Mental Hospital, Nagpur, was started in 1884. It was originally known as the Lunatic Asylum. Several additions and alterations were made thereafter and the hospital was renamed as the Mental Hospital. The hospital is supervised by a Medical Superintendent, who is a Class I Officer. It accommodates about 610 in-patients. The out-patient department was started in 1959.

Rural Medical Aid.

Various hospitals and dispensaries under the Zilla Parishad and the municipalities are at Umrer, Ramtek, Katol, Khapa, Kamptee, Kondhali, Mowad, Mohpa, Dhanla, Jalalkheda, Piplakeolaram, Navegaonkhairi, Parseoni, Kuhi, Mouda, Deolapar, Kalmeshwar and Bhiwapur. There is a mission dispensary at Dhapewada and three mine-hospitals-*cum*-dispensaries at Mansar, Kandri and Gumgaon. Of the 46 ayurvedic dispensaries maintained by municipalities and the Zilla Parishad, 14 receive grant-in-aid. The five primary health centres are at Kuhi (Salwa, Mandhal, Titur); Kalmeshwar (Kohli, Uperwahi, Gondkhari); Mouda (Aroli, Tarsa, Govari); Badhegaon (Rajegaon, Nauda, Bina) and Bhiwapur (Kargaon, Salesari, Nand)*. The health unit at Saoner is attached to the Medical College, Nagpur, and nurses and internees are sent there for training.

*The sub-centres are given in brackets.

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PUBLIC HEALTH ORGANISATION.

The public health of the district is looked after by the Public Health department of the State, local bodies, i.e., municipalities, Zilla Parishad and *panchayat samitis*.

The head of the Public Health department at the State level is the Director of Public Health, with headquarters at Poona. For public health purposes the State of Maharashtra is divided into four divisions, each division being in charge of a Deputy Director of the Public Health Services. The district of Nagpur is under the Nagpur Division. The District Health Officer, Nagpur, represents the district for all public health matters except for malaria and filaria which are under officers appointed for the specific purposes. The District Health Officer and all subordinate staff under him are now transferred to the Zilla Parishad. He organises measures for public sanitation and hygiene; sanitation at fairs and festivals; investigates the causes, origin and spread of diseases, both epidemic and endemic and adopts preventive measures to control diseases, like cholera, smallpox, plague, guineaworm and enteric infections. He inspects and advises municipalities, *panchayat samitis* and other village authorities about health, sanitation, drainage and water-supply; inspects centres for child and maternity welfare, family planning and leprosy and looks to industrial and school hygiene; recommends the issue of licences for cinema theatres and other places of public amusement, inspects sites for school buildings, factories, burial grounds, village extensions, etc., and gives opinion on their suitability from the point of view of public health. He also carries out health education with the help of his subordinate staff. The District Health Officer is helped by a number of officers and other subordinate staff in the execution of the various health schemes.

Primary Health Centres.

The Medical Officers in charge of the primary health centres are responsible for rendering preventive as well as curative help to the population covered by the centre. The primary health centres in the district are located at Kalmeshwar, Narkhed, Mouda, Kuhi, Borkhedi, Badegaon and Bhiwapur. Besides the scheme for starting primary health centres at Katol, Ramtek, Parseoni, Umrer, Kamptee and Hingna is under way.

Control of Epidemics.

Medical Officers.

The main duty of the Epidemic Medical Officer is to control epidemics and in non-epidemic times to adopt measures for prevention of epidemics. He has also to render medical aid in rural areas.

Health Assistants.

Every tahsil of the district has a Health Assistant. He adopts preventive and curative measures in infected areas, renders medical aid at fairs, festivals, etc., checks the work of the vaccinators and also vital statistics. He also performs the duty of the Medical Officer in charge of the Primary Health Centre when he is on tour.

Sanitary Inspector.

A Sanitary Inspector is placed at each tahsil. He is responsible for all public health matters in his charge including assistance in controlling epidemics. He inspects the vaccinators' work regularly so as to improve the standard of vaccination. He is also entrusted with the sanitation of the areas in his charge.

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PUBLIC HEALTH ORGANISATION.

Control of Epidemics.

Vaccinators.

Local Bodies.

The main duty of the vaccinators is to vaccinate the population in their charge. They also assist in anti-epidemic measures and sanitation of the villages.

The Nagpur Municipal Corporation has a Health Officer and three Assistant Health Officers to look after the public health of the city. The District Health Officer advises the other ten municipalities in the district in public health matters since they do not have a Health Officer of their own.

The Zilla Parishad and the *panchayat Samitis* look after the public health of the non-municipal areas of the district. Each tahsil has an Assistant Superintendent of Vaccination and three to four vaccinators. Villages which have a *panchayat* of their own look after the sanitation and public health of the village. The District Health Officer renders technical advice to the *panchayat* secretaries whenever required.

Malaria Organisation.

The Malaria Organisation of the Maharashtra State with its headquarters at Nagpur works under the National Malaria Eradication Unit. The eradication of malaria in Nagpur and Wardha districts (excluding the Nagpur Corporation area) is the responsibility of this organisation. The organisation is also entrusted with the control of filariasis.

The Malaria Officer who is a class II Officer guides the spraying and surveillance activities throughout the area under his jurisdiction. He also carries out survey (only for children and infants) for assessment of results. The Assistant Unit Officer assists the Malaria Officer in his work.

Nagpur district is divided into three sub-units, *viz.*, Nagpur, Ramtek and Saoner, each in charge of a Malaria Inspector (Senior Malaria Inspector in case of Nagpur sub-unit) with requisite staff under him. They carry out the spraying operations in their areas and during non-spraying season help the Malaria Officer in carrying out the survey and examination of blood smears. They also supervise the surveillance work done by the Surveillance Inspectors, and help the Malaria Officer in carrying out epidemiological investigations both parasitological and entomological. They keep a watch over the nomadic groups in their area and maintain proper records and accounts of materials given to them.

The Technicians are class III officers and examine the blood smears collected during the survey. The Surveillance Inspectors are also class III officers appointed specially for the active surveillance work which consists in the detection of malaria cases and the treatment of every positive case by administering the drug (primaquin) for five successive days and helping the Malaria Officer in investigations and in deciding the nature of the infection. There are 36 Surveillance Inspectors in the Nagpur Division and 12 under the Nagpur Municipal Corporation.

For the assessment of results villages are surveyed and child and infant blood smears and blood smears from fever cases and passive cases are collected and examined from time to time. One

hundred and fifty-seven villages were visited for child blood survey and 80 villages were visited for the infant malaria survey during 1960-61. Of the 1,235 infant smears none was found positive for malaria parasites. Of the 3,300 child blood smears examined none was found positive for malaria.

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National Filaria Control Programme.

The National Filaria Control Unit, Nagpur, has jurisdiction only over the Saoner and Katol tahsils of the Nagpur district. It works under the control of the Filaria Officer who is a class II Officer. He is entrusted with the annual filaria parasitological survey and with administering suitable dose of diethyl carbamazine tablets. He is helped in his duties by the Research Officer.

The Assistant Entomologist is a Class II Officer. He carries out all entomological investigations. He advises the Filaria Officer as regards the anti-larval work carried out in the breeding areas.

The Filaria Inspectors are Class III Officers who supervise the anti-larval measures and help the Filaria Officer and the Research Officer in carrying out the Filaria survey and in doing mass therapy.

The Filaria control work in Nagpur City is done by the Municipal Corporation under the technical guidance and supervision of the Deputy Director of Public Health (Malaria and Filaria). The Corporation receives Government assistance in the form of larvicide and drugs.

B.C.G. Work.

The special B.C.G. Unit for Nagpur Division has its headquarters at Nagpur. It is entrusted to Supervising Medical Officer, B.C.G. Nagpur, who works under the supervision and guidance of the Assistant Director of Public Health, B.C.G., Vaccination and T.B. Control Programme, Poona. The four B.C.G. Teams under this unit are headed by a Team Leader. The four teams have 25 technicians in all and other requisite staff and equipment to carry on their work. The teams have so far covered whole of the Nagpur Division except the districts of Bhandara and Chanda where work is in progress. In Nagpur district 2,09,569 persons were vaccinated during 1953—59 and 5,68,114 persons were tested.

The Health Unit at Saoner also functions as a training centre for various categories of personnel required for public health programme. The Health Unit has all the necessary equipment, a well-developed museum and a library.

Tuberculosis.

The Tuberculosis Control Programme has been launched by the Medical Department under the T.B. Control and Training Unit, Nagpur. Besides the Nagpur Main Centre, there are sub-centres at the Mayo Hospital, Nagpur; Saoner Health Unit; Bhiwapur Primary Health Centre and Ramtek Hospital, a health-visitor being stationed at each sub-centre.

Epidemics.

In urban areas it is the statutory duty of the municipalities to provide special medical aid and accommodation to the sick in times of epidemic diseases, and also to prevent such outbreak. In rural areas it is the duty of the Zilla Parishad. The Public Health Department co-operates with the local bodies in the control of epidemics through primary health centres, Health Assistants, Sanitary Inspectors and sanitary squads.

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PUBLIC HEALTH ORGANISATION.

Epidemics.

The main season for the outbreak of cholera is the rainy season, but occasionally summer also, when there is scarcity of water. The infection takes place through rivers and water sources. The sanitary staff undertakes disinfection of water well in advance. In times of epidemics, the Epidemic Medical Officers, Health Assistants and the sanitary staff take preventive measures like segregation and treatment of cases. In case of smallpox, the disease is brought under control by vaccination and revaccination done every year. There has been no incidence of plague in the district during the last ten years.

Leprosy.

Leprosy is an endemic disease in the district. The Assistant Leprosy Officer, Nagpur, is in charge of Nagpur and Marathwada Divisions. He works directly under the Special Leprosy Officer, Maharashtra State, stationed at Nagpur. The Leprosy Centre at Umrer works under the National Leprosy Control Scheme. The Centre has under it 258 villages divided in four sub-centres each with a non-medical assistant. Their main duty is survey and treatment. Propaganda and education also form part of their duty.

Survey, Education and Treatment Units have been set up at Katol, Mouda, Narkhed and Saoner under the Bombay Leprosy Plan. Each works under a Leprosy Technician. Two Leprosy clinics are located one each at Nagpur and Parseoni. A six-bed temporary hospitalisation ward has been built within the premises of the Mayo Hospital, Nagpur. The Leprosy Training Centre at the Medical College, Nagpur, affords training in leprosy work to the medical graduates. In the out-patient department attached to this Centre 2,500 patients so far have been diagnosed and treated.

Fairs.

The following fairs managed by the Government and local bodies are held every year in Nagpur district:—

Name of the Fair (1)	Time (2)	Number of pilgrims (3)
Managed by Government—		
Ramtek (*Kartik*)	5 days	5,000
Ramtek (*Ramnavami*)	3 days	20,000
Managed by Local Bodies—		
Dhapewada Fair (*Ashadhi Ekadashi*)	3 days	7,000
Hati Fair	5 days	3,000
Bela Fair	6 days	4,000
Ambhora Fair	3 days	8,000

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Famine Relief.

The respective local bodies organise the sanitary arrangements at the fairs under the supervision of the Public Health department.

When famine and scarcity conditions are declared, the District Health Officer under the general orders of the Collector arranges medical aid and sanitary facilities.

Health Propaganda.

Health propaganda is done by all the health staff by use of posters, pamphlets and with the audio-visual equipment. Seminars, group discussions and cinema shows are also held.

School Hygiene.

The Dispensary Medical Officers undertake medical examination of school children wherever such dispensaries exist. At other places the staff of the Public Health Department undertakes this work.

Vital Statistics.

Compilation of vital statistics is done by the staff attached to the office of the District Health Officer. Reports regarding births and deaths are received from the municipalities and from each police station which in turn receives them from the village *kotwals* once a week or fortnight. The checking of registration of births and deaths is done by the staff of the Public Health, the Police and the Revenue departments.

Family Planning.

In the context of our rapidly growing population and poor economic conditions, birth rate ought to be reduced if the standard of living of the community is to be raised and the health and happiness of the families is to be ensured. To achieve this goal, rural family planning centres are opened in conjunction with the primary health centres and maternal and child health centres at Kalmeshwar, Narkhed, Mouda, Kuhi, Katol and Soner. Urban centres are run by voluntary organisations and local bodies with Government grants. The mobile family planning unit has its headquarters at Nagpur. The Family Planning Officer at the Directorate level in Poona co-ordinates and guides all family planning activities in the State.

Public Health Institute, Nagpur.

The Public Health Institute at Nagpur was started in 1959 to train personnel for the Public Health department. It provides training facilities for para-medical personnel and orientation training for departmental candidates. For the post-graduate course the Institute is affiliated to the Nagpur University.

Vaccine Institute, Nagpur.

The Vaccine Institute, Nagpur, manufactures smallpox lymph and cholera vaccine.

Bureau of Health Education.

A Bureau of Health Education is established under the Assistant Director, Public Health, to undertake the training of pre-service and in-service personnel. It also conducts cinema shows in rural areas on various subjects relating to public health and exhibits models at cattle-shows, etc.

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Medical and Public Health Services.

PUBLIC HEALTH ORGANISATION.

Health Schools.

The Health School at Nagpur under a Lady Superintendent conducts courses for health visitors. Practical training is imparted at Sadar Maternity and Child Health Centre, Saoner Health Unit and Daga Hospital.

Mobile Hospital Unit, Nagpur.

During times of epidemics, the staff of the Mobile Hospital Unit undertakes isolation and treatment of infectious cases by opening temporary hospitals. During normal times it undertakes opening up of medical camps at places where no medical facilities are available.

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LABOUR DEPARTMENT

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

LABOUR ORGANISATION.

ALL THE OFFICES DEALING WITH LABOUR MATTERS fall within the administrative control of the Industries and Labour Department of the Government of Maharashtra. The Commissioner of Labour is the head of all such offices. He has now under him three Deputy Commissioners of Labour (two at Bombay and one at Nagpur), 16 Assistant Commissioners of Labour (12 at Bombay, 2 at Nagpur, 1 at Poona and 1 at Aurangabad), Chief Inspector of Factories, Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances and Government Labour Officer, Bombay. He supervises and co-ordinates the working of the above-mentioned officers under his control.

Functions.

The Commissioner of Labour, Bombay, administers the statutory functions entrusted to him under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947; Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926; Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946; Minimum Wages Act, 1948; Working Journalists (Conditions of Service and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1955 and Weekly Holidays Act, 1942 which are the Central Acts along with the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946; the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947; the Central Provinces and Berar Shops and Establishments Act, 1947, and the Hyderabad Shops and Establishments Act, 1951. In addition, his office performs the following functions:—

(1) Compilation and publication of the Consumer Price Index Numbers for working class for Bombay, Sholapur, Jalgaon, Nagpur, Aurangabad and Nanded.

(2) Conducting of socio-economic enquiries into the conditions of labour.

(3) Compiling and disseminating information on labour matters generally and statistics regarding industrial disputes, agricultural wages, absenteeism, cotton mill production, trade unions, etc., particularly.

(4) Collection of statistics under the Collection of Statistics Act, 1953.

(5) Publication of two monthlies, *viz.*—

(1) The Labour Gazette, and

(2) The Industrial Court Reporter.

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Functions.

Under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, the Central Government is the appropriate authority to deal with industrial disputes concerning any industry carried on by or under the authority of the Central Government or the Indian Railways or concerning any such controlled industry as may be specified in this behalf by the Central Government or in respect of banking companies having branches in more than one State including the State Bank of India and the Reserve Bank of India, the Life Insurance Corporation or insurance companies having branches in more than one State or a mine, an oil-field or a major port.

One of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour, Bombay, has been appointed as Registrar under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 and has jurisdiction over the entire State. He has one Assistant Registrar under him. The Registrar's work is of a quasi-judicial nature and falls under the following heads, *viz.*, (*a*) recognition of undertakings and occupations; (*b*) registration of unions; (*c*) maintenance of approved lists of unions; (*d*) registration of agreements, settlements, submissions and awards, and (*e*) maintenance of a list of joint committees constituted under section 48 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

The Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, is the Regional Head of all the offices under the Commissioner of Labour in Nagpur and Aurangabad Divisions and has been entrusted with the necessary powers for running the administration of the labour offices in these divisions. He performs statutory functions entrusted to him under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947 and the Central Provinces and Berar Shops and Establishments Act, 1947. He is the Certifying Authority for Standing Orders under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. He acts as the Registrar of unions recognised under the said Act and also assists the Commissioner of Labour in matters of labour disputes. He is the Chief Executive Authority under the Central Provinces and Berar Shops and Establishments Act and he is also Conciliator under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, and under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946. He is assisted by two Assistant Commissioners of Labour stationed at Nagpur and having jurisdiction over the entire Vidarbha region. Both these Assistant Commissioners are appointed as authorities under section 16 of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, and one of them is also appointed as the Assistant Registrar of Recognised Unions under the said Act. The Assistant Commissioners are also Inspectors under the Minimum Wages Act and Shops and Establishments Act.

There are two Government Labour Officers and one Government Labour Officer-*cum*-Minimum Wages Inspector (Gazetted) in the office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur. They perform the statutory duties entrusted to them under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. They are appointed as Conciliators under the said Act and are also Inspectors under the Shops and Establishments

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Functions.

Act and Minimum Wages Act. The Minimum Wages Inspector is in charge of enforcement of the Minimum Wages Act in all scheduled industries in Nagpur and Wardha districts and especially in the employment in shops and commercial establishments in Nagpur City. The Government Labour Officers are also appointed as Inspectors under the Working Journalists Act. They deal with individual complaints from all industries which fall within the purview of the State Government.

There is a separate Socio-Economic Research Section in the office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour under the charge of an Assistant Research Officer. This section conducts enquiries into various socio-economic and labour problems in different industries. The welfare centres started under the First Five-Year Plan and Multipurpose Institutes started under the Second Five-Year Plan for the benefit of industrial workers are also under the control of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, and one of the Government Labour Officers is in charge of these welfare activities in the Vidarbha region.

Labour Officers.

The Government Labour Officers at Bombay work under the supervision and control of the Chief Government Labour Officer. At the various sub-offices they are under the administrative control of the respective heads of offices or regional heads. In the Vidarbha region there are two Government Labour Officers at Nagpur, and one Government Labour Officer each at Bhandara, Akola and Amravati. The jurisdiction of the Government Labour Officers at Nagpur extends over the districts of Nagpur and Wardha. Of the two Government Labour Officers at Nagpur, one is in charge of Nagpur City and the other in charge of Nagpur and Wardha districts, excluding Nagpur City. The Government Labour Officers are statutory Labour Officers under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, and are also appointed as Conciliators under that Act. In the absence of recognised unions in any industry, they have to elect representatives of employees for the purpose of representation of employees in collective disputes and in the absence of any such elected representatives they themselves have to act as representatives of employees. They attend to individual complaints from employees from all the industries and keep Government and other authorities informed of the latest situation in the labour and industrial field by sending regular reports to these authorities. They are also Minimum Wages Inspectors and Shops Inspectors and in those capacities they enforce the provisions of the respective Acts in the areas under their jurisdiction. Being Inspectors under the Working Journalists Act, they are also concerned with the enforcement of the provisions of the said Act.

Factory Department.

The Factory Department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. But the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, has complete control over the technical side of the work of the department all over the State. Nagpur district, along with the districts of Bhandara, Wardha, Chanda, Yeotmal, Amravati, Akola, Buldhana, Parbhani, Aurangabad, Nanded, Bhir and Osmanabad, comes under the jurisdiction of the

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Factory Department.

Deputy Chief Inspector of Factories, Nagpur, who is the regional head of the two regions of Vidarbha and Marathwada. The factory department is mainly responsible for the administration of the Factories Act, 1948. He is also responsible for the administration of the Payment of Wages Act, 1936; Maternity Benefit Act and the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act, 1925 (issue of licences and approval of plans only).

Rules made by the former Madhya Pradesh Government under the Factories Act, Payment of Wages Act and Maternity Benefit Act are still applicable to the factories in Vidarbha region. The work of issuing licences in Vidarbha area under the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act is also being done by the office of the Deputy Chief Inspector of Factories, Nagpur.

According to the Madhya Pradesh Factories Rules, all the Sub-Divisional Magistrates within their respective jurisdiction, the Labour Commissioner, the Assistant Labour Commissioner, all Labour Officers, all Statistical Investigators and Assistants are Additional Inspectors for the purposes of the Factories Act.

In Nagpur district, there are 330 factories under Section 2 (m) (i) of the Factories Act and 43 factories under Section 2 (m) (ii) of the Factories Act, 1948. Majority of the workers are employed in cotton textile mills, saw-mills, printing presses, cotton ginning and pressing factories, pottery-making, electric power generation, engineering workshops, bidi manufacturing, etc.

Welfare Officers.

The Factories Act, 1948, and Rules thereunder prescribe for appointment of Welfare Officers in all factories employing more than 500 workmen on an average. They also prescribe the number of such officers to be appointed according to the strength of the workers in the factories. Five Welfare Officers and Additional Welfare Officers were employed by private employers in Nagpur district in August 1960 as per the statutory requirements.

Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances Act.

The Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances Department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. The Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, who is responsible to the Commissioner has full control over the technical aspects of the department, viz, the smooth working and administration of the Indian Boilers Amendment Act, 1960, the Indian Boiler Regulations, 1960, and Central Provinces and Berar Boiler Rules, 1930.

The work carried out by the Department comprises mainly registration and inspection of steam boilers, economisers and steam pipes including mountings and other fittings. The registration and inspection work of steam boilers in the district is carried out by the Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances with his headquarters at Nagpur. Competency Boiler Attendants Examinations under the Central Provinces and Berar Boiler Rules are held at Nagpur thrice a year for the benefit of the candidates from the Vidarbha region. For that purpose, the Inspector is the secretary to the Board of Examiners at Nagpur.

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Labour Unions.

In Nagpur district there were 94 unions registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. Of these, 63 were registered prior to 1957, 9 in 1958, 14 in 1959 and 8 in 1960. The Unions were comprised of local bodies, 9; educational institutions, 4; *gumasta mandals*, 5; banks, 10; manganese, 5; hospitals, 3; trading in tea, 3; textile, 3; printing presses, 4; bidi workers, 5; transport, 4; electrical workers, 2; oil, 1; cinema, 1; and miscellaneous, 35.

Of these 94 unions, 14 were recognised unions under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act and in that capacity they could represent all employees in the respective industries in the areas concerned for the purposes of collective disputes.

Wages and Earnings.

By an Award of the Industrial Tribunal known as Mangalmurti Award, the minimum basic wage of an employee in the cotton textile industry in Nagpur City has been fixed at Rs. 26 per month. An addition of Rs. 6 per month in this basic wage, has been granted from January 1960, by the management of the two mills at Nagpur as per the recommendations of the Cotton Textile Wage Board (Central). The wages for other occupations in the Cotton Textile Industry have also been fixed by the said Award and all the employees are also granted an increase of Rs. 6 per month as referred to above. The dearness allowance for the cotton textile workers has been linked with the cost of living index figure compiled by the Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, and the average dearness allowance for the 12 months ending with 31st July 1960 came to 2.53 per day.

The wages in other industries in the district are not standardised. The wage structure varies from industry to industry and from concern to concern.

Shops and Establishments Act, 1947.

The Central Provinces and Berar Shops and Establishments Act, 1947, has been made applicable within the limits of Nagpur Municipal Corporation, and of Kamptee Municipal Committee.

The Act is being administered by the Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, who is the Chief Inspector under the said Act. He is assisted by Shop Inspectors in the enforcement of the Act. The Act fixes working hours, rest periods, spread-over of work, weekly holidays with wages, annual leave with wages, etc., for employees in shops, commercial establishments, restaurants and places of amusements. In Nagpur district there were about 10,000 shops registered under the Act in 1960.

Employees State Insurance Act, 1948.

The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, has been made applicable in Nagpur district, but the benefits under the scheme are available only to the employees who are working within the limits of Nagpur Municipal Corporation. The number of employees who are getting benefits under the Act is roundabout 25,000. In other places in the district wherever the industries covered by the Act exist, the employers' contributions only are taken as per the provisions of the Act, but the benefits are not yet extended to the employees. In Nagpur city the benefits under the Act were being given only to the employees concerned in the first instance.

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Minimum Wages Act, 1948.

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948, has been made applicable to specified employments in the district, *viz.*, (1) oil-mills, (2) public motor transport, (3) cement industry, (4) potteries, (5) rice, flour or dal mills, (6) local authorities, (7) road construction and building operations, (8) stone-breaking and stone-crushing, (9) lac, (10) leather manufactory, (11) glass industry, (12) bidi manufactory, (13) cotton-ginning and pressing factories, (14) printing presses and (15) shops and commercial establishments. Minimum wage rates have been prescribed by the former Madhya Pradesh Government in all the employments except shops and commercial establishments. There are two Minimum Wages Inspectors (Non-gazetted) for the enforcement of the provisions of the Act throughout the eight districts of the Vidarbha region including Nagpur district. There is a Government Labour Officer-*cum*-Minimum Wages Inspector (Gazetted) mainly for the enforcement of the provisions of the Act in shops and commercial establishments in Nagpur City. The Government Labour Officers who are also Minimum Wages Inspectors help them in the enforcement of the provisions of the Act.

Small Causes Court.

The Judge of the Small Causes Court at Nagpur has been appointed as the Authority to hear and decide claims arising out of minimum wages to employees in his jurisdiction.

Industrial Court.

The Judge of the Small Causes Court at Nagpur has been tion 22 of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. It exercises jurisdiction over the Nagpur Division. The president and the members of the Industrial Court, under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, are also appointed as president and members of the State Industrial Court, Nagpur, under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. In addition, one member is stationed at Nagpur with the Assistant Registrar and ministerial staff under him. There are eight District Industrial Courts, located at Nagpur, Bhandara, Amravati, Akola, Chanda, Yeotmal, Buldhana and Wardha.

The duties and powers of the State Industrial Court, Nagpur, are detailed in Chapter III of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. The State Industrial Court acts as a court of arbitration in industrial disputes referred to it by a civil court, on a reference by the State Government or on an application by an employer or an employee or by a representative of the employee concerned, or by the Labour Officer to decide about the illegality of strike, lock-out or any notice of change. The parties may refer the dispute to the State Industrial Court, Nagpur, on failure of the conciliation proceedings. The State Government may also make a reference to it for a declaration whether a proposed strike, lock-out, closure or stoppage of work would be illegal. In its appellate jurisdiction, it decides appeals preferred to it from the orders of District Industrial Court, Wage Board, Commissioner of Labour, etc.

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Wage Boards.

There is a provision under Chapter IV-A of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, for appointment of wage boards in different industries for dealing with the disputes in the respective industries. A wage board for the cotton textile industry in the Vidarbha Division has been constituted by the State Government. Reference of disputes to the wage board are to be made by Government by a notification issued under section 37-C of the Act. An appeal against the decision of the Wage Board lies to the State Industrial Court.

Workmen's Compensation Act.

Under the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act (VIII of 1923), the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, has exclusive jurisdiction over Greater Bombay. The Commissioner has also exclusive jurisdiction to try all cases relating to the Western, Central and Southern Railways and the Tata Hydro-Electric Company. The Commissioner has also general jurisdiction over the whole State.

The Judge, Court of Small Causes, Nagpur, is *ex-officio* Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation for Nagpur district. The principal reason for giving the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, jurisdiction over the whole State is to enable him to settle the cases with insurance companies and other firms which have their head offices in Bombay City. But as this arrangement necessarily entails a certain amount of overlapping, Government have issued instructions under Section 20 (II) of the Act for distribution of work between the Commissioner and the *ex-officio* Commissioners. Under these instructions, the Commissioner at Bombay is authorised to receive deposits for distribution of compensation under the sub-sections (i) and (ii) of Section 8; to issue notices to, and to receive applications from claimants in cases of deposits under these sub-sections; and to receive agreement for registration under section 28, wherever the accident might have taken place. Where a deposit is received or an agreement is tendered for registration, the Commissioner notifies the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned. Applications for orders to deposit compensation when no deposit under section 8 (I) has been received, and other applications provided for in section 22 of the Act should be made to the *ex-officio* Commissioner within whose jurisdiction the accident occurs. Notices to employers under Section 10-A requiring statements regarding fatal accidents in the district are issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioners and reports of fatal accidents made under Section 10-B are also received by them. After notice has been issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioner under Section 10-A, the employer deposits the money with the Commissioner at Bombay and the latter notifies the receipt of the deposit to the *ex-officio* commissioner concerned. Applications for review or commutation of half-monthly payments have to be made to the Commissioner who passed the original orders.

As regards the cases arising out of accidents on the Southern Railway, they are dealt with by the *ex-officio* Commissioners concerned.

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Welfare Activities.

The Welfare Centres and Multipurpose Institutes which impart education and provide recreation facilities to industrial workers are conducted by the office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour in various centres of Vidarbha region. The Welfare Centres were started under the Welfare Scheme in the First Five-Year Plan while the Multipurpose Institutes were started under the Second Five-Year Plan. In Nagpur City, there are two welfare centres and two Multipurpose Institutes. A Multipurpose Institute had been opened at Kamptee in 1960. The Supervisor arranges indoor and outdoor games for employees, conducts a library and a reading room and arranges for frequent recreational programmes such as, *bhajans, kirtans*, dramas, etc., for workers. In the Multipurpose Institutes, however, the activities are manifold. The craft teacher conducts classes for women workers while the nursery teacher conducts nursery school for the benefit of children of these employees. The physical training instructor is in charge of indoor and outdoor games and gymnastic activities, while the librarian conducts the library and a reading-room. The supervisor is in charge of the Multipurpose Institute and conducts all the activities of the institute. These institutes are provided with radio sets, loud speakers, requisite articles for indoor and outdoor games, books, dailies, and weekly and monthly magazines in regional languages.

The Office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour also runs a Labour Training School at Nagpur in which workers are given training in trade unionism. The course is of three months' duration and classes are conducted on alternate days in the evening. The lectures on various topics such as Economics, Sociology, Co-operation, etc., are delivered by the officials of the Labour Department or by specialists in respective spheres. After completion of the course the successful candidates are awarded certificates.

THE DEPARTMENT OF PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Organisation.

The prohibition policy of the Government aims at moral, ethical and economic uplift of the common man and achieving peaceful living conditions in the society. To implement this policy the prohibition laws have been enforced prohibiting production, possession, export, import, transport, sale, consumption and use of all intoxicants except as permitted by any rules or orders.

Total prohibition was introduced in Nagpur district with effect from 1st October 1946 under the C. P. and Berar Prohibition Act, 1938, which was in force in that district till 31st March 1959 and thereafter the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949 (XXV of 1949) has been extended to the Nagpur district with effect from April 1, 1959. The Collector of Nagpur is charged with the administration of Prohibition and Excise Department in the district. In relation to this department he is responsible to the Director of Prohibition and Excise, Maharashtra State, Bombay. He is invested with powers under the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949), and also exercises powers under the Dangerous Drugs Act (II of 1930), and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act (XX of

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PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Organisation.

1936). Under the Bombay Prohibition Act, prohibition or restrictions have been placed on the manufacture, import, export, transport, sale, possession, use and consumption of liquor, intoxicating drugs or hemp, mhowra flowers and molasses and of articles containing liquor, intoxicating drugs or hemp. The Collector has powers to grant, cancel or suspend licenses, permits and passes under the Act.

The Superintendent of Prohibition and Excise, Nagpur, assists the Collector and is in actual charge of the work of the department in the district. Under him there are the Inspector of Prohibition and Excise, and 16 Sub-Inspectors of Prohibition and Excise of whom eight Sub-Inspectors are in charge of Bonded manufactories, three in charge of Foreign Liquor Vendor's Licences and five hold executive charge. Of these five, four are posted in Nagpur City and one is for the rest of the district. The Sub-Inspectors of Prohibition and Excise have also been invested with certain powers under the Prohibition Act, the Dangerous Drugs Act and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act.

In each tahsil a medical board has been constituted, consisting of the Government Medical Officer or Government Assistant Medical Officer in the tahsil. If there is no such Officer in the tahsil, the nearest Government medical officer or Government Assistant Medical Officer functions as a medical board. The function of the medical board is to examine medically any person who applies for a permit to possess opium, ganja or bhang for personal consumption and who is directed by the Collector or an officer authorised in this behalf to appear before the medical board. On examination, the medical board has to issue a medical certificate specifying the disease the applicant is suffering from, the drug recommended for personal consumption as a medical necessity and the quantity of the drug which may be permitted per month for personal consumption.

Enforcement Work.

The Police Department is the chief agency to deal with detection, investigation and prosecution of offences under the Prohibition Act. Though officers of the Prohibition and Excise Department of and above the rank of Sub-Inspectors have been invested with powers to investigate offences, these officers generally pass on information of the commission of offences and hand over the cases detected by them to the police for investigation. The Home Guards organisation also assists the police in this work.

All revenue officers of and above the rank of mamlatdar or mahalkari, all magistrates, and all officers of the Department of Prohibition and Excise of and above the rank of Sub-Inspectors have been authorised, under section 123 of the Prohibition Act, within the limits of their respective jurisdictions, to arrest without a warrant any person whom they have reason to believe to be guilty of an offence under the Act, and to seize and detain any articles of contraband. The officer so authorised, when he arrests any person or seizes and detains any articles, has to forward such person or articles, without unnecessary delay, to the officer in charge of the nearest police station.

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PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Effect of Prohibition.

Total prohibition was introduced in Nagpur district with effect from 1st October 1946. A comparison is given of the consumption of liquor and intoxicating drugs in the calendar year 1946 (as the accounts in the former State of Madhya Pradesh were maintained for calendar year) and in financial years 1958-59 and 1959-60 of the Nagpur district.

	Calendar year 1946*	Financial year 1958-59	Financial year 1959-60
Country liquor (in proof gallons).	82,900	...	...
Spirit (Superior imported in gallons).	5,577	391	384
Spirit (Cheap Indian in gallons).	5,732	2,284	2,033
Wine (in gallons) ...	1,011	46	46
Beer (in gallons) ...	23,082	3,292	2,789
Opium (in seers) ...	626	3	2½
Ganja (in seers) ...	2,878	...	...
Bhang (in seers) ...	777	...	...

The total revenue for the above years was as follows:—

1946 (Calendar year): Rs. 35,15,748.
1958-59 (Financial year): Rs. 6,43,590.
1959-60 (Financial year): Rs. 4,28,188.

Kinds of permits.

Various permits are granted for possession, use, etc., of foreign

The total revenue for the above years was as follows:—

Emergency.

Emergency permit is granted for the use or consumption of brandy, rum or champagne to any person for medical use and emergent occasions. The permit is granted for a period not beyond 31st March next following the date of the commencement of the permit and for a quantity not exceeding 6⅔ fluid ounces of brandy or rum or 13⅓ fluid ounces of champagne per six months. A permit is not granted to more than one member of a household at any one time. The term 'household' is defined as a group of persons residing and messing jointly as the members of one domestic unit.

Health.

The health permit is granted for the use or consumption of foreign liquor for a quantity up to the maximum of two units† a month to any person who requires such liquor for the preservation or maintenance of his health. This permit may be granted to an applicant for a quantity exceeding two units† but not more than three units† of foreign liquor a month if the applicant at the time of making an application is more than 55 years of age, provided:

(*a*) the applicant has made such application within three months of the expiry of the health permit held by him authorising him to consume more than two units; and

(*b*) the Area Medical Board or the State Medical Board, as the case may be, recommend to such applicant a quantity in excess of two units.

*The figures of consumption for calendar year 1946 include the figures of consumption during prohibition period from 1-10-1946 to 31-12-1946.

†One unit is equal to 1 quart bottle (26⅔ oz.) of spirits or 3 quart bottles of wine or 9 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength exceeding 2 per cent of alcohol by volume, or 27 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength not exceeding 2 per cent of alcohol by volume.

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Kinds of permits.

This permit is usually granted for a period not exceeding that recommended by the Area Medical Board or the State Medical Board, as the case may be, but such period shall not exceed six months in any case:

Provided that the permit may be granted for a period not exceeding 12 months in the case of persons over 70 years of age.

Temporary Residents.

A Temporary Resident's permit is issued to a person born and brought up or domiciled in a country outside India, where liquor is usually consumed. No permit shall be granted for a period beyond 31st March next following the date of its commencement. The permit shall be granted for such monthly quantity not exceeding four units* as the Collector may fix in each case.

Visitors.

Any person visiting the State of Maharashtra for a period of not more than a week and desiring to possess, use and consume foreign liquor shall apply to the Collector. The permit shall be granted for a period not exceeding one week provided that the Collector may extend the period of such permit, but in no case shall such period be extended to a total period exceeding one month. No permit shall be granted for a quantity exceeding one unit* per week.

Interim.

Any person who is eligible for a permit under Rules 63, 64 or 68 of the Bombay Foreign Liquor Rules, 1953, and desires to possess, use or consume foreign liquor may apply to the Collector or any other officer authorised in this behalf for an interim permit while applying for a regular permit under any of the said rules. No such permit shall be granted for a period exceeding two months. The permit shall be granted for such monthly quantity of foreign liquor as the Collector may fix, provided that such quantity shall not in any case exceed two units of foreign liquor per month if the permit-holder is not eligible for permit under rule 63 or 68, or four units of foreign liquor per month in other cases, except with the sanction of the Director of Prohibition and Excise.

Tourists.

This permit is issued free to a foreign tourist holding a tourist introduction card or a tourist visa. The quantity of foreign liquor granted under this permit is four units* per month and the period for which it is granted is one month.

Special permits for privileged personages.

This permit is granted to consular officers and the members of the staff appointed by or serving under them, provided that such members are the nationals of foreign countries. It is also granted to the consorts and relatives of the above persons.

This permit is granted for any quantity of foreign liquor if the permit holder is a Sovereign or Head of a foreign State or his consort. If the permit holder is any other person, the permit is granted for a quantity of foreign liquor not exceeding that which may be fixed by the State Government.

Toddy.

The possession, use, etc., of toddy is completely prohibited.

*One unit is equal to 1 quart bottle (26⅔ oz.) of spirits or 3 quart bottles of wine or 9 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength exceeding 2 per cent of alcohol by volume, or 27 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength not exceeding 2 per cent of alcohol by volume.

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PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Denatured Spirit.

The possession and use of denatured spirit is prohibited, except under a permit/licence. A permit for possession and use of denatured spirit for domestic purposes is granted for a quantity not exceeding one quart bottle per month:

Provided that the officer granting the permit may for any special reasons grant the permit for any quantity not exceeding three quart bottles per month:

Provided further that with the previous sanction of the Collector, a permit may be granted for a quantity exceeding three quart bottles per month.

The possession and use of denatured spirit for medicinal, scientific and educational purposes and for purpose of Art, Industry or Profession is regulated by the system of licences prescribed in this behalf. Methylated industrial spirit or methylated industrial denatured spirit or special industrial denatured spirit required for use in any industry etc., is allowed to be possessed on licences issued under the Bombay Denatured Spirit Rules, 1959.

Country Liquor and Wine.

Permits for use of country liquor and wine for sacramental purposes only are granted to priests of certain communities, *viz.*, Parsees, Jews and Christians.

Ganja, Bhang, Opium.

A permit for personal consumption of opium, ganja or bhang is granted only on production of a medical certificate from the Medical Board constituted by Government for the purpose. The maximum quantity which may be allowed per month under such permit is 96 grams in the cases of ganja and bhang and 60 grams in the case of opium. A permit can be granted for only one of these drugs.

Use for Industrial purposes, etc.

There are also rules governing the possession, use, transport, sale, etc., of dangerous drugs, mhowra flowers, molasses, rectified spirits and absolute alcohol for industrial, medicinal and similar purposes.

Neera and Pa'm Products.

Neera sale licences as well as licences for manufacturing gur from neera are granted only (1) to the Co-operative Societies organised by constructive social workers, (2) other similarly organised institutions such as Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, (3) *ashrams,* (4) organisations in charge of intensive area schemes, (5) sarvodaya centres, etc. Licences are not granted to individuals.

Enforcement.

With the change in the aspect of the law from the old fiscal to new social and moral objective, offences under the Prohibition Act came to be regarded as offences against society and involving moral turpitude. Prohibition offences were, therefore, made cognizable and with the introduction of total prohibition all the powers in connection with investigations, prevention, detection, prosecution, etc., of prohibition offences were vested in the police. The work of prevention, detection, etc., of prohibition offences is now a regular duty of the police staff. The main difficulty encountered in the enforcement of prohibition is lack of adequate co-operation of the public to help the police in the prevention and detection of prohibition offences. The difficulty of securing the services of respectable persons to work as panch witnesses in Prohibition cases is also often felt.

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Other Social Services.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Enforcement.

The number of prohibition offences detected during the last three years is as given below:—

1957-58—2,472

1958-59—6,426

1959-60—4,645

Prohibition has, in effect, raised the standard of living of the poorer classes. They eat better food and wear better clothes. Their children go to schools, and the womenfolk are happier. They can now purchase articles which prior to prohibition would have been regarded as beyond their means. Poorer sections of the society now resort to cinemas, hotels and other places of public amusement for entertainment frequently. Due to prohibition, there has been a great change in the ideas of social values and manners. Prohibition has resulted in lesser family feuds, better and cordial relations at home, greater and proper care for their children, almost complete absence of the street brawls and of quarrelsome atmosphere of the neighbourhoods, and above all, in general peace and tranquillity particularly among the groups once noted for drinking and misbehaving.

THE SOCIAL WELFARE DEPARTMENT.

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Organisation.

At the ministerial level, the Department of Social Welfare was constituted on November 1, 1956. It, however, took shape at the Directorate level from September 15, 1957. The backward class welfare work done previously by the Backward Class Department is now done by the Backward Class Wing of the Social Welfare Department. The other wing of the Social Welfare Department is the Correctional Wing. The designation of the Director of Backward Class Welfare is now changed to Director of Social Welfare who is the head of the Social Welfare Department of the State. The Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Institutions is redesignated as Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Wing) and he assists the Director of Social Welfare in matters relating to the Correctional Wing. Two additional posts of Deputy Directors have been created. They have to look after the work relating to the education and welfare of physically handicapped and the work relating to research and statistics other than backward class welfare and correctional administration.

There is a Regional Officer in charge of Social Welfare and a Regional Officer in charge of Tribal Welfare at Nagpur, for Vidarbha region. Besides regional officers for Tribal Welfare and Social Welfare, there are two divisional offices at present in the Nagpur division—one for the four northern districts and the other for the four southern districts of Vidarbha, with Divisional Officers who are Class I Officers. In respect of tribal welfare work there are seven Area Organisers who are in charge of certain zones. They are Class II Officers and are of the status of Social Welfare Officers. They look after the tribal welfare schemes in their respective zones.

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Other Social Services.

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Organisation.

The classification of backward classes is made into three broad categories, *viz.*, the scheduled castes, the scheduled tribes and other backward classes which include backward population not belonging to either scheduled castes or scheduled tribes but which is socially, economically and educationally as backward as the population belonging to the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes. However, the classification as backward based on communities, has been abolished and now the classification is based on economic conditions (income).

It is the policy of the Government to ameliorate the conditions of backward classes so as to bring them on par with advanced sections of the community. With this in view, the Government takes threefold measures covering education, economic rehabilitation and social welfare.

In the field of education the Government offers a large number of scholarships and concessions in fees to the students belonging to backward classes at all stages of education—primary, secondary and collegiate. Special attention is paid to the education of population belonging to the scheduled tribes, the nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes and the *vimukta jatis.*

Towards economic rehabilitation of backward classes measures are taken to imbibe co-operative spirit in them, to provide vocational training and other facilities, to supply them with capital and other tools and equipment required for small occupations and agricultural implements.

Towards social welfare the Government have undertaken to remove the stigma of untouchability in respect of scheduled castes and assimilation of scheduled tribes in general population without destroying their hereditary traits. Government also does propaganda in this respect through the agency of voluntary organisations.

All these social, economic and educational measures taken by Government, will go a long way in eradicating untouchability with the educational and economic uplift of the backward classes.

Structure of the Department.

The District Social Welfare Office was started in Nagpur district in the year 1954 with one District Welfare Officer as the Head of the Office. He was assisted by eight Social Welfare Inspectors, one at each of the five tahsil headquarters and three at Nagpur proper. He was entrusted with organisation and establishment of grampanchayats in the villages, organisation of literacy drive and spreading social education through social education classes, literature and audio-visual equipment, inspection and grant-in-aid to social welfare institutions and voluntary agencies doing social work and all the activities connected with the social welfare of the society including the removal of untouchability.

As a result of the reorganisation of States in 1956, the District Social Welfare Officer was designated as Social Welfare Officer and continued to be assisted by five Social Welfare Inspectors. The

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Other Social Services.

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Structure of the Department.

work connected with panchayats and social education was transferred to Local Self-Government and Education Department at district level and now the Social Welfare Officer is entrusted with the work relating to the Social Welfare Department.

All the schemes undertaken by the Social Welfare Department are implemented by the Social Welfare Officer in the district and it is part of his duties to see that the fullest benefit of all these schemes is received by the members of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. He is also expected to see that the backward classes derive the maximum of the concessions sanctioned by Government in the field of education, health, housing, agricultural land, profession, etc. The Social Welfare Officer in the district works directly under the control of the Collector of the district.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad all the activities and schemes carried out by the department have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. The Social Welfare Department of the Zilla Parishad is headed by the Social Welfare Officer of the Parishad who is responsible to the Deputy Chief Executive Officer of the Parishad.

Measures of Uplift.

In order to facilitate the educational uplift of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in the district, special concessions are granted to the students of the communities such as grant of scholarships in middle schools, high schools and technical schools at the rate of Rs. 30, Rs. 60 and Rs. 90, respectively; grant of tuition fees, examination fees, etc., from the primary to the collegiate level. These concessions are also extended to technical institutions. In addition to this, students whose parents' annual income is below Rs. 1,200 are also granted tuition fees, from the primary to the collegiate standard including technical education. All the students belonging to the above income group get these educational concessions irrespective of their caste.

Hostels.

Eleven Backward Class Hostels where free boarding and lodging is provided to the inmates are recognised in the district for grant-in-aid. These hostels are entirely managed by the voluntary agencies.

In addition, 10 cosmopolitan hostels have been recognised during the year 1959-60. Inmates belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes residing in these hostels were given actual expenditure that they had to incur towards lodging and boarding.

Backward Class Girls' Hostel.

Taking into consideration the difficulties of backward classes in educating their girls, Government started a Backward Class Girls' Hostel at Nagpur in 1959-60. It is known as Sant Muktabai Hostel. In all 35 girl students were admitted in this hostel. A Lady Superintendent was appointed to look after this hostel.

Backward Class Hostel for Boys.

For the educational development of the backward classes in Vidarbha, a hostel for the backward class students studying in higher classes was opened at Nagpur during the year 1958-59 wherein 80 students were admitted. All the students in the hostel were provided with books and other requisites. Special tutorial classes were conducted in the hostel and lectures of learned

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

professors were also arranged for the students. Students were sent on educational tours. One House Master and Warden for the hostel have been appointed for supervisory duties.

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Coaching Classes.

One coaching class was started at Nagpur for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes students preparing them for I.A.S. and I.P.S. and other All-India Competitive examinations during the year 1959-60. Noted professors and lecturers were invited to give suitable coaching to these students. The advantage of the facility was taken by 51 students during 1959-60.

Balwadis.

For the cultural and educational development of children belonging to scheduled castes and to remove the sense of inferiority complex in their minds and to inculcate in them the spirit of co-operation, a scheme for opening of *balwadis* for scheduled castes' children has been introduced. One *balwadi* at Bela in Umrer tahsil was opened during the year 1957-58. The *balwadi*, equipped with necessary staff, provided education to 30 children belonging to scheduled castes. It is located in a rented building.

Housing.

Particular attention is paid to provide suitable housing sites to scheduled caste persons in the villages. The housing sites are purchased by Government and given out to the needy scheduled caste persons for construction of their houses. In addition, grant-in-aid of Rs. 100 each is given to the members of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes for minor repairs to their houses.

Similarly, under the post-war reconstruction scheme, nine backward class housing societies were formed in the district during the year 1959-60 for construction of houses on a co-operative basis. In 1959-60, one such society of sweepers was given a loan and a subsidy for construction of houses.

Miscellaneous.

The economic improvement of the backward classes is achieved through various means. With a view to improving the economic condition of the backward classes, Government have sanctioned a scheme of grant of loan-*cum*-subsidy to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes persons, for cottage industries and profession, to supplement their agricultural income.

Similarly, to improve the agricultural methods and to supplement the agricultural income of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, loan-*cum*-subsidies are granted for purchasing plough bullocks, buffaloes and cows along with goats and poultry that are supplied at three-fourths cost and agricultural implements and quality seeds supplied on grant-in-aid basis.

Cultivable waste lands are distributed to the landless scheduled castes and scheduled tribes persons by the Revenue department.

Service Co-operative Society.

One service co-operative society at Karwai in Ramtek tahsil of Nagpur district was functioning under the scheme for the welfare of backward classes. An interest-free loan of Rs. 5,000 was advanced to the Society in 1959-60.

Social Uplift.

Special measures to give wide publicity regarding the removal of untouchability have been taken and with a view to achieving this, *Asprushyata Niwaran* weeks are celebrated throughout the

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SOCIAL WELFARE.

Social Uplift.

Voluntary Agencies.

district by all the official and non-official agencies. Special awards of Rs. 500 each were given in the year 1958-59 and 1959-60 to village Malegaon in Saoner tahsil and Parashiwani in Ramtek tahsil for doing outstanding work in the cause of removal of untouchability.

Voluntary agencies engaged in various social and physical welfare activities are also found very useful in the social uplift in general. In order to encourage these institutions and to co-ordinate their activities, grants are sanctioned by the Social Welfare Department every year.

The All-India Depressed Classes League, Nagpur and the Harijan Sewak Sangh in addition to various other organisations are the two important institutions which are doing propaganda and publicity work in connection with the removal of untouchability and welfare of scheduled castes.

ADMINISTRATION OF MANAGED ESTATES

MANAGED ESTATES.

The Court of Wards Act was originally intended to protect the interest of old families having large estates. The superintendence of estates thereafter was assumed only for the benefit of minors, lunatics and aged and infirm, widows and members of scheduled tribes, who were declared by the State Government to be incapable of managing their property.

Court of Wards Act.

In order to bring it in conformity with the provisions of the Constitution, the Court of Wards Act, 1899 was amended in August 1952.

The limit of landed property in respect of which the Court of Wards may assume superintendence has been proposed to be land assessed to land revenue of not less than Rs. 1,000 in the aggregate and the gross income from which land is not less than Rs. 25,000 per annum.

In Nagpur district, the Collector of Nagpur as the Court of Wards manages the estate taken over under the Court of Wards Act. A Deputy Collector acts as Officer-in-charge, Court of Wards, in addition to his own duties and supervises the work in that connection. There is no estate under the management of Nagpur Court of Wards under the Guardians and Wards Act.

Number of Estates under management.

Senior Bhosle Estate is the only estate at present in the district which is under the management of Court of Wards, Nagpur. The estate has been under the management of Court of Wards since 12th February 1925. It was taken under the management due to its heavy indebtedness. The total debt then amounted to Rs. 23,74,090. The debt at the end of 1959-60 stood at Rs. 2,21,255.56 which was to be paid to the State Government.

The estate was taken under the management of the Court of Wards, under section 6 of the C. P. Court of Wards Act, 1899 at the request of the proprietors.

In 1959-60, the total income of the estate was Rs. 2,22.627·16, the total expenditure Rs. 1,77,667·60, cost of establishment Rs. 9,548·72 and the net income Rs. 35,410·84.

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CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Bombay Public Trusts Act.

THE CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Prior to 1950, the Religious and Charitable Trusts in the State were governed under various enactments, Central as well as Provincial based on religion. In 1950, a composite legislation called the Bombay Public Trusts Act (XXIX of 1950) was passed, which can be made applicable to all public trusts without distinction of religion. This Act defines "Public Trust" as "an express or constructive trust for either a public, religious or charitable purpose or both, and includes a temple, a math, a wakf, a dharmadaya or any religious or charitable endowment and a society formed either for a religious or charitable purpose or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act (XXI of 1860)."

The State Government is empowered to apply this Act to any public trust or class of public trusts and on such application the provisions of previous Acts cease to apply to such trust or class of trusts. The Act was made applicable to the following classes of public trusts in the Old Bombay State with effect from January 21, 1952 and in the Marathwada and Vidarbha regions with effect from February 1, 1961:—

(1) temples;

(2) maths;

(3) wakfs;

(4) public trusts other than (1), (2) and (3) above, created or existing solely for the benefit of any community or communities or any section or sections thereof;

(5) societies formed either for religious or charitable purposes or for both registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860;

(6) dharmadayas, i.e., any amount which, according to the custom or usage or any business or trade or agreement between the parties relating to any transaction, are charged to any party to the transaction or collected under whatever name as being intended to be used for a charitable or religious purpose; and

(7) all other trusts, express or constructive, for either a public, religious or charitable purpose or for both.

The Act has not been made applicable to the charitable endowments vested in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments under provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act (VI of 1890).

The Charity Commissioner with headquarters at Bombay administers the Act. An Assistant Charity Commissioner has been appointed for Nagpur Region with jurisdiction over the districts of Nagpur, Chanda, Wardha and Bhandara. The Assistant Charity Commissioner is directly responsible to the Charity Commissioner.

Duties of Trustees.

The Act imposed a duty on the trustee of a public trust to which the Act has been applied to make an application for the registration of the trust within three months of the application

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CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Duties of Trustees.

of the Act or its creation, giving particulars specified in the Act, which include (a) the approximate value of moveable and immoveable property owned by the trust, (b) the gross average annual income of the trust property and (c) the amount of average annual expenditure of the trust. No registration is, however, necessary in the case of dharmadayas which are governed under special provisions of the Act in certain respects. Trusts registered under any of the previous Acts are deemed to be registered under this Act.

A registration fee ranging from Rs. 3 to Rs. 25 is levied depending upon the value of the property of the public trust. An annual contribution at the rate of 2 per cent of the gross annual income is also recovered which is credited to the Public Trusts Administration Fund created under the Act. The contribution does not form part of the general revenues of the State. Public Trusts exclusively for the purpose of advancement and propagation of secular education or medical relief and public trusts having gross annual income of Rs. 1,000 or less are exempted from the payment of contribution. Deduction from the gross annual income for computing contribution are allowed in respect of amounts spent on the advancement and propagation of secular education, medical relief, donations, grants received from Government or local authorities, interest on depreciation or sinking fund, taxes to be paid to Government or local authority, etc. The contribution is levied on the net annual profits in the case of public trusts conducting a business or trade.

Every trustee has to keep regular accounts of the trust which have to be audited annually by Chartered Accountants or persons authorised under the Act. A Chartered Accountant can audit accounts of any public trust but the persons authorised under the Act are permitted to audit accounts only of public trusts having a gross annual income of Rs. 3,000 or less. The auditor has to submit a report to the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner of his region on a number of points such as whether accounts are maintained according to law and regularly, whether an inventory has been maintained of the moveables of the public trust, whether any property or funds of the trust have been applied on an object or purpose not authorised by the trust, whether the funds of the trust have been invested or immoveable property alienated contrary to the provisions of the Act, etc.

If on a consideration of the report of the auditor or of a report, if any, made by an officer authorised under Section 37, the accounts and explanation, if any, furnished by the trust or any other person concerned, the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner is satisfied that the trustee or any other person has been guilty of gross negligence, breach of trust or misapplication or misconduct resulting in a loss to the trust, he has to report to the Charity Commissioner, who after due inquiry, determines the loss, if any, caused to the trust and surcharges the amount on the person found responsible for it. No sale, mortgage, exchange or gift of any immoveable property and no lease for a period exceeding ten years in the case of agricultural land and three years in case of

Duties of Trustees.

non-agricultural land or building belonging to the public trust is valid without the previous sanction of the Charity Commissioner. The trustee of a public trust is bound to invest the surplus funds of the trust in public securities or first mortgage of immoveable property on certain conditions. For making an investment in any other forms, the permission of the Charity Commissioner must be obtained.

Application of funds by Cypres.

If the original object of a public trust fails wholly or partially, if there is surplus income or balance not likely to be utilised, or in the case of a public trust, other than a trust for religious purpose if it is not in the public interest expedient, desirable, necessary or proper to carry out wholly or partially, the original intention of the author of the public trust or the object for which the public trust was created an application can be made to the District Court or the City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, for application cypres of the property, or income of the public trust or any of its portion.

If there is a breach of trust or a declaration is necessary that a particular property is the property of a public trust, or a direction is required to recover the possession of such property, or a direction is required for the administration of any public trust, two or more persons, having an interest in the trust or the Charity Commissioner, can file a suit in the District Court or the City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, obtain reliefs mentioned in the Act. If the Charity Commissioner refuses consent, an appeal lies to the Revenue Tribunal constituted under the Bombay Revenue Tribunal Act (XII of 1939). The Charity Commissioner can also file such a suit on his own motion.

Charity Commissioner to be sole Trustee if appointed as Trustee.

The Charity Commissioner may with his consent be appointed as a trustee of a public trust by a Court or by the author of a trust, provided his appointment is made as a sole trustee. The Court is however, not empowered to appoint the Charity Commissioner as a trustee of a religious public trust. In case when the Charity Commissioner is appointed as a trustee he may levy administrative charges on these trusts as prescribed in the Rules framed under the Act.

Inquiries by Assessors.

Inquiries regarding the registration of a public trust or regarding the loss caused to a public trust or public trusts registered under the previous Acts, in consequence of the act or conduct of a trustee or any other person, have to be conducted with the aid of assessors not less than three and not more than five in number. The assessors have to be selected, as far as possible, from the religious denomination of the public trust to which the inquiry relates. The presence of assessors can, however, be dispensed with in inquiries where there is no contest. A list of assessors has to be prepared and published in the official Gazette every three years. District-wise lists of assessors have already been prepared and published in the "Maharashtra Government Gazette".

Charitable Endowments.

The Charity Commissioner is deemed to be and to have always been the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments for the State of Maharashtra, appointed under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890. In the case of religious and charitable institutions and endowments which rest in or the management of which vests in the State Government, they are to be transferred and vested in the Committees of Management to be appointed by the State Government for each district and the endowment within the meaning and for the purposes of the Act. The Charity Commissioner is invested with power to inquire into the duties of these Committees and to direct expenses in respect thereof to be paid from the funds belonging to the Endowments.

Contraventions of the Act amount to offences and are punishable with maximum fine ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 depending on the nature of contravention. The Charity Commissioner is the sole authority for launching prosecutions in the case of such contraventions.

The following statement furnishes statistics relating to the public trusts from Nagpur district registered in the Public Trusts Registration Office, Nagpur Region, Nagpur till June 30, 1963.

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CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Statistics of Public Trusts.

TABLE No. 1

PUBLIC TRUSTS IN NAGPUR DISTRICT

Section	Total No. of trusts registered	Value of property [in Rs.]		Gross average annual income	Average annual expenditure
		Moveable	Immoveable		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
'A' (Trusts for the benefit of Hindus)	355	7,08,163·83	30,62,322·99	2,50,804·95	2,31,361·42
'B' (Trusts for the benefit of Muslims)	112	1,92,073·25	15,38,497·19	1,42,954·00	1,16,319·00
'C' (Trusts for the benefit of Parsees)	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
'D' (Trusts for the benefit of Christians)	1	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil
'E' (Trusts for the benefit of any particular community) ..	58	30,30,943·87	13,85,486·29	3,26,798·00	2,63,559·00
'F' (Trusts registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860)	574	72,80,602·66	1,02,29,027·15	91,61,447·49	86,61,872·79

CHAPTER 18—PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

CHAPTER 18.

Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

INTRODUCTION.

THE SIGNIFICANT FEATURE OF THE 20TH CENTURY socio-economic development is the emergence of numerous voluntary social service organisations, working side by side with the governmental institutions, for the uplift and benefit of various sections in the society. Such institutions, if not conspicuous by their absence, were very rare till the dawn of this century. With the advance of time, and development of culture and civilization, human life has become more complex, and inter-dependence of the individuals, within the social structure, has considerably increased. With social and economic planning to the fore modern states have entered into those fields in human life, which were in the days gone by, the privilege of the individuals to look after. But however great the resources of the state may be, the agencies of the state cannot burden themselves with the responsibilities that go along with multifarious aspects of social life. The individuals themselves with a view to attain the best in life, come together, and venture upon the accomplishments in educational, literary, philosophic and other activities, pertaining to the moral and material development of the human personality. The fields are distinct, and as such, the institutions. Such institutions which work in a selfless manner, are in the nature of a compromise with the machinery of the government. Naturally, interference on the part of government is neither desired nor tolerated. It would be interesting to note that the voluntary efforts of these agencies succeed where the mighty efforts of the government fail to elicit any result.

Since Independence, our Government has placed before itself the goal of a welfare state and has been gradually taking over all kinds of public activities. It cannot, however, cover all the sectors and all the sections of the society but leave very much to these organisations to promote welfare of those who do not come under the scope of its activities.

Of late, a large number of social organisations have come into existence in Nagpur district. Most of them, however, suffer from certain shortcomings. In the first instance, they are not distributed evenly over the whole district but have conglomerated themselves in towns, particularly in Nagpur city. This uneven distribution is the result partly of a lack of initiative among local residents of the rural areas and partly of their apathy to form their own organisations. Secondly, it appears that these organisations have not yet encompassed the members of agricultural and industrial communities. A large number of members from these organisations were either found to have held white-collared jobs or to have come from business sections of the society. Finally,

CHAPTER 18.

Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

most of these organisations fail to raise adequate funds to function properly. If substantial assistance in the form of grants and subsidies is given to these social organisations they would certainly look forward to a bright future.

PUBLIC LIFE.

While the activities of a number of voluntary and social organisations are conducive to the general welfare of the people, the Press is ever on the guard to influence the course of public life by keeping awake the interest of the common man. The Press is a powerful weapon which responds readily to public opinion. For, the Press can form and educate public opinion, and arouse political-consciousness among people. The Press, in fact, is so important from the point of view of society that it has rightly been called the "Fourth Estate".

Of the leading publications in the district, the *Hitavada* and the *Nagpur Times*, both of which are published in English, are most important. The former, which can be said to be the oldest daily of Nagpur, was started in 1911. The latter was started in 1933. Both the dailies have wide circulation in Nagpur district and outside. There are other well-known Hindi and Marathi dailies as well. The *Navbharat Times* (1934)* and the *Yugdharma* (1951) are published in Hindi; whereas the *Maharashtra* (1914), the *Tarun Bharat* (1944), the *Maratha* (1956), the *Nagpur Samachar*, the *Sudarshana* and the *Jay Vidarbha* are published in Marathi.

Besides dailies, a number of weeklies and bi-weeklies are also published in English, Marathi and Hindi. Of these, the *Manwantar*, the *Navbharat* and the *Chavhata*—all published in Marathi—are very popular among the people.

Magazines also form an important section of the Nagpur periodicals. Nearly thirty magazines are brought out every month in English, Marathi and Hindi from Nagpur. The monthlies have diverse interests ranging from literature to social life. Quite a large number are also devoted to legal topics. The All India Criminal Decisions, the All India Law Reporter, the Criminal Law Journal, the Dominion Law Reporter and the Nagpur Law Journal may be mentioned among the important ones.

A subject-wise break-up of all the important magazines which are current in Nagpur district is given below:—

Literature—*Sushama, Yugvani* (Marathi); *Arti, Rekha* (Hindi).

Philosophy—*Jivan-Vikas* (Marathi).

Religion—*Warkari* (Marathi); *Abhisevak* (Hindi).

Social Life—*Kutumb Niyojan* (Family-Planning) Marathi.

Miscellaneous—*Bagayat* (Gardening).

*The figures enclosed in parentheses denote the year when the paper was started in the district.

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Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Andha Vidyalaya, Nagpur.

The school for the blind was established on 19th August 1928. It was the only one of its kind in the former State of Madhya Pradesh. The school was established with a view to imparting instruction to the blind in the knowledge of letters and in various arts which they could easily pick up. The school admits blind children between the ages of nine and sixteen, and provides free boarding, lodging and educational facilities. Since January 1957 the school has started providing accommodation to blind girls as well. There were about 13 blind girls in the school in 1963. For the purpose of imparting knowledge of various crafts the school has a separate branch. The school has a building of its own, built in 1935 out of the funds received from many philanthropists and from Government grants. The school receives annually from the Central Social Welfare Board an amount of Rs. 15,000 meant for the girl inmates of the school. The management of the school is looked after by a President, a Vice-President and a Treasurer.

Anath Vidyarthi Griha, Nagpur.

This institution, established in the year 1922, started functioning in Mohite Wada but later on it was given a piece of land measuring 2.023 hectares (5 acres) by the municipal corporation in Bagad Gadhi. On this piece of land, stands today the building of the Anath Vidyarthi Griha. The object of this institution is to help the poor, the needy and the down-trodden children in furthering their educational careers, thereby turning out of such students excellent citizens. The institution not only aims at the intellectual and physical development of its inmates but also gives them instructions in such crafts and industries so as to make themselves reliant. The institution provides education up to the secondary level. The poor students are provided with free boarding and lodging facilities. The institution which started with barely 5 students now boasts of hundreds who have taken the benefits of the facilities afforded by it. The institution prides in its office-bearers who were formerly the inmates of the institution itself. The Vidyarthigriha is named after the late Shri Vinayakrao Deshmukh, in whose memory, his son Dr. Gopalrao Deshmukh donated a sum of Rs. 13,000. The institution runs a stationery shop and an industrial house and owns about 16.187 hectares (40 acres) of land from which agricultural produce valued at about one thousand rupees augments the funds of the institution. The office-bearers of the Anath Vidyarthi Griha include a President, a Vice-President, a Treasurer and an Administrator.

Bharat Sevak Samaj, Nagpur.

The branch of the Bharat Sevak Samaj was established in Nagpur in the August of 1952 with the establishment of Bharat Sevak Samaj on an all-India basis. Within the jurisdiction of this branch at Nagpur fall the districts of Nagpur, Wardha, Bhandara and Chanda. The Samaj has under its jurisdiction about 200 workers who undertake social activities. The membership of the Samaj in Nagpur city is about 500. The Samaj participates in activities, such as, publicity to the five-year plans, organisation of various development projects, help to the distressed, grow-more-food campaigns, development of handicrafts and

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Bharat Sevak Samaj, Nagpur.

cottage industries, welfare of women and children, youth organisation, education, production, co-operation, etc. The Samaj organises exhibitions in regard to five-year plans, home and cottage industries and national development schemes. On Gandhi Jayanti day it also undertakes clean-village campaigns with a view to protecting social hygiene. To help the patients suffering from T. B. the Nagpur branch has inaugurated a novel scheme for their resettlement in life. The Samaj also operates various education centres for educating the adults. In order to make available monetary benefits to women belonging to middle class families, the Samaj runs a handicrafts centre. The Samaj conducts more than 15 Balak Mandirs. Every year the Samaj conducts a social service camp. So far more than 5,000 children and 500 youths have taken advantage of such camps. The special features of the Nagpur branch of Bharat Sevak Samaj are (1) the opening of hostels for students where free accommodation is provided to students, and (2) operation of a Government remand home under the management of the Samaj. The Samaj also aims at abolition of prostitution in years to come and has formulated plans towards the achievement of that goal.

Bhagini Mandal, Nagpur.

The Bhagini Mandal is one of the prominent institutions of Nagpur. It was started in September 1920. It devoted itself to the singular aim of attaining all-round progress of women and children in Nagpur city. This was to be realised by adopting the following means—

(1) to conduct a library and a reading-room for women;
(2) to conduct classes for technical and arts education;
(3) to arrange lectures, debates and discussions and organise exhibitions, gatherings and meetings;
(4) to propagate literacy and education among the backward class people;
(5) to conduct library and school and the "Balak Mandir" for children;
(6) to celebrate days of national importance;
(7) to run a shop and a technical school on co-operative lines;
(8) to help orphanages and such other institutions.

The affairs of the Mandal are managed by an executive board or council of 15 members. They include the Chairman, the Deputy Chairman, the Secretary, the Assistant Secretary and eleven other members. The executive council meets generally in the beginning of every month; whereas the general meeting of all the members is held in January every year. The following items constitute its agenda:—

(1) to discuss in detail and sanction the last year's balance sheet, (2) to present annual working report of the Mandal before the executive body.

The Mandal today works in a spacious building standing on the North Ambazari Road. It has, besides this building, another one built specially for children. Other assets of the Mandal such as furniture, utensils, etc., are worth Rs. 8,000.

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Bhagini Mandal.

The annual average expenditure of the Mandal comes to Rs. 10,000 which is met from contributions from members and others and from grants received from the Social Welfare Board. The Social Welfare Board granted Rs. 800 in 1957 and Rs. 1,000 in 1957-58 and in 1959-60. The Mandal, however, receives large amounts, through private donations. In 1959-60, it received donations to the extent of Rs. 4,420.25.

The Bhagini Mandal has so far played a prominent role in the field of female education. Its work constitutes the following:—

(1) *Reading-room and library.*—It was started in 1933. Today, there are over 6,000 books in this library in Marathi, Hindi and English. Books can be read in the reading-room or can be taken home on deposit basis. Side by side a small reading-room exclusively for the use of children has been opened since 1955. Similar small libraries were started at 13 other centres in Nagpur city such as Dhantoli, Sitabuldi, Ramdas Peth, Darampeth, etc.

(2) *Bal Mandir.*—Established in 1939, it could be said to be the first of its kind in Nagpur city. It was later on recognised by the Government. This institute is run as per the policy of and in co-operation with the "Nutan Balshikshan Sangh" of Bombay. In 1960 there were 96 students attending the school. Since 1958, the *Sharadotsava* and gathering are also performed by the school boys.

(3) *Udyog Mandir.*—Since 1954, the Bhagini Mandal has started the Udyog Mandir with the help of a liberal donation of Rs. 5,000 received from the residents of Nagpur city. Here classes are run to train girls and women in domestic science.

(4) *Cultural Programmes.*—The Mandal arranges cultural programmes from time to time. Lectures, discussions, *kirtans*, *bhajans*, dramatics, etc., are some of the important highlights of them. They are staged for the recreation of and instructions to the members of the Mandal. Days of national importance, too, are celebrated in grandiloquent manner. *Vasantotsava*, *haladi kumkum*, birthdays, gatherings and many such occasions are also celebrated by the Mandal.

In 1961, the Bhagini Mandal had 280 members. Since its inception it has made a remarkable progress.

Bhosle Muk Vidyalaya, Nagpur.

The Bhosle School for the Dumb was established on 1st August 1915. The aim of the school is to impart useful education to the deaf and the dumb and make them semi-independent. With this view the school provides facilities in painting, cane-work, tailoring, etc. More than 200 boys have so far taken advantage of the facilities provided by the school. The school has a residency of its own and a building on the North Ambazari Road on a spacious piece of land.

Bhosle Vedshastra Mahavidyalaya.

This Mahavidyalaya was established in December, 1879. The principal aim of this institution is to propagate Vedic and Sanskrit languages and create a liking for them among the people. In addition to the Mahavidyalaya in Nagpur, the society also

conducts similar institutions in other parts of the country. For deserving students the society grants scholarship, arranges for their examination, prepares them for higher examinations conducted by Bangiya Sanskrit Shiksha Parishad and such other institutions for oriental studies. The society provides free lodging facilities to poor students. The institution has a library of its own which contains more than 5,000 valuable and rare books. The institution celebrates every year *Gita Jayanti, Sharadotsava* and other religious festivals.

Bhosle Vedshastra Mahavidyalaya.

Ganesh Vyayam Seva Mandal.

The Ganesh Vyayam Seva Mandal is one of those prominent institutions of Nagpur that have been established with the sole ambition of inculcating among the youths a liking for games and gymnastic exercises. The Mandal was started on 1st January 1940. In 1961, 55 members were regularly attending the training given in the Vyayamshala. The Vyayamshala is housed in an old structure. A new building to accommodate a larger number of members is being constructed. The total value of the assets of the Mandal, including its present building and the accessories of games, is about Rs. 5,000. The annual income of the Mandal was Rs. 2,563 during 1961-62. This amount was received mostly from subscriptions and fees from members of the Mandal, although Rs. 674 were received from the Social Welfare Department and Rs. 200 from the Nagpur Municipal Corporation. Its expenditure amounted to Rs. 3,556.61 during the same year.

The institution is making progress gradually. The institution, however, has no playground of its own.

Gokulpeth Sarvajanik Sudhar Sanstha, Nagpur.

This institution was established in 1956 and was, in the first instance, meant to look after and improve the condition of the Hanuman temple in Gokul Peth. It also intended to celebrate religious and social occasions. In addition, the institution (i) looks after the management of a gymnasium, (ii) conducts a library, (iii) assists poor and helpless students, (iv) helps maintain sanitary conditions and (v) encourages social education.

The management of the temple as well as of the "arena" is entrusted to the working committee which is an elected body. The latter comprises a chairman, a deputy chairman, a secretary, two assistant secretaries and eight members. The Committee is to meet at least once n a month. In 1961, the institution had 250 members.

The assets of the institution were worth Rs. 13,000 in 1961-62. The institution owns two temples and a well-equipped gymnasium. The latter was started in 1957. The total annual income of this institution was Rs. 2,000 in 1961-62, while its expenditure during the same year amounted to Rs. 2,500.

The institution, however, gets financial assistance both from the Social Welfare Board of the Government of Maharashtra and the Nagpur Corporation. A number of books and newspapers are also received by the library from foreign embassies in India. The institution now intends to conduct night classes for the spread of literacy among illiterates and to start a free dispensary for poor patients.

Gondwana Club, Nagpur.

The Gondwana Club was started in 1936, with the object of providing amenities of games and library to the people of Nagpur. Equipment for playing cards, carrom, billiards, badminton, table tennis, lawn tennis, swimming and squash are provided by the Club.

In 1961, the Gondwana Club had 110 members. Membership is restricted to Indians. The signatories to the Memorandum of the Association are entitled to the membership on payment of the prescribed entrance fees. Any other candidate for election as a member must be proposed by one member and seconded by another. But the proposal has to be unanimously approved of by the managing committee. The entrance fee is Rs. 50 for men and Rs. 25 for women. For resident members the monthly subscriptions are—

(1) for single members—Rs. 12,

(2) for married members—Rs. 15,

(3) for every additional lady of the family who attends the club—Rs. 3. For temporary members the rates are higher.

The affairs of the club are managed by a committee of five members, called the Managing Committee, which is elected at the annual general meeting. The control of the funds and the entire management of the club are entrusted to the Managing Committee which ordinarily meets once a month for the examination of accounts and for the transaction of general business.

The Managing Committee itself appoints two of its members as President and Honorary Secretary, respectively.

The Honorary Secretary is the chief executive officer of the Club and also the treasurer. He collects the subscriptions and other amounts due to the Club and makes all ordinary payments; but all expenditure of an extraordinary nature is referred to and approved of by the Managing Committee.

A general meeting of all members is held once every year in the month of February to receive the report of the Managing Committee and statement of accounts for the preceding calendar year and to elect a new Managing Committee and transact such other business as may be brought before it. The President of the Managing Committee presides as Chairman at every general meeting of the Club.

The Gondwana Club owns considerably large property worth over Rs. 1,00,000. It includes the large building of the club of the value of Rs. 64,750, furniture and fixtures, electric installation, tennis court, crockery, library, stage, swimming pool, pumping sets, etc. The assets of the club comprising stock-in-hand, provident fund investments, membership dues, advances paid, cash and bank balances were worth over Rs. 26,022 in 1958.

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The income of the Gondwana Club during 1961-62 was Rs. 35,500. This was composed mainly of the subscription funds collected from its members. The expenditure of the club during the same year amounted to Rs. 35,000. The financial position of the club is quite sound.

Gondwana Club, Nagpur.

The Gondwana Club is one of the biggest well-organised clubs in Nagpur.

Grihini Samaj.

Grihini Samaj is a registered institution established in 1944. Its aim is to develop mutual friendship and love amongst women staying nearabout Ramdas Peth. A Montessori school is also conducted on behalf of the institution. The Samaj has kept a storage of consumer goods required for day-to-day needs of the household and they are provided to poor and needy families when necessary. Facilities for training in library science, sewing and embroidery are also provided for.

Ideal Education Society, Umrer.

The Ideal Education Society was established at Umrer on 13th October 1936. In the preamble of its constitution the object of the Society is stated thus: to impart education of all kinds, from the elementary stage to the highest standard, to the people of Umrer tahsil by establishing schools and other institutions at different places in the tahsil. The policy of the Society is to keep itself above party politics so far as the conduct of its affairs is concerned and render faithful service to the people without distinction as to caste, community or creed.

The affairs of the Society are managed by the governing body which consists of a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, a Joint-Secretary, a Treasurer and other members of the Society. There are at present 19 members in the Society including six women. The governing body is aided and advised in respect of female education, by a Sub-committee consisting mostly of women and decisions taken by it are binding on the governing body. The members of the Sub-committee are nominated for a term of five years by the governing body.

At present the Society runs a high school for boys, a middle school for girls, a primary school for young boys and a Montessori school for children. The total assets of the Society including the school buildings are of the value of Rs. 1,01,000, while its annual income is about Rs. 1,23,000. In 1961, the Society received in all Rs. 42,138 as grant-in-aid from the State Government. It also received Rs. 100 for its girls section from the Umrer Municipality and Rs. 2,900 for its Montessori classes from the Central Social Welfare Board, New Delhi.

Besides imparting education to the boys and girls, the Society encourages them to participate in cultural and other extra-curricular activities.

Kala-Kunj.

The Kala-Kunj, a registered institution, was founded in 1955. The institution imparts training in Indian classical music to women. The training classes are conducted in the University Building. In order to encourage the art of dancing, famous dancers are invited to stage their programmes.

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Mohpa Education Society.

This organisation made its beginning by starting a night class where instruction in reading and writing was provided for adults who could not get it otherwise. Slowly this small class grew into a big educational institution with many self-sacrificing, devoted and ambitious workers at its back. The activities of this society embrace a very wide field today but chiefly it had the following aspects to begin with:—

(I) (1) Organising a regular English School.

(2) Organising night classes in various parts of Mohpa and surrounding villages of Khumri and Pipla where adults could get educational facilities.

(3) Organising a library which would create a taste for reading books and newspapers to instil the spirit of nationalism amongst the people.

(4) Starting primary schools for girls.

(II) Social service by starting a dispensary for needy patients.

(III) Development of physical culture by opening gymnasiums.

(IV) Uplift of Harijans.

(V) Helping and fostering the growth of indigenous industries.

The Society became successful in achieving all its aims mainly with the help of people who took great interest in its activities and made great sacrifices. Accordingly, a school was founded, and night classes, too, were organised. In 1913, the Society took keen interest in the female education and founded a girls' primary school. It was handed over to the Government after 5 years.

Some members of the Society started a dispensary and gave medical help to the needy patients. In times of epidemics the members of the Society attend upon the victims and render them all possible help.

In those days, Mohpa was famous for its love of athletics. This love for physical culture was further developed by starting an *Akhada* on modern style where young men and boys were trained in wrestling, *malkhamb, lezim, lathi,* etc.

The members of the Society also take leading part in doing service to the Harijans. They encourage the Harijans to join the school. The chief role played by them, however, is in regard to the indigenous industries. In the beginning of this century, swadeshi cloth and other swadeshi articles were very scarce. The spirit of nationalism gave the weavers of this place a great impetus for making cloth. They were supplied yarn. The members of the Society took considerable interest in this movement and encouraged it.

Taking into consideration the pressing needs of the rural areas and an increased demand from the people the Society decided to open two high schools in 1963 at Pipla and Kohli, respectively, and a separate high school for girls. The Society intends to impart instruction in the science of agriculture in its high school classes and develop this into a multi-purpose high school.

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Sangam Kala Mandir.

It is a registered institution where women receive technical education through the Directorate of Technical Education of the Maharashtra State. The institution was established in 1951. Its object is to impart training to women in sewing, embroidery, etc. Facilities to train women who want to appear for S.S.C. Examination by offering art-needle work and home science as optional subjects, are also extended. These classes are conducted at various places in Nagpur city. Widows, forsaken and poor ladies are not charged any fees. The institution receives financial grants both from the Social Welfare Section and the Central Social Welfare Board.

Sanskrit Bhasha Pracharini Sabha.

It was started on 20th November, 1950, with the object of propagating the study of Sanskrit language. To secure this, a school known as Kinkhede Sanskrit Vidyalaya is run and students are taught and trained for Sanskrit examinations. It also issues a Sanskrit weekly, the *Bhavitavyam*. Besides, lectures by learned scholars are often arranged to encourage students to study the Sanskrit language.

Seva Niketan

The establishment of Seva Niketan on 13th June 1959 came as a boon to hundreds of illiterate people in the Panchpaoli area of Nagpur city. This was because its primary aim was to spread literacy among the people and educate them. True to its name, however, Seva Niketan also renders yeoman service to all those who are physically handicapped and involuntarily unemployed and helps thereby to augment social welfare.

In 1960-61, the Niketan had fifteen members. They included the chairman, the deputy chairman and the treasury officer who together constituted the working committee of the institution. Members of this committee are elected through the ballot system by all the members of the Niketan and work for a year round when a fresh election takes place.

Meeting of the members of the working committee is held once a month at least, while meeting of all the members of the institution is called for every year, generally in April. Main agenda of the meeting includes presentation of the annual report of the institution and discussion over its annual balance sheet. The functions of the Committee are to appoint a new auditor, to sanction the last year's report and finally to prepare budget for the ensuing year.

The work of the Seva Niketan embraces multifarious fields of activity. Important among them is its library, known as 'Dnyan Sangraha'. The other is 'Krida Mandal' or sports club. Both the library and the sports club have attained a considerable measure of progress. The library contains about 600 books and has 50 members. The sports club, too, is well-equipped and is attended by an increasing number of people.

Shri Lakhmaji Vyayamshala.

This gymnasium is situated in the Maskasath-Itwari area of the Nagpur city. It was started about hundred and fifty years ago but was registered only in 1949. Since its establishment the gymnasium has undertaken to coach young men in physical

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Shri Lakhmaji Vyayamshala.

exercises and produce gymnasts and wrestlers of repute. Besides, it also works for popularising Indian games. This is accomplished by organising exhibitions and general lectures and by carrying on propaganda through Press. Obviously, the activities of the gymnasium are not confined merely to the indoor training of the wrestlers but extend to the encouragement of outdoor games and even participating in all sorts of cultural programmes such as gatherings, celebration of the days of national importance, etc.

The gymnasium is run on the contributions received from its members in addition to the grant-in-aid from the Government. In 1961-62, its income by way of private contributions amounted to Rs. 3,953.97, while its expenditure was Rs. 4,014.84. During the same year it received Rs. 1,000 as grant-in-aid from the Maharashtra State.

Shri Ramkrishna Ashram.

Shri Ramkrishna Ashram founded first at Belormath near Calcutta has its branch at Nagpur since 1928. Its aim is to render service to mankind with no bars of race, religion or nationality.

The Ashram is housed in a spacious building at Dhantoli in Nagpur. Besides this Ashram, a hostel known as "Vivekanand Vidyarthi Bhavan", a free dispensary and a library are situated in the same building. The Ashram has its own publishing section which has so far brought out more than 75 books in Hindi and in Marathi on the lives of Ramkrishna, Vivekananda and those pertaining to religion and culture. A monthly magazine, the *Jeevan-Vikas*, is also run by it.

Amongst the other activities of the Ashram may be mentioned the celebrations of the birth and death anniversaries of saints and nation builders or leaders, arranging speeches on cultural and religious subjects and conducting a study circle with a view to acquire knowledge on religious subjects.

Swami Shraddhanand Anathalaya.

The Anathalaya was established on 1st February, 1927, by prominent social workers in Nagpur in memory of Swami Shraddhanand, one of the greatest patriots and social workers of India. In the same year the Anathalaya received a gift of about 2.023 hectares (5 acres) of land on which stands the building of the Anathalaya.

The aim of the institution is to give shelter to helpless and destitute women and work for their uplift. The institution also supports the forsaken children and provides for their upbringing and education. For the achievements of its objectives the institution arranges for the maintenance of its inmates, for the marriages of destitute ladies and widows and for training them in such arts as tailoring, weaving, etc. In the realisation of these objectives the institution receives material help from concerned Government departments. The institution conducts a *Balak Mandir* for providing education to children. Due to the activities of the institution aimed at social uplift of the downtrodden, the institution receives handsome donations from the citizens of Nagpur. The institution has for its office-bearers a president, a vice-president, and a treasurer.

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Vanita Vikas Griha.

The Vanita Vikas Griha was started as a part of the social, cultural and religious programme under the Second Five-Year Plan of the State. It was inaugurated on 7th December 1957. Its main object is to provide shelter to those women who are either deserted, widows or virgin mothers or destitutes and who seek an honourable way of life. It also extends them facilities to learn such arts as sewing, stitching, weaving, etc., so that they afterwards can earn their livelihood independently. Besides, they are given proper instruction to attain their moral and physical development. The Griha looks forward to rehabilitate these women, wherever possible, by getting them married to suitable persons and making their lives happy.

In 1962, there were in all 54 women, who were residing in the Vanita Griha. The Griha is conducted on behalf of the Nagpur City Women's Conference.

Vidarbha Harijan Sevak Sangh.

The Vidarbha Harijan Sevak Sangh was organised in 1933 with a view to removing untouchability. It also engages itself in bringing about progress of Harijans in economic, social and educational fields. The Sangh works as a branch of the All-India Harijan Sevak Sangh. In 1961, thirteen persons had registered for its membership. The Maharashtra State Welfare Board grants 90 per cent of the expenditure for propaganda purposes. The remaining 10 per cent of its expenditure is met by collecting contributions from gram panchayats and local bodies. During 1961-62 the Sangh received from the Maharashtra Government Rs. 34,922.35 as grant-in-aid for the removal of untouchability and Rs. 5,442 for providing hostel accommodation to Harijan students. In addition, it also received Rs. 9,221.25 as subscriptions and donations from various public and local bodies, so also from other Harijan Sevak Sanghs. The Sangh tried to establish harmonious relations between Harijans and others. Its work consisted chiefly of keeping open for Harijans all the public places such as wells, tanks, temples, hotels and shops that were formerly reserved for other communities and castes. The Sangh also assists Harijan students with clothes, slates, books, etc., and in some cases with finances. In addition, it undertakes to construct new wells or to repair old ones for Harijans.

Vidarbha Hindi Sahitya Sammelan.

The Vidarbha Hindi Sahitya Sammelan which was formerly known as the Madhya Pradesh Hindi Sahitya Sammelan was established in 1918, and worked for the whole of Madhya Pradesh. After the reorganisation of the States the activities of the Sammelan were limited to the eight districts of Vidarbha, on account of which it was named as the Vidarbha Sahitya Sammelan.

The aim of the Sammelan is to bring about an all-round progress of Hindi and spread it all over the country. In order to secure this aim efforts are made for proper organisation, publication and propaganda of Hindi literature. The Sammelan has now built its own building in which a spacious hall and a stage have also been constructed.

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Vidarbha Sahitya Sangh.

The Vidarbha Sahitya Sangh is a prominent literary and cultural organisation in Vidarbha. It was established on 13th January 1923 at Amravati. Later (i.e., in 1956) its office was shifted to Nagpur.

The object of the Sangh is to bring about an all-round progress of the Marathi language and literature, and cultivate literary tastes in society. The Sangh also encourages writers to bring forth new literature. In order to achieve this object it organises *Sahitya Sammelans*, discussions, and speeches of prominent writers and engages itself in a number of other activities such as conducting a library, publishing magazine (at present it publishes a magazine known as the *Yugwani*), holding certificate examinations in Marathi for students in the Vidarbha region, etc. Its cultural activities include staging of dramas and honour well-known playwrights on behalf of its cultural committee.

The Sahitya Sangh is housed in a big building standing on the Ambazari Road. A new theatre and a spacious hall have occupied a part of this building. Today the Sangh has spread its activities all over Vidarbha and has branches in almost all the important places in Vidarbha region.

Vidarbha Sanshodhan Mandal.

This is an old research institution established in January 1934. Its object is to conduct research in classical literature, to collect material for such research and to publish literature on that basis. It also organises lectures and meetings. The Mandal has got its own valuable library in the Vidarbha Sahitya Mandir and on its behalf it has brought out a number of useful books.

CHAPTER 19—PLACES

Adāsā IS A SMALL VILLAGE IN THE SĀONER TAHSĪL 37 km. (23 miles) north-west of Nāgpūr, with a population of 316 persons as per 1961 Census. The village contains five old temples. In the temple of Gaṇapati the image is carved in a single stone so set up that worshippers may walk round it. On a hill near the village is a temple of Mahādev with three *liṅgs* which are believed to be *Svayambhu*. There are also two tanks built by members of the Bhosle family. Religious fairs are held here in November and January. But in January a much bigger congregation of about 5,000 to 10,000 people coming from the surrounding villages and neighbouring *tahsīls* like Nāgpūr gathers to pay homage to the God. The village formerly was the property of some *Gosāvis* who used to look after the management of the temples. The village has a primary school, a branch post office, a small library with a reading-room and has a *grāmpañcāyat*. Under the rural electrification programme it has been supplied with electricity and a few progressive cultivators have installed electric pumps for irrigation.

Gaṇapati Temple.—This magnificent temple of Lord Gaṇapati is reported to belong to ancient times. It is situated in the village of Adāsā at a distance of 4.827 km. (three miles) from Dhāpevāḍā and 14.484 km. (nine miles) from Kaḷameśvar. The temple is in the midst of fields with a beautiful lake nearby, on the top of a little projection of a mountain hill. One has to climb a number of steps to reach at the top where the temple is situated.

The building of the temple is splendid and towering, built in *Hemāḍpanti* style. The structure is extraordinarily strong and is a solid work in masonry having beautiful carvings. It would not be an exaggeration to say that the temple symbolises a specimen of a high level of architectural and sculptural skill attained by the people of the days gone by. The temple stands almost alone defying the decadent times after the fashion of the imposing Egyptian Pyramids.

It is said that the image seen today in this temple is one of those twelve Gaṇapatis described in the *Gaṇeśpurāṇa*. It was formerly of the size of the toe of Vāman, the incarnation of Lord Viṣṇu. The idol of Gaṇapati is said to be *Svayambhu* with His trunk turned to the right. It is very huge and majestic in appearance. The part below the navel is buried in the ground and the part above is of a height of about 6 metres (20 feet), the breadth being over 3 metres (10 feet). A permanent ladder has been fixed to perform the everyday *pujā*. The idol is so huge and tremendous that a visitor is first taken aback but on closer examination is reassured by the amiable looks of the Lord. The

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ADASA.

Gabhara measures 20.903 m² (15′ × 15′). It is believed that there is a secret cellar under the idol. On *Pauṣa Vadya Caturthī* and *Māgh Suddha Caturthi*, respectively, two big fairs are held when innumerable people gather, from and around the villages, to pay their homage to Lord Gajanan. It is said to be a *Jagṛt Daivata*. There is a *Tirthkuṇḍa* and a well, in front of the temple, with steps leading down to the water.

A legend goes that when Lakṣmaṇ was struck a mortal blow by Indrajit, the son of Ravaṇ, in the celebrated war that took place between Ram and Ravaṇ, Hanuman had to fly to the mountain Māndhar to get a medicinal herb. Being at a loss to understand which particular herb it was, he carried the mountain on his shoulders. On the way a substantial portion of it fell down which forms the modern Adāsā. It is said that the temple was there right from the beginning.

The temple is little away from the village at an extremely quiet and undisturbed spot. The mirror-like lake and the fields around when sown add charm and glory which heighten the beauty and splendour of the temple. At the time of the harvest the air is redolent of the corn which enlivens and delights the visitor.

Mahādev Temple.—A few steps away from the Gaṇapati *Mandir*, on the same hillock is the temple of Mahādev. It is also as old as the Gaṇapati temple. The temple is a round building in *Hemaḍpanti* style. The temple depicts a fine piece of architecture. Many beautiful creepers and charming flowers are to be seen engraved on the doors and pillars. Every piece of architecture is a model by itself.

The *Gabhara* measures 9.290 m² (10′ × 10′) in the centre of which is placed the *Liṅg*.

In front of the temple, in the open, are innumerable small and big images, some of which are broken now. Among the prominent images are *Gadādhari* Hanuman, the faithful devotee of Rām, which is 4.572 metres (fifteen feet) tall. To the left of Hanumān is the image of *Devi* of the same height holding in one of her hands a severed head of a gigantic demon, in the second a *Sudarśan cakra*, the third a hooded cobra, the fourth a *ḍamru*, the fifth a *triśuḷ* and various other weapons in the remaining three hands. The image is wearing carrings of uncommon size. Exactly opposite Hanuman and facing it is the image of Garuḍa, the carrier of Lord Viṣṇu and is equipped with weapons in the same manner as the Devī. These three idols are of equal size. At the back of the Devī are the images of 4 huge hooded cobras. Just by the side of it is a big cupboard of stone. There are other numerous images which depict the war of supremacy between the Gods and the Demons. The images and other objects which are to be seen there look so natural that one marvels at the unequalled skill and carries away the impression that the work is superhuman. People from far and wide visit the place to have a look at the imposing images and go away with a word of admiration for the unknown architect whose work it is.

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AMBHORA.

Āmbhorā : A small village (population 264) in the Umreḍ *tahsīl*, 59.54 kilometres (37 miles) east by south of Nāgpūr on the Vaingaṅga river bordering Bhaṇḍārā district. In the village on a hillock there is a well-known temple of Caitanyeśvar and the tomb of a Hindu saint Harihar *Svāmi*. Three religious fairs are held here every year and are attended by people from Nāgpūr and Bhaṇḍara districts. On another hillock there is a temple of the demon Kāḷasur. The village is a mere strip of land on the river bank and the cultivators retail their produce to the pilgrims. The proprietor of this village was a Marāṭhā Brahmin who had established some fisheries by ancient custom. This village is the meeting place of three rivers, *viz.*, Vaingaṅgā, Kanhān and Āmb and hence the place is known as a *triveṇi saṅgam*.

BADEGANV.

Bāḍegāṅv is a large and fertile village in Sāoner *tahsīl*, lying 8.0467 km. (five miles) north of Khāpā and 40.2336 km. (25 miles) from Nāgpūr. In 1961 the population of the village was 1,541. It has a fine temple of Viṭṭhal Rakhumāi. The village has a primary school.

BELA.

Belā : A big village in the Umreḍ *tahsīl*, about 17.70 km. (11 miles) from Borī station on the Central Railway line and on the Vunnā river. The village has a population of 5,387 according to 1961 Census. The village contains a temple of Dattātraya, which is much venerated by the people. On the festival of *Datta Jayanti* in November, the idol of the god is taken round the village on a wooden horse and chariot with music and occasionally with a display of fireworks. A fair known as *Ghoḍā* fair is held in connection with the festival and the attendance is about 10,000. Large numbers of *reṅgis* or light carts for trotting bullocks and all types of agricultural implements, furniture and toys are brought for sale. Most of the people attend the fair to purchase agricultural implements. The village has a number of betel-vine gardens and was formerly well-known for the blankets and *nevār* tape made here. This industry is almost extinct now. A considerable weekly market is held on Saturdays. The main vegetable fruits produced in the village are onions, musk-melons and pumpkins. Belā has a primary school, middle school and a police station

BELONA.

Belonā : A large agricultural village of the Kaṭol *tahsīl*, lying between Nārkheḍ and Movāḍ, in the north-west corner of the district, 91.73 km. (57 miles) from Nāgpūr on Nārkheḍ-Movāḍ road. Its population as per 1961 Census is 3,662. The cultivating castes are principally *Māḷis* and *Kuṇbis*. There is also a considerable industrial community of *Koṣṭis*, *Telis* and *Mahārs*. The *Mahārs* weave coarse carpets (*tadhāvs*) and blankets (*Kāmbaḷs*). Belonā has a middle school, a primary school and a post office. It comes under the administrative sphere of the *Grāmpañcāyat*.

BHIVAKUND.

Bhivakuṇḍ : A small village (population 147) in Umreḍ *tahsīl*, 35.40 km. (22 miles) north-east of Umreḍ. There are three caves here and the local story goes that the Pāṇḍav brothers dwelt in them for twelve years of their exile. In one of the caves are six shapeless images, which are supposed to represent the Pāṇḍav

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brothers and their mother Kunti. Bhivakuṇḍ is a corruption of Bhimkuṇḍ (Bhīma's pool), Bhīma being the second Pāṇḍav. The same name is found elsewhere, no doubt with the same story attached to it. There is a fine tank at the foot of the hill. The village like other villages is mainly agricultural.

BHIVAGAḌ.

Bhivagaḍ : A small village in the Rāmṭek *tahsīl*, 28.969 km. (18 miles) north of Nagpūr on the bank of the river Peñc. A hill by the village contains the remains of an old fort, its summit being encircled with walls made of ponderous masses of rock. The lines of defence over the pathway leading up the hillside are constructed with some skill and are attributed by the people to the *Gavaḷis*. There is a temple dedicated to Bhimsen. Nearby there is a well, which is 3.048 metres (10 ft.) deep and 3.048 metres (10 ft.) wide. Though the well is so shallow, surprisingly enough it does not dry up. On the 5th day of the *Kṛṣṇa Pakṣa* of *Caitra*, a fair is held which is attended by about 5,000 pilgrims among whom *Goṇḍs* and *Ādivāsis* figure prominently. On the occasion a large number of rams or sheep and hens and cocks are sacrificed to the God. At the time of the fair a big bazar is held where toys, brass and copper wares, earrings and other ornaments and sweetmeats are sold. The turnover amounts to Rs. 20,000. The sellers are expected to contribute something towards the fund collected to meet the expenditure of the fair.

BHIVAPUR.

Bhivāpūr : A large village in Umreḍ *tahsīl*, 24.14 km. (15 miles) south of Umreḍ on the Nāgpūr-Cāndā road on the bank of the river Maru. The Nāgpūr-Nāgbhir railway line passes through Umreḍ. It is connected by road to the Nāgpūr-Cāndā road. The name is a corruption of Bhīmapūr and the village is said to have been founded by a *Gavaḷi* of the name of Bhīmajī. The population according to 1961 Census is 6,934. The village ranks second in Umreḍ *tahsīl* in respect of population. The village contains the ruins of an old fort said to have been constructed 350 years ago by an ancestor of the Goṇḍ *Rājās* of Devgaḍ. There are weaving and dyeing industries and a cattle market of considerable importance is held on every Friday. It has a primary school, one high school, a police station, a health centre and a veterinary hospital. It has also an inspection bungalow for the convenience of the travelling Government officers. The village has a *Grāmpañcāyat*.

BORI.

Borī (T. Nāgpūr 20°50′ N, 79°00′ E.): A station on the Central Railway line 32.187 km. (twenty miles) south by west of Nāgpūr, on the Vunnā river. The population in 1961 was 3,696. The people are a mixed lot, mostly agricultural. The town is not progressive in spite of its transport facilities and the fertility of the surrounding country. There is a middle school and a girls' school, a flourishing and successful institution. Borī has a police station. There is an important Roman Catholic Mission at Ṭhāṇā, 9.656 km. (six miles) away, which supports, educates and trains in various vocations a large number of boys and girls including Government-aided orphans. There is a small weekly market. The town is said to have been founded by one Lodhi Khān, a Paṭhāṇ in later Bhosle times, and gets its name from the

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ber (Marathi-*bor*) or wild plum which was abundant in the neighbourhood. When *Peṇḍharis* came towards Borī, Lodhi Khān placed an offering of a sword in front of Gorhe Dev who caused it to glitter, so that the town seemed to be on fire and the *Peṇḍhāris* turned away. The *Grampañcayat* collects the cess from the cultivators and is responsible for its administration.

DAHEGANV.

Dahegaṅv (T. Nāgpūr 21°10′ N 78°55′ E): A small village 19.312 km. (12 miles) south of Nāgpūr. It contains a fine tank built by the Bhosle princess Baka Bai, and belongs to the family estate.

DHAPEVADA.

Dhāpevāḍā : A village of over 3,657 inhabitants as per the Census of 1961, on the bank of the Candrabhāgā river, 9.6561 km. (six miles) north of Kaḷameśvar. The town has a school and a middle school and a post office. It has been electrified. The majority of the people are *Koṣṭis* who weave coarse sarees. A considerable weekly market is held on every Tuesday. There is a Maṭh of the late Kolābjī *Mahārāj*, a Saint from *Koṣṭi* community who was believed to have attained great spiritual powers. There is a *Pañcāyat Samiti* of the Kolābjī *Devasthān*. The town is the Meccā of the *Koṣṭī* community who come from all over the Central Provinces and even from Pooṇā to worship at the sepulchre of their *Sarpañcas*. The line of the *Sarpañcas* was founded over 350 years ago by Kolābjī who was said to be in direct communication with Lord Kṛṣṇa and who wrote many sacred writings inspired by the God and venerated by all *Koṣṭis*. The originals are still extant scattered among the *Koṣṭī* houses of the town. The town also possesses a notable temple of Viṭhobā overlooking the river. The place is considered to be a second Paṇḍharpūr by the Hindus and on the day of *Āṣaḍhī Ekādaśī* a big congregation of people gathers to worship the Lord. There are also the remains of an old fort built in the time of Raghujī I, but its high walls did not save the town from systematic looting by the *Peṇḍhāris*.

Viṭṭhal Mandir of Dhāpevāḍā.—The temple is situated on the left bank of Candrabhāgā. The story goes that Śri Kolābjī Mahārāj, a devotee of God Viṭṭhal beheld Him in a vision who told him not to undertake the yearly pilgrimage to Paṇḍharpūr and that He would Himself come to the village to save him the troubles. He also revealed him a particular spot in the river where he would find the idols of Himself and His consort, Rakhumāi. The idols which are to be seen in the temple now are said to have been found at that particular secret spot. Soon a temple was built on the banks of that river and the idols were established amidst the chanting of sacred hymns and *Mantras*. Dhāpevāḍā, since then, has come to be known as the Paṇḍharpūr of Vidarbha, because on the day of *Āṣāḍh Śuddha Ekādaśī* the doors of the temple at Paṇḍharpūr are barred to the visitor for on that day God Viṭṭhal comes to Dhāpevāḍā to give *Darśan* to his beloved devotee, and is not to be found in his abode at Paṇḍharpūr. The river for the same reason has come to be known as Candrabhāgā.

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The shrine wherein the idols are placed measures about 9.290 m^2 (10′ × 10′). They are on a pedestal in a standing posture. On the walls of the *Sabhāmaṇḍap* of the temple are carved the images of Hanuman, Garuḍ and other saintly personages which stand a witness to the architectural skill of the people of that age par excellence. In the *Gabhara* and outside are constructed independent but small shrines which contain the idols of Hanuman, Śivliṅg and the like. On full-moon days an enchanting reflection of the temple can be beheld in the river water which enchants and enthralls the visitor. The deity is held in great veneration by the people of the village. They regularly visit the temple to invoke blessings of the Great God.

DIGRAS.

Digras: A small village in the Kaṭol *tahsīl* about 4,827 km. (three miles) south of Savargāṅv. Between Digras and Sāvargāṅv, are a number of stone circles attributed to the *Gavaḷīs*.

DONGARTAL.

Doṅgartaḷ: A small village in Rāmṭek *tahsīl* about 3.219 km. (two miles) west of Devaḷāpār and on the Nāgpūr-Seoni road. It is well forested and is a resort of *Gavaḷi* cattle breeders.

GHOGRA.

Ghogrā: A village in the Kaṭol *tahsīl* about 22.531 km. (14 miles) from Kaṭol to the west near Lohārisāvaṅgā. On a hill known as Mannath about 3.219 km. (2 miles) to the south-east of the village are some curious old buildings of massive stones with good carvings. They consist of a central roof with portico and two side-rooms, and are built without cement. They are attributed by the people to Hemadpant, who is supposed to have built 25,000 temples in one night in pursuance of a vow. To enable him to fulfil his vow the sun stood still and it was night for six months. The village has a primary school and is administered by the *Grāmpañcāyat*. The bus road from Bārāsiṅgī to Lohārisāvaṅgā passes by the village. On a hill near the village are located the quarters of the forest guard. At the base of the hill there is a beautiful small lake.

GHORAD.

Ghorāḍ is a large village about 24.1402 km. (15 miles) north-west of Nāgpūr near the new Kaṭol road and on the Jām river. There are a number of stone circles between Ghorāḍ and Kohlī.

GUMGANV.

Gumgāṅv (T. Nāgpūr 21°00′ N, 79°00′ E.): A large village on the Vunnā river, 17.703 km. (eleven miles) south of Nāgpūr. The majority of the population is composed of *Koṣṭīs* and *Telīs*. The *Koṣṭīs* weave ladies' wear, while the *Telīs* have generally taken to cultivation. There is a fairly large and prosperous *Mahār* community which also cultivates land, deals in cotton, and extracts linseed oil. Several of their members are rich. There are a number of *Dhangars* who weave sacking and coarse woollen blankets.

Previously the main source of water-supply was the Vunnā river. Now a number of public wells have been constructed and the supply is quite adequate. There are also a few privately owned wells. The village has a middle school and a basic school.

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There are also primary schools. In 1960-61, the total strength of pupils in all the educational institutions was about 600. The people say that the village formerly belonged to Hyderābād and was given to Bakā Bāi, the great-grandmother of Raghujī Rāv Bhosle by a *Navab* of the Nizām's. In former days troops marching to north from Secunderābād usually halted at Gumgāṅv.

HINGNA.

Hiṅgṇā: The two distinct villages of Hiṅgṇā and Rāipur separated by the Vunnā river are usually referred to jointly as Hiṅgṇā. They lie 14.484 km. (nine miles) south-west of Nāgpūr. The largest caste is that of the *Māḷīs* who are ordinary cultivators. There are quite a few *Dhangars* who weave rough woollen blankets and have cultivation and many *Koṣṭīs* who weave silk-bordered *'lugdis'* of medium quality. However, the weaving industry is on the decline. The village has a high school whose strength was 314 in 1960-61. There are two primary schools one each for boys and girls having a strength of 107 and 141, respectively, in the same year. Under the Bhosle Rājās, Hiṅgṇā was the headquarters of a *paragaṇā*. The *Kamāvisdār* had his headquarters in the mud fort, and was supported by a *Risāldār* (cavalry officer) and a regiment stationed at Vanadoṅgri, a mile away. The mosque built by the regiment still stands, but the regiment was removed over hundred and twenty years ago. There are more than eight stone circles to the north of the village site, said to have been made by the ancient *Gavaḷis*. Some of them do not appear to be circles, a few stones here and there being removed.

JALALKHEDA.

Jalālkheḍā: A village in the Kaṭol *tahsīl* situated on the Wardhā river, 22.531 km. (14 miles) north-west of Kaṭol, and 85.29 km. (53 miles) from Nāgpūr. It is connected with Nāgpūr by a pucca road. With Gaulkheḍā and Muṇḍmalipurā, it forms one inhabited village of about 2,579 inhabitants. Formerly these three villages with Āmner across the river were one large town believed to have had a population of 30,000. Āmner is now in ruins and the other villages are of the ordinary rural type. The place was distinguished for its fine Marāṭhā fort which is probably the most notable building in the tahsīl. It formed at one time the western outpost of the Bhosle kingdom and is a somewhat ambitious effort in fortification of the mediaeval kind. It is built on a rock island in the Wardhā river, and its walls fall more or less precipitately to the water on three sides. The gate is on the fourth side, and is approached by a curved road cut out of the rock and commanded by the two gate towers. People say that another fort belonging to Hyderābād guarded the passage of the river from the Berār side. The fort is now in [illegible] Jalālkheḍā has a high school and a police station. This village was adversely affected by floods in the year 1961 causing great damage to the houses and the property of the villagers. The rehabilitation of the flood sufferers has been taken up and a site far removed from the danger point has been chosen.

JUNAPANI

Junāpanī (T. Nāgpūr 21°05′ N. 78°20′ E): A small village in the Nāgpūr *tahsīl*, 11.265 km. (7 miles) west of Nāgpūr. In the neighbourhood of the village are a number of stone circles which

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are also found elsewhere in the district. The stones are not large and unless looked for they scarcely attract attention. It is supposed that they mark the site of the temporary encampments of the old pastoral tribes in their wanderings from place to place. Occasionally iron nails and tools are found beneath the stones.

KALAMESHVAR.

Kalameśvar.—A small town on Nagpūr-Kaṭol road, lying 19.3121 km. (12 miles) to the west of the city in a rich plain of wheat land. The population of the town according to 1961 Census is 6,725. *Maḷīs* and *Koṣṭis* are in majority but *Telīs*, *Bāmgās* and Brahmins are also represented. Kalameśvar continues to be a weaving centre of some importance but its cloth produce, however, has not been able to compete with that of Nāgpūr. Kalameśvar has benefited considerably by the construction of Nāgpūr-Iṭārsī broad gauge railway line which cuts across the town.

The town is largely an agricultural one depending upon its weekly market. From September to March a big orange market is held which brings a substantial revenue to the municipal committee.

Kalameśvar has had a rapid progress. At present the town is having two high schools, an English middle school and primary schools. The town has two dispensaries, *viz.*, veterinary and civil which render medical aid. In addition filaria eradication and malaria surveillance centres and a primary health centre have been established. The town has a post office and a police station.

The tradition of the town is that when Akbar Khān established himself at Pooṇa he lent a small army to a Chatri, by name Jai Singh Rāṇā. Jai Singh defeated the Gonds at Pārseoni and fixed on Kalameśvar as his headquarters. For some generations his descendants administered the surrounding country under the title of *Deśmukhs*.

Municipality.

Constitution.—The municipality at Kalameśvar was constituted in 1862. It has an area of 11.914 m² (4.6 square miles) under its jurisdiction. Twelve members constitute the municipal committee. Of these twelve seats, one is reserved for women and another for Scheduled Castes. The president is elected from among the elected members and the vice-president is nominated by the president from among the rest of the members. The members are elected for a fixed term of five years.

To carry out the different functions efficiently various subcommittees have been formed. These committees perform the normal functions, which the municipalities in general are expected to perform, such as (1) sanitation, (2) regulating offensive trades, (3) registering births and deaths, and the like which are necessary for public health, safety and convenience.

Income and Expenditure.—The income of the municipality in 1961-62, excluding income under extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 1,17,743.08. It comprised revenue derived from

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municipal rates and taxes Rs 36,191.36; realisation under special Acts Rs. 2,141.45; revenue derived from municipal property and power apart from taxation Rs. 6,410.17; grants from the Government Rs. 70,695.28 and miscellaneous Rs. 2,304.82.

In the same year against this income of Rs. 1,17,743.08 the municipality incurred an expenditure of Rs. 1,19,581.02, the deficit being made up by drawing upon the balance of the previous year. The expenditure figure also excludes expenditure due to extraordinary and debt heads. The expenditure was incurred on the following heads: general administration and collection Rs. 24,709.40; public safety Rs. 8,670.45; public health Rs. 24,572.53; public instruction Rs. 61,577.64 and contributions Rs. 51.00.

Cremation and Burial Places.—The cremation and burial grounds are managed and maintained by the respective communities.

Water-supply.—Wells, private and public, form the source of water-supply. Under block development plan new wells were dug and repairs were carried out to the old ones. A plan to provide the town with tap water is under study.

Education.—Primary education is compulsory in the municipal area. In 1961-62 the total number of pupils in the primary schools was 480 and that of teachers 13. The municipality also runs a high school for which a new building at a cost of over Rs. 60,000 was constructed recently. A grant of Rs. 30,000 was made by the State Government towards its construction. In 1961-62 a total of 725 students were receiving secondary education under the guidance of 23 teachers.

The town-planning programme has been made applicable to the town.

Objects.

Ābāji Mahārāja's Devālaya.

The *Devālaya* is centrally situated in the Kalameśvar town and contains the idols of Rām, Lakṣmaṇ and Sītā placed on a pedestal in a standing posture. The idols of Sītā and Lakṣmaṇ are to the left and right of Rām respectively. The *Gābhārā* which contains the idols is 5.945 m² (8′ × 8′) and is entered through a door all covered with brass. On either side of the entrance are raised platforms used for sitting purposes and above these platforms, on the walls are carved images of numerous deities which add glamour to the temple. Outside the temple is the open *Maṇḍap* to the left of which are the *Samādhis* of Ābājī Mahārāj, Nāgājī Mahārāj, Sāvajī Mahārāj and Fakir Mahārāj. It is by the name of the first saint that the temple is known. On *Rām Navmī* day people flock to the temple to take *Darśan* of the God.

Gaḍhi.

It was a sort of an earthen fort built for the protection of the populace from the ravages and depredations of the *Peṇḍhāris*, whose profession it was to loot the people and carry out destruction. Now except for an octagonal Śiv *Mandir*, only the ruins of the fort are to be seen. The *Śiv Mandir* has a Śivling inside.

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The diameter of the inside of the *Mandir* measures roughly about 2.438 metres (8 feet). It is commonly believed by the people that there is a spacious cellar under the Śivliṅg, a belief which reminds one of the secret cellar under the image of Hanumān, described by the celebrated Marathi novelist Hari Narāyan Āpte in his novel, '*Uṣakkal*'. Around the ruins of the fort some people have settled now.

Śri Harināth Mahārāj Maṭh.—The *Maṭh* at *Kaḷameśvar* is built in a simple style. The compound wall enclosing the *Maṭh* is earthen, but the *Sabhamaṇḍap* though of a simple style is a solid structure of masonry. To the left of the *Maṭh* but inside the compound wall is the grand old '*Nagārkhānā*'. In the inner shrine are the idols of Viṭṭhal and Rakhumāi of a height of about 3′ (0.9144 metre) in the traditional position. The *Maṭh* is associated with the name of Sant Śri Dājībā Pāṭhak *alias* Murharnāth.

Sant Śri Dājībā Pāṭhak of Kaḷameśvar received spiritual instruction from Śri Liṅganāth who belonged to the great saintly lineage of Śri Nivruttināth, Jñyāneśvar, Cudāmaṇināth, Nārāyaṇnāth and Guṇḍanāth. Śri Liṅganāth renamed Śri Dājībā as Murharnāth and advised him to renounce the worldly joys and attain salvation. He even handed over the charge of the maintenance of the *Utsava-Mūrti* to Murharnāth. From that time till the present day great celebrations are held for the first 21 days of the month of *Caitra* and on the auspicious occasion the chariot is drawn amidst great rejoicings. Murharnath renounced the worldly pleasures and spent most of his time in doing penance and in the study of metaphysics. One day while he was deeply engrossed in the study of metaphysics there was self-revelation. He was enlightened. Based on this self-revelation he composed poems in Marāṭhī and Hindi which are not published.

Śri Harināth Pāṭhak, his son, later propagated the spiritual truth attained by his father. Like his father he was also engrossed in deep penance and the study of metaphysics. Much of his fame rests on his profound penance and the propagation of the spiritual truth amongst the masses. It was he who built the *Maṭh* and it is after his name that the *Maṭh* at Kaḷmeśvar is known. At present the grandson of Harināth Mahārāj looks after the maintenance of the *Maṭh*.

Kadambeśvar Temple.—The temple of Kadambeśvar is reported to be very old and is built in the *Hemāḍpanti* style. That the temple is old can be made out from its construction which gives it a solemn look. The Śivliṅg is placed in the inner shrine which is 20.903 m² (15′ × 15′). The temple does not bear any designs of architectural skill but is a very plain work in masonry. The only importance of this temple lies in the fact that the town derives its name from this temple.

Mahādev Temple.—The *Mandir* is situated just a few kilometres away from Śri Harināth *Maṭh*. It is a small temple built in *Hemāḍpanti* style. The *Gābhārā* measures 5.945 m² (8′ × 8′) and is entered by a wooden door fixed in a solid stone

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frame. Exactly in the centre of the *Gābhārā* is the Śivliṅg and in the background on the wall facing the visitor is depicted the *pañcāyatan* showing among others the images of Gaṇapati and Nāga in beautiful carvings. The temple has a lowly constructed ceiling. To the left of the temple of Mahādev is a small Hanumān *Mandir*.

KAMPTEE CANTONMENT.

Kāmpṭee Cantonment is situated in 21°10′ N and 79°12′ E. on the South-Eastern Railway line at a distance of 16.093 km. (10 miles) from Nāgpūr, 851.34 km. (529 miles) from Bombay and 1,113.428 km. (692 miles) from Calcutta. It stands on an extensive plain of black cotton soil on the right bank of the Kanhān river and is embowered in luxuriant trees. It extends a little over four miles along the river bank. At its highest point it is 303.581 metres (996 feet) above the sea-level. In 1821 the cantonment of Kāmpṭee was established and took its name from a small village on the left bank of the Kanhān river. Prior to 1821 there were no habitations except one or two hamlets on the bank of the river but the villages of Añjani, Vāregaṅv and Yārkheḍā were in existence. Practically the whole of the area of the cantonment is made up of land acquired from these villages. The cantonment originally had an area of about 2,065.262 hectares (5, 103.25 acres) but in 1927 it was reduced by 567.37 hectares (1,042 acres) when the new municipality of Kāmpṭee was formed. The Bāgdurā Nullā separates Kāmpṭee cantonment from the Kāmpṭee municipal town.

Now no military force is maintained in the cantonment and the old artillery lines and the transport lines are no more to be seen. The cantonment has one broad and handsome road called Māll, extending from one end of the railway station to the other, this road is rendered agreeable and cheerful by its avenue of splendid trees. Both the sides of this road are flanked by privately owned bungalows. There are three civil areas in the cantonment, viz., the New Godown area to the extreme north-west, Gorā Bazar in the centre and Cavalry Bazar to the south-east. The houses in these areas are mud-built and present a poor appearance.

The Sadar Bazar as it is described in the old Gazetteer now forms the Kāmpṭee municipal town. The Bāgdurā Nullā which separates the cantonment and municipal town forms the eastern, western and northern boundaries of the Kāmpṭee municipality.

Garrison.

About the garrison at Kāmpṭee cantonment the old Gazetteer* gives the following account:—

"In 1821 the garrison was very large. The exact strength of the garrison cannot be ascertained but a plan of the cantonment, made in 1858, shows that there were lines for two Batteries of Artillery, one Regiment of British Infantry, three Regiments of Native Infantry and one Regiment of Native Cavalry with lines for elephants and camels in addition. In 1888 the cantonment ceased to belong to the Madrās Presidency and came under the jurisdiction of the Commander-in-Chief of the Bombay Army.

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Nagpur District, Vol. A, 1908.

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Garrison.

In 1889 the garrison consisted of a Battery of Artillery, one Regiment of British Infantry, one and a half Regiment of Native Infantry and one Regiment of Native Cavalry, the whole forming the Nāgpūr district under the command of a Brigadier General. In 1891 the Regiment of Native Cavalry was finally removed from Kamptee and the same year the extra half-battalion of Native Infantry was transferred to Sambalpūr. In January 1905, orders were issued under Lord Kitchener's reorganization scheme for the eventual abandonment of Kāmptee as a military station. The military district of Nagpūr had already ceased to be of much importance, as its outlying stations of Rāipur and Sambalpūr had been denuded of troops. In March 1905, as a consequence of the scheme just referred to, the staff of the Nāgpūr district was transferred to Ahmadnagar and since then Kāmptee has been commanded by the senior Combatant Officer in the station assisted by a fourth-class station staff officer. It came directly under the General Officer Commanding the 5th (Mhow) Division in March, 1905 but now (1907) forms part of the Jubbulpore Brigade. The importance of Kāmptee is declining and it may perhaps be abandoned altogether but for nearly 90 years it has been a model cantonment for neatness and cleanliness. General Burton, who was a staff officer in the Cantonment from 1858, in his book "An Indian Olio", published in 1888, says 'It presents a regular and well-ordered appearance beyond that of most other military stations in India'. It has an honourable record, not the least feature of which being the loyalty of the garrison during the Mutiny. There was an attempt to rise in Nāgpūr but it was promptly checked with the assistance of the Madrās Troops stationed in Kāmptee and then the whole garrison, which included the old Third Regiment of European Infantry and the still famous First Madrās Pioneers, marched to Bāndā and served under General Whitlock until peace was restored. The existence of six good camping grounds in the vicinity, called sanitary camps but for which there is no use as such, should not be lost sight of. Their names are Yassumbā, Tekārī, Seurāh, Gaḍā, Surādevī and Kurāḍī. Their limits are marked by boundary pillars and they are all provided with wells. Kurāḍī is an excellent place for the field training of troops not exceeding half a battalion and, in conjunction with the Surādevī hills forms the only possible position in the immediate vicinity of Kāmptee where manoeuvres with ball ammunition can be carried out with safety".

The garrison no more exists now and in the cantonment are now located the N. C. C. Officers Training School, the Army Postal Service Training Centre, Supply Depot, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering Station Workshop, Military Hospital and Station Staff office. The Mahārāṣṭra State Police Reserve Force is located in Rawlinson Lines in the Cantonment.

Population.

In 1951 the population of the cantonment was 4,867 but according to 1961 census its civil population is 5,091 and military 637. The majority of the civil population comes from poor class whose main occupation is *bidi*-making.

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Population.

During the Marāṭhā rule traders flocked to Kāmptee on account of the comparative immunity from taxation which they enjoyed within the cantonment and a large commercial town had grown up alongside that portion of the Station which was occupied by the troops. Owing to its favourable situation on the roads leading to Nāgpūr, Kāmptee for a long period had monopolised trade. But owing to increased railway communications and the emigration of a considerable number of buyers to the larger town of Nāgpūr, the Headquarters of the district, have gradually taken away from Kāmptee its commercial business which was formerly transacted there. The decline of trade and revenue may also be attributed to the formation of Kāmptee municipal town.

Administration.

Kāmptee cantonment is a class II Cantonment and its municipal administration is run under the Cantonment Act, 1924, and the rules made thereunder, by a Board consisting of nine members, of whom four are elected. The officer commanding the Station is *ex officio* President of the Board and the Cantonment Executive Officer acts as its Secretary. The lands situated within the civil areas are directly under the management of the Board.

Schools, Hospitals and Miscellaneous.

There are two high schools and two primary schools run by private bodies. The State Government manages one middle school and one Basic Training School while the Cantonment Board runs one primary school. The cantonment maintains one General Hospital with separate general wards for men and women. In all it has 20 beds. It is manned with a well-qualified staff and is efficiently run. Within the cantonment are located a branch of the State Bank of India, government sub-treasury, a sub-post and telegraph office and a telephone exchange. The Kanhān Water-Works under the management of Nāgpūr Corporation and supplying water to Nāgpūr city is situated here.

At present the population of Kāmptee cantonment depends upon the wells for its water-supply. However, a scheme has been taken up which, when completed, would supply tap-water to the people.

The Kāmptee cantonment was established in 1821 after the action of Sitābuldī in 1817 and took its name from a small village called Junī Kāmptee, situated on the left bank of the Kanhān river. The Cantonment Board has built residential quarters for its employees. The cantonment has repaired and reconditioned a good many bungalows which were in a dilapidated condition. At present the Board does not maintain any market or slaughter-house. The station depends upon markets of the neighbouring municipal committee. However, the Board has plans to build its own markets and slaughter-house. Towards this end a committee has been appointed and details are being worked out.

In the year 1962-63, the total income of the Board from normal sources amounted to Rs. 1,29,039.05. It received a sum of Rs. 15,395.00, as grant from the government. In the same year the normal expenditure came to Rs. 1,82,360.53.

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The Kāmptee Cantonment Board has only eight members including the president, four being elected and four *ex officio* nominated. During the year under report nine meetings were held by the civil area committee.

KAMPTEE TOWN.

Kāmptee is situated on the banks of the Kanhān river in Nāgpūr *tahsīl*. It is a trading centre of some importance. In the town there are factories which manufacture tiles, bidis and colours. The people belonging to the *Momin* community here are skilful weavers and the cloth woven by them on hand-looms finds a ready sale in Nāgpūr. Kāmptee has a population of 40,859, according to 1961 census.

Municipality.

Constitution.—The municipality was established in July 1927 and its jurisdiction extends over an area of 5.957 km.^{2}. The area of the municipality has been divided into twenty wards from which 23 members are elected to the municipal committee which looks after the municipal administration. The members elect a president who becomes the leader of the committee. There is also a vice-president who is empowered to exercise all the powers of the president in his absence. Of the 23 seats, two seats are reserved for women and two for Scheduled Castes candidates thereby safeguarding their interests in case such candidates are not returned in the elections.

For the purposes of convenience various sub-committees have been formed. The following are some of the important sub-committees:—

(1) Finance sub-committee, (2) Octroi sub-committee, (3) Public Works sub-committee, (4) Public Health sub-committee, (5) Market sub-committee, (6) Hospital sub-committee, (7) Child Welfare sub-committee, (8) Electrification sub-committee, (9) Education sub-committee and (10) Water-works sub-committee.

The municipal constitution by delegating powers to these sub-committees has given them a free hand in taking decisions on certain matters. This has made for the better implementation of the plans and programmes framed to improve the civic conditions of the people.

Income and Expenditure.—The total income of the Municipality accrued from various sources, including extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 7,72,943.00 in 1961-62. It comprised municipal rates and taxes contributing Rs. 3,96,832.00; realization under special act Rs. 2,837.00; revenue derived from municipal powers and property apart from taxation Rs. 35,342.00; grants and contributions received for general and special purposes Rs. 1,60,620.00; miscellaneous Rs. 3,940.00 and extraordinary and debt heads Rs. 1,73,372.00.

Against this income of Rs. 7,72,943.00 it had to incur an expenditure of Rs. 7,76,703.00 during the same year. The item-wise expenditure of the municipality is general administration and collection charges Rs. 90,118.00; public safety Rs. 21,936.00; public health and convenience Rs. 3,38,370.00; public instruction and institutions Rs. 1,38,981.00; contributions for general purposes Rs. 22,551.00; miscellaneous Rs. 30.00 and extraordinary and debt heads Rs. 1,64,717.00.

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KAMPTEE TOWN

Municipality.

For better administration and organisation, administrative departments have been formed which effectively carry out their respective functions. The departments are—

(i) The General Administration Department which exercises supervision and control over the rest of the departments, and in certain respects directs their operations;

(ii) Tax Department which is responsible for the collection of taxes;

(iii) Octroi Department, headed by an octroi superintendent, levies and collects the taxes on goods at the municipal *nākās* as per rules and regulations of the municipality;

(iv) Sanitary Department is responsible to keep the town clean of refuse and dirt;

(v) Education Department is headed by the education officer and the problems relating to educational advancement are looked after by him;

(vi) Health Department's duty is to take prompt measures to check the spread of epidemics and diseases; and

(vii) Accounts section which maintains the accounts.

These various departments have facilitated the speedy transaction of business.

Cremation and Burial Places.—The municipality does not maintain any cremation and burial places and hence such places are managed and maintained by the respective communities.

Health.—The municipality maintains a hospital which treats the sick and the disabled. A grant of Rs. 500 is received from the Government towards its expenditure. In it is housed a dispensary which treats out-door patients. The veterinary dispensary of the town is run by the State Government and the municipality, each sharing 50 per cent of the expenditure. There is a child welfare centre and two health centres.

Drainage.—The town does not have any special type of drainage system. It has *Kutcha* as well as pucca stone-lined surface drains. The water is collected in cesspools and then removed at a safe distance by the scavengers employed for the purpose.

Water-supply.—The town populace derives its water-supply from the wells, private as well as public. Recently arrangements have been made to supply tap-water.

Education.—Primary education is compulsory in the town and the same is being managed by the municipality. There are 13 primary schools in the town. In the year 1959-60 the number of pupils was 2,898 and that of teachers 96. The net expenditure incurred on education by the municipality was Rs. 97,346.00.

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There is one government middle school and four private high schools which impart education up to the S.S.C. Examination level. The town as a whole has good educational facilities.

KAMPTEE TOWN. Municipality.

Roads.—There are no asphalted roads within the municipal limits. The length of the metalled roads is 15.2855 km. (9 miles 4 furlongs) while that of unmetalled ones is only 1.609 km. (one mile). The major roads of the town are Śukravār Bazar Road and the Main Road.

Amenities.—The municipality maintains a park for the recreation of the people. The park is named after Mahātmā Gāndhī.

Kāmptee has an N.C.C. Training School where officer cadets in N.C.C. are given training.

KAMAHI(TELGANV).

Kāmāṭhi (Telgāṅv): An agricultural village of about 2,518 inhabitants, 6.437 km. (four miles), west of Sāoner and 38.624 km. (twenty-four miles) from Nāgpūr. Part of the village site was formerly covered by a mud fort but now no traces of it are to be seen. A weekly market is held on Mondays. The village has a primary school and a middle school which are privately managed.

The village has been supplied with electricity. Many cultivators have made use of the electric power for irrigation. As many as 49 electric water-pumps have been installed. There is a branch post office and a small library.

KANHOLI.

Kānholī : Largely an agricultural village on the Annapurṇā river, 37.015 km. (twenty-three miles), south-west of Nāgpūr. The *Telī* caste predominates very largely, accounting for over three-quarters of the population. The village was held by two Brahmins under *Mālguzārī* system. The family had obtained possession of the village in the reign of Bājī Rāv II, in whose household they were holding an office corresponding more or less to that of a Chamberlain. The village has a primary school, a middle school, a post office and a cattle-pound.

At present, the village is surrounded by fair jungle, but tradition seems to point to a luxuriance and strength of growth in old times, of which there is only too little a trace now. There is a story of a *Navāb* (of Moghal times), who cut a tree in the Kānholi jungles and was carting the trunk to Nāgpūr but found that he could not get the trunk past a spot called Siṅghār Dip 3.219 km. (two miles) from Kānholī. The obstruction was attributed to divine agency and the log was allowed to remain there, and a few disintegrated fragments were preserved and worshipped as Mayāl Dev. There is a small shrine dedicated to Mātobā who is said to have confounded and blinded the *Peṇḍhāris* in the jungles when they came to loot Kānholī (Cf. Nandā Gāimukh).

KATOL TAHSIL.

Katol tahsīl (21°2′ and 21°31′ N and 78°15′ and 78°59′ E): Kaṭol *tahsīl* is the western *tahsīl* of the district. It is an irregular quadrilateral in shape, with one side to the north bounded by the Chindvāḍā district, another facing north-west bounded by the Āmrāvati district, another facing south-west bounded by the

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Ārvī *tahsīl* of Wardhā district, and the fourth side facing roughly east and bordering on the Nāgpūr and Rāmṭek *tahsīls*. Except on this last side the *tahsīl* has well-marked natural boundaries. On the north it extends up to the fringe of Sātpuḍā hills, and on the north-west it is marked off by the Wardhā and the Kār rivers. The *tahsīl* has the three principal hill systems. The first is the Sātpuḍā range on the north, the second a belt of uplands running from the extreme western corner (the trijunction of Nāgpūr, Wardhā and Amrāvatī) past Kondhaḷī to the south-east boundary of the district and a third a broad band of confused hilly region covering almost the whole of the eastern half of the *tahsīl* between Kondhaḷī and Kelod and forming the water-shed between Waingaṅgā and Wardhā valleys. These three hill systems enclose a rich plain, part of the Wardhā valley, which forms the north-western portion of the *tahsīl*. The Jām valley is an extension of this plain in the corner, formed by the second and the third ranges and is broad and fertile at Parāḍsiṅgā, but narrows to little more than a gorge at Kondhaḷī.

The Katol *tahsīl* covers an area of 1,590.26 km.^{2} (614 square miles) out of which 145.03 km.^{2} (56 square miles) are comprised in government forest. It is remarkable for the abrupt contrasts of stony upland and the fertile plain which it presents. It is said of the Kaṭol *tahsīl*, as doubtless may have been said of stony regions of the various parts of the world, that the Creator of the Universe, having completed the construction of the world, had a residue of rough materials, stones and rubbish, which he threw down to the nearest tract of country at his hand at the time and that this happened to be Kaṭol. But these celestial heaps of stones have proved a blessing to the part in which they have fallen. They have served to enclose and protect from erosion the deep lowland which they encircle, and the low country between them, embanked as it were by Nature's hand seems to increase rather than diminish in fertility. The prosperity, industrial and commercial activity generally prevailing in the *tahsīl*, are the material evidences which show that in this region of the district. Nature, despite a rugged exterior, has not been niggardly of the bounties.

Population.

The total population of Kaṭol *tahsīl* is 167,850 of which the urban population is 30,864 and the rural 136,986. The towns of the *tahsīl* are Kaṭol (P. 14,581), Nārkheḍ (10,442) and Movāḍ (5,841). In addition, there are 9 large villages having a population of over 2,000 and 19 villages of 1,000 to 2,000 persons. Kaṭol *tahsīl* includes 340 villages and towns of which 50 are deserted or uninhabited.

Agriculture.

Kaṭol on the whole has the poorest soil of the five *tahsīls* as regards composition, although it has all the '*Kāḷī*' soils of the first class in the district. The natural embankments of hills around it act as a protection against failure of crops and it has never been hard hit by the famines. Nevertheless from an agricultural point of view Kaṭol is the most advanced of the five *tahsīls* and its lands produce *kharif* crops as valuable as the

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Agriculture.

wheat of other *tahsīls*. The cultivators are intelligent and enterprising to an unusual degree and spend much time and money on improvement of their fields. The total geographical area of the *tahsīl* is 1,45,726.695 hectares (359,819 acres) of which in 1958-59 the net cropped area was 98,438.085 hectares (243,057 acres). The total acres of irrigated garden land is 5,670 hectares (14,000 acres). The following table indicates the statistics of crops for the last eleven years:—

Year	Net cropped area*	Wheat	Rice	Til	Jowar	Cotton	Tur
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1951-52 ..	91,656.360 (2,26,312)	41,313.240 (1,02,008)	.. ..	.. ..	55,868.130 (1,37,946)	17,011.215 (42,003)	.. ..
1952-53 ..	95,494.140 (2,35,788)	4,072.275 (10,055)	374.625 (925)	42.120 (104)	53,742.285 (1,32,697)	21,881.745 (54,029)	168.075 (415)
1953-54 ..	97,659.675 (2,41,135)	2,394.765 (5,913)	425.250 (1,050)	41.310 (102)	55,437.210 (1,36,882)	25.706.160 (63,472)	208.575 (515)
1954-55 ..	97,511.040 (2,40,768)	3,971.430 (9,806)	410.670 (1,014)	42.525 (105)	54,118.565 (1,33,873)	26,154.495 (64,579)	247.455 (611)
1955-56 ..	98,314.360 (2,42,752)	4,885.515 (12,063)	458.865 (1,133)	.. ..	51,552.450 (1,27,290)	27,180.765 (67,113)	266.490 (658)
1956-57 ..	97,660.890 (2,41,138)	5,742.090 (14,178)	724.950 (1,790)	133.650 (330)	54.765.720 (1,35,224)	24,508.980 (60,516)	361.665 (893)
1957-58 ..	98,510.985 (2,43,237)	4,451.760 (10,992)	643.545 (1,589)	327.240 (808)	53,970.705 (1,33,261)	26,152.875 (64,575)	388.395 (959)
1958-59 ..	98,438.085 (2,43,057)	4,046.760 (9,992)	729.000 (1,800)	376.650 (930)	53,611.470 (1,32,374)	30,370.545 (74,989)	261.225 (645)
1959-60 ..	88,977.285 (2,19,697)	6,428.160 (15,872)	707.940 (1,748)	300.915 (743)	49,466.700 (1,22,140)	26,143.560 (64,552)	588.465 (1,453)
1960-61 ..	98,070.345 (2,42,149)	5,258.520 (12,984)	948.105 (2,341)	173.745 (429)	52,722.090 (1,30,178)	28,284.795 (69,839)	204.120 (504)
1961-62 ..	98,121.375 (2,42,275)	4,105.080 (10,136)	642.735 (1,587)	156.735 (387)	49,254.075 (1,21,615)	30,612.735 (75,587)	167.265 (413)

* Figures in brackets indicate area in acres while those without in hectares.

Land Revenue.

The present land revenue of the *tahsīl* comes to Rs. 4,13,360.19. For the purposes of assessment the *tahsīl* was divided into the following groups:—

(1) *Kondhaḷī group*: Containing the southern hilly portion of the *tahsīl* with 89 villages,

(2) *The Nārkheḍ group*: The most fertile portion of the Wardhā valley in the north-west corner of the *tahsīl* with 66 villages,

(3) *Jalālkheḍā group*: Lying to the south of the Nārkheḍ group and enclosed by the Jām and the Wardhā rivers with 106 villages, and

(4) *The Kaṭol group*: The central portion of the *tahsīl* with 79 villages.

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Miscellaneous.

For ordinary revenue work the *tahsīl* is divided into four Revenue Inspectors' Circles with Kaṭol, Nārkheḍ, Jalālkheḍā and Kondhaḷī as the headquarters. It has been further divided into 68 *paṭwārī* circles.

The means of transport and communications of the *tahsīl* are fairly good. The Madrās-Delhi railway line passes through this *tahsīl* and has the following stations within its area, *viz.*, Meṭpāñjrā, Kaṭol, Kalambā and Nārkheḍ. The *tahsīl* has the following 'puccā' roads on which buses ply all the year round:—

(1) Nāgpūr-Jalālkheḍā road running *via* Kaṭol,

(2) A direct road from Kaṭol town running to Kondhaḷī,

(3) Another road running from Kaṭol to Sāvargāṅv,

(4) Nārkheḍ-Movāḍ road running through Kaṭol.

In addition to the above roads the *tahsīl* has some fair-weather roads. They are—

(1) Road running from Sāvargāṅv to Nārkheḍ,

(2) Sāvargāṅv-Cicolī road, and

(3) Bhārsiṅgī-Karañjā road.

KATOL TOWN.

Kaṭol Town (T. Kaṭol, 21°15′ N and 78°35′ E, P. 14,560) is the headquarters of Kaṭol *tahsīl*, 57.936 km. (36 miles) to the north-west of Nāgpūr. It is connected by a partly fair-weather road bridged which also passes through the town of Kaḷameśvar. Beyond Kaṭol this road becomes a mere surface track running into the Amrāvatī district. The Madrās-Delhi Grand Trunk Railway route and the Kharangaṇā-Kondhaḷī-Kaṭol state highway pass through Kaṭol. It is also crossed by Nāgpūr-Kaṭol-Jalālkheḍā major district road. The town now includes the large adjoining village of Peṭh Budhvār, which lies on the Jām, a tributary of the Wardhā river.

The population is 14,581 according to 1961 Census. The town is a trade centre of a wide cotton-growing tract. The old town site is crowded and insanitary lying in a hollow and traversed only by narrow crowded lanes. But the recent trend of extension has been towards higher ground to the south-east where the cotton factories are located. The present town site is not so much congested and is having good drainage system and fairly spacious lanes and by-lanes.

Antiquities.

Kaṭol is believed to be mentioned in the *Aśvamedha* canto of the Mahābhārat as Kuntalapūr, so named from Kuntal, a *Rājā* whose capital was situated here. It possesses two *Hemāḍpanti* temples which are said to date from the days of Rāvaṇ and to have been built in one night by his demons. The mud fort dates from the time of the Goṇḍ dynasty. In the time of Dharmājī Bhosle it was held by a *Peṇḍhārī* confederacy which paid more or less regular tribute to the *Rājā* and protected the countryside from other raiding bands.

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KATOL TOWN.

Municipal Undertakings.

Kaṭol is an ancient town but it reached the first stage of modern municipal development only in 1905 when it was notified as a Town-Fund area. The income of the municipality for the first year was only Rs. 4,761, but now it has risen gradually to Rs. 2,88,645. Its prosperity is dependent chiefly on cotton and orange trade and therefore, a grand cotton market has been built. This is a large enclosure of 4.047 hectares (ten acres) securely fenced, and provided with a weighing shed, well, water-trough, trees for shade and electric lights. Within the enclosure, round the central market square, several shops have been erected by merchants.

Trade.

The weekly market of Kaṭol has long been important and is now attended by about 10,000 to 12,000 people. Commodities of all kinds are dealt in but the bazar is important as it is the second largest cattle market in the *tahsīl*. In the month of *Caitra* (April) the Saraswati fair is held and is usually attended by a congregation of over 10,000 people. In former days the gardens of the town were noted for the production of fine '*Gāñjā*' but now they produce excellent oranges and mangoes. Cotton is the staple crop of Kaṭol *tahsīl*. The rich valleys of the Wardhā and the Jām rivers help in the production of a bumper crop of cotton.

Public Institutions.

The educational institutions comprise three high schools, with a total strength of 2,000 pupils. Of the three, one is a girls' high school. The buildings of the two schools are quite large, but the third one is housed in a small building owned by the municipality. Plans are underway to build a spacious building for this school. The town has an Arts and Commerce College and a B.T. training college. There is also a town hall, a post and telegraph office, a telephone exchange and a police station. The *tahsīl* Court building was erected in 1962.

A huge water reservoir has been built by the municipality in the heart of the town. The pumping station has been installed in Budhwār Peth area on the bank of the river Jām. The water is pumped in the tank and supplied to the town. A complete pipe-line has been laid. This waterworks was completed in June 1963.

Municipality.

Constitution.—Kaṭol Municipality, established in 1919, has at present an area of 16.835 km² (6.5 square miles) under its jurisdiction. The municipal committee is constituted of 16 members. The president is elected from amongst the elected members and the vice-president is either nominated or elected.

Following sub-committees have been set up by the municipal committee:—

Finance sub-committee whose work it is to assess the taxes and present the annual budget;

Public works sub-committee which does the work of preparing plans regarding construction and building works, and estimating the amount required; and

Education sub-committee which looks after the compulsory primary education.

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KATOL TOWN.

Municipality.

Income and Expenditure.

In 1962-63 the income of the municipality amounted to Rs. 2,88,573, excluding a sum of Rs. 15,385 received under extraordinary and debt heads. The income consisted of revenue derived from municipal rates and taxes Rs. 1,89,275.00; realisation under special acts Rs. 412.00; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 13,094.00; grants for special and general purposes Rs. 77,808.00 and miscellaneous Rs. 7,984.00.

The expenditure during the same year amounted to Rs. 2,17,023.00. It excluded expenditure on extraordinary and debt heads. The itemwise expenditure incurred was general administration and collection charges Rs. 32,518.00; public safety Rs. 15,385.00; public health and convenience Rs. 75,544.00; public instruction Rs. 58,408.00; grants and contributions Rs. 1,001.00 and miscellaneous Rs. 31,167.00.

Administrative Organisation.

For the smooth functioning of the administration the municipal committee has created separate departments, like the public health department, octroi department and education department.

The town has one civil and one veterinary dispensary. Both the dispensaries are maintained by the municipality.

The town does not have any special type of drainage system. There are only surface drains.

Primary education is compulsory and is managed by the municipal committee. The total number of pupils is 1,312 with 36 teachers.

The town has only metalled roads measuring 14.48 km. (9 miles). The principal roads are: The road approaching the water scheme is 3.21 km. (two miles) long and the road running from Bhatpurā to the Jām river being also of the same length.

The cremation and burial places are maintained and managed by the communities concerned.

The municipality maintains two parks. Both these parks have separate corners for children.

Objects.

There is a very old fort in the town. There are also temples of Saraswati and Caṇḍikā reported to be very old.

(1) *Caṇḍikā Devī Mandir.*—The temple is believed to have been built during the reign of one king Candrahāsa, who is supposed to have ruled over this territory in the dim and distant past. The construction of the temple is in the *Hemāḍpanti* style. It is situated in the old *Basti*. The '*Gābhārā*', which contains the idol of the goddess, measures 9.290 m.² (10′ × 10′). It is beautifully carved out of black rock and is in a standing position. On either side of the entrance to the '*Gābhārā*' are two images in standing posture which appear to be the bodyguards of the goddess Caṇḍikā. Outside is the '*Sabhāmaṇḍap*' having windows on all the four sides which serve as inlets for the sunlight. In the centre exactly facing the goddess is a '*Homkuṇḍa*' housed by a little dome. On the '*Maṇḍap*' wall, to the left of the

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Objects.

goddess, is engraved the image of Lord Gajānan with exquisite skill. Against the outer side of the *Maṇḍap*-walls are carved the images of animals, wild as well as domestic, and numerous deities which add a tinge of glory and glamour to the solid and grave structure of the building. The architectural designs speak eloquently of the architects of those times. In *Navrātra, Śārdotsava* is celebrated with great eclat when thousands of people gather to pay homage to the goddess.

(2) *Śaradā Mandir.*—The idol is supposed to be '*Svayambhū*'. It is a small building housing two images of the same goddess of unequal size. The images depict a sort of crude and rough architecture. In front of the temple is a tank of water of the size of a square measuring 37·161 m.^{2} (20′ × 20′), whose water, it is said, never dries up. The place is venerated by the Hindus as a '*Tirtha Kṣetra*'. By the side of the tank is another small temple which houses the images of Mārutī, Gaṇapati and Śivliṅg. To the left of the Śāradā Mandir is housed yet another Śivliṅg by the side of which are three small *samādhis* of unknown persons. Two fairs, one on the occasion of Śārdotsava and the other on *Caitra Śuddha* 15th, are held when devotees of the goddess gather in large numbers.

(3) *Śiv Mandir.*—The *Mandir* is situated on the southern bank of a beautiful tank, now let on lease to the Government for pisciculture, with a lovely hillock at the back and a giant *pimpal* tree in the front. The inner shrine or '*Gābhārā*' of the temple is 5·945 m.^{2} (8′ × 8′) with *Liṅg* occupying the central position. The *Liṅg* is donned with a brass plaque. On the wall facing the visitor are engraved the images of innumerable deities in beautiful and attractive designs. Outside is the '*Maṇḍap*' of the temple enclosed on all the four sides with walls having a single entrance in the front. It is used to deliver *Kirtans* and hold religious discourses in praise of the God. To the south of the temple of Śiv there is a temple of Mārutī whose image is about 3.048 metres (10 feet) tall. The idol of Mārutī has become the major attraction to the people. The *pimpal* tree protects under its shade one more Śivliṅg and an image of Nandi both carved out of black stone. The natural surroundings like the tank, the hillock and the pimpal tree provide an excellent setting and add charm and beauty to the temple. Especially the evenings, at the time of sunset, are lively and pleasant. It has become a good spot of recreation.

KELOD.

Kelod is largely an agricultural village in Sāoner *tahsīl*, situated in 21°27′ N and 78°53′ E. It is 45.062 km. (twenty-eight miles) from Nāgpūr and occupies the northern edge of a fertile plain of which Sāoner is the centre, and thus shares to some extent the prosperity of its greater neighbour. It has a population of 5,080 according to the Census of 1961. Till 1951, Kelod was classified as a town but the Census of 1961 has declassified it. The weekly bazar is held on Thursdays when large quantities of timber and firewood are sold. Kelod is well-known for the manufacture of silk-bordered cloth, though the trade is on the

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decline in recent years. There are in the village two high schools, a post office and a police station. Kelod is a railway station on the Nāgpūr-Chindvāḍā section. There is a *Grāmpañcāyat* which looks after the village administration.

Grām-pañcāyat.

The *Grāmpañcāyat* at Kelod was established in the year 1948. It has an area of 6.734 km.^{2} (2.6 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction.

A total of 15 members forms the *pañcāyat* committee. The *Sarpañc* is elected by the members from amongst them. Of these 15 seats, four are reserved, two for women candidates and two for Scheduled Castes, respectively.

Income and Expenditure.—In the year 1961-62 the income of the *Grāmpañcāyat* including a sum of Rs. 4,192.16 as the opening balance, amounted to Rs. 25,974.15. It comprised taxes contributing Rs. 6,203.18; revenue derived from *Pañcāyat* property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 4,892.37; grants for special and general purposes Rs. 5,081.00 and from miscellaneous sources Rs. 5,605.44. The income figure excludes income under extraordinary debt heads.

The expenditure incurred during the same year amounted to Rs. 15,078.49. It excludes expenditure on extraordinary and debt heads. The expenditure comprised general administration and collection charges Rs. 3,246.05; public safety and convenience Rs. 3,183.01; public health Rs. 5,155.37; public instruction Rs. 101.41; capital expenditure Rs. 2,489.61 and miscellaneous Rs. 903.49.

Drainage.—There is no '*puccā*' drainage system in the village. Only along the main road the gutters have been stone-lined. To collect waste water soak-pits and cess-pools have been dug.

Water-supply.—The water-supply is largely drawn from the wells, private as well as public. Only certain parts of the town get tap water-supply. This is done by pumping water into an overhead tank, which has been recently built by means of an electric pumping set.

Miscellaneous.—The village does not have any cement roads. It has been electrified. The *Grāmpañcāyat* runs a small library. Cremation and burial grounds are managed by the *Grāmpañcāyat*.

Objects.

Kapileśvar Temple.

To the west of the town at a distance of 603.504 metres (3 furlongs) there is an old temple dedicated to Kapileśvar. There is some striking scenery around the temple.

The temple, to the west of Kelod town, is reported to be over 200 years old. It is situated on a big mountain rock by the side of which flows a stream which falls from a height of 6·096 metres (about 20′). The fall has created a fairly big pool and it is said that there is a hidden and inaccessible cave inside.

The temple is reached by climbing about 20 steps which lead to the open courtyard. The shrine is 1.8288 × 1.2192 metres (6′ × 4′) in the centre of which is placed the Śivliṅg. To the

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Kapileśvar Temple.

left of the *Liṅg* is the image of Nandi, in its usual posture, carved out of solid black rock, while at the back are the idols of numerous deities. Outside is the *Sabhāmaṇḍap*. In the open courtyard are two giant *pimpal* trees which protect an image of Hanumān under their shade. The deep shade of the trees keep the surroundings very cool and lively. The temple is not noted for any architectural or sculptural skill. At the time of *Śivrātri* a *Mahāyajñya* is performed by the people on which day a feast is given to the gathered people. In addition to this in *Śrāvaṇ* the local Marvaḍī people perform *homa*. On every *Śrāvaṇ Somvār, pujā* is performed when devotees gather to invoke blessings of the God.

A legend says that there was a mendicant who used to live in the above-mentioned cave and that he had a cow. That cow always used to go grazing along with the herd of cattle from the village. One day the cowherd followed the cow to ask wages for having looked after the cow. The cow suddenly jumped into the pool and the cowherd had to return disappointed. The next day to his surprise, he noticed the same cow in the herd and this time he caught the cow's tail on arriving at the pool. On reaching the cave he saw a mendicant and the *Dhunī*. When the cowherd explained the purpose of his visit, the mendicant took a few live coals from the *Dhunī* extinguished and put them in the blanket of the cowherd. The cowherd on coming out threw away the coals but the one which got stuck accidentally was found to be a piece of gold on reaching home. The shepherd repented for what he had done and tried to find out the mendicant and the cow but neither could be seen. Nobody has ever been able to fathom the contents of the cave. It is from this incident that the temple is named as Kapileśvar.

KHAIRGANV.

Khairgāṅv: A large and rich village in Kaṭol *tahsīl*, well wooded, having a number of gardens and wells, lying on the east bank of the Wardhā river, 3.219 km. (two miles) south of Movāḍ and 24.140 km. (fifteen miles) north-west of Kaṭol. The population as per 1961 Census is 3,033 as against 2,995 in 1951. The village was badly affected by the floods of the Wardhā river in September 1961. A number of houses were swept off and the river carried away everything before it. The people who were rendered homeless are being rehabilitated to the north of the town. Residents having their houses within the danger zone have been allotted plots and granted loans for the construction of houses. The village has a middle school and two primary schools, one each for boys and girls. It has a *Grāmpañcāyat*.

KHAPA.

Khāpā (21°25′ N, 79°2′ E): A town in the Sāoner *tahsīl* situated on the Kanhān river, 35.405 km. (22 miles) north of Nāgpūr and 9.656 km. (six miles) from Pāṭaṇsāvaṅgī on the Chindvāḍā road. The metalled road leads from Pāṭaṇsāvaṅgī to Khāpā. The population in 1901 was 7,615 as against 9,383 in 1891 and 8,465 in 1881. According to 1961 Census the population of Khāpā town is 9,536.

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The town is rich in natural surroundings. It is built on a site high above the river and immediately overlooking it. On the land side it is completely shut in by fine groves of mango trees. Eighty years ago Khāpā was described as one of the most flourishing towns in Nāgpūr district. The decrease in its population after 1891 is to be attributed to changes in the course of trade.

The town is in constant danger of floods when the river Kanhān is in high spate during the rainy season. To avoid this danger, Vidarbha Housing Board constructed Flood Relief Housing Colony for the sufferers in 1957—59. The State Government constructed a bridge on the Kanhān river in 1961.

The principal industry of Khāpā in old days was cotton weaving, which is on the decline today owing to the competition from the mills. The orange produce of Khāpā has a good market in Nāgpūr. Manganese ore is the principal mineral exported from Khāpā. Brick and tile-manufacturing is another important industry of the town. The town has weekly timber and cattle markets.

Municipality.

Constitution.—The Municipality was established in May, 1867 and has an area of 5.70 km.^{2} under its jurisdiction. The town municipality has been divided into twelve wards from which 14 members are elected to the municipal committee. Of these, one seat is reserved for women and another for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The president is elected from amongst the elected members. The vice-president is nominated by the president. The vice-president exercises overall supervision in the absence of the president. The municipal committee is elected for a term of five years.

Income and Expenditure.—In the financial year 1959-60 the income of the municipality totalled Rs. 1,56,917. This amount of Rs. 1,56,917, however, excludes the extraordinary and debt heads, but includes a sum of Rs. 2,413 as closing balance of the previous year. The total income comprised revenue derived from municipal rates and taxes Rs. 53,571; income derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 31,886, grants and contributions Rs. 66,622, and income from miscellaneous sources being Rs. 2,425.

The expenditure for the same year excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,55,535, of which expenditure on public lighting and water-supply, drainage, etc., came to Rs. 57,296, on roads Rs. 4,277, expenditure on public instruction Rs. 61,336 and miscellaneous Rs. 32,606.

The secretary is the chief officer in the municipal administration and supervises the work of his subordinates. However, important decisions are taken at the meetings of the municipal committee.

Cremation and Burial Places.—The cremation and burial places are maintained and managed by the respective communities.

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Municipality.

Drainage.—Khāpā town has a natural drainage and hence no difficulties are experienced by the municipality in maintaining sanitation. There are kutcha as well as stone-lined drains. At some places water is allowed to gather in cess-pools and is then removed out of the town. To clear the town of the refuse a tractor with a trailer has been employed. A government grant of Rs. 600 was received towards this arrangement.

Roads.—Only 4.0233 km. (two and a half miles) of roads fall within the municipal limits. The roads are regularly watered. In 1959-60 a toll tax of Rs. 2,151 was collected by the municipality.

Water-supply.—A scheme, which is estimated to cost approximately Rs. 6,94,700, to supply water to the town has been drawn up and is under the consideration of the municipality. The feasibility of the scheme is being studied.

Wells and rivers form the main source of water-supply to the people inhabiting the town. In the meanwhile, with a view to discourage the use of river water for drinking purposes, pumps have been installed by the municipality on wells in five of the twelve wards, with storage tanks, each with a capacity of 3,000 gallons. This system is found to be working satisfactorily.

Education.—Primary education was made compulsory in 1956. The municipality has established separate primary schools for boys and girls. There are three primary schools for boys while for girls there is one. The municipality also runs a Montessori School and a high school recognised by the Board of Secondary Education, Vidarbha Region. The total number of students was 446 in 1960. Municipal expenses amounted to Rs. 24,641 in this regard. The municipality receives government grants from time to time.

Public Health.—A dispensary is run by the municipality where people are given free medical aid. Besides, there are two private dispensaries in the town. A maternity hospital was built in 1956 at a total cost of Rs. 20,000. It was the result of the joint endeavour on the part of the citizens, the municipal authorities and the Bhārat Sevak Samāj.

The town is susceptible to epidemics like cholera but prompt measures are taken by the municipality in the event of the outbreak of such an epidemic.

The municipality has built tin-roofed shades to accommodate the meat-market and washing platforms for washermen.

Objects.

Bhavāni Mātā Mandir.

This temple is located near the Khāpā municipality. The idol of the Goddess is reported to be very old, though the *Sabhā-maṇḍap* is a modern construction and has a terrace. The idol, which measures three feet, is made of brass and is seated on a pedestal. The idol looks majestic. On either side of the Goddess are standing two male figures made of red lead which probably are bodyguards. The *Gābhārā* is entered by a narrow door and is having a dome or *Śikhar* which is about 6.096 metres (20′) high. Outside is the *Maṇḍap* measuring 6.096 × 4.572 metres (20′ × 15′). It is supported by four massive colonnades. The

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Bhavāni Mātā Mandir.

floor is paved with marble slabs. This adds glamour and beauty to the temple. In the *Maṇḍap*, near the entrance, is a small *Homkuṇḍa* where *Yajña* is performed on all the ten days of *Navrātra*. This is a great occasion for the town populace. In *Bhādrapada* on the occasion of the *Gaṇeś Caturthī* festival, an image of Gaṇapati of unusual size is set up and worshipped. This image is always bigger than any other in the town. This constitutes one of the special features of the temple. In *Caitra* again a fair is held when many people gather to pay their respects to the Goddess. Besides this, occasionally *Kirtans* are arranged and delivered. The management of the temple is entrusted to a committee recognised by the Government. Funds are collected by way of contributions and gifts. The temple does not bear any designs of particular architectural importance.

Muralidhar Mandir.

This is the main temple of the Khāpā town and is regularly visited by the Hindus. It is situated in Patirām Mahārāj Vāḍī which is to the west of the town. A legend is current regarding the sanctity of the temple which tells that in Ayodhyānagarī there was a poor Brahmin couple who had a son named Patirām. The child which was the only support of his old parents instead of going to school had leanings towards devotion to God. One day on his refusal to go to school his parents turned him out of the house. The young boy began to wander in the forests where he came across some saints, who accepted him as their disciple. The saints imparted him education and knowledge and they also took him to various places of pilgrimage like Mathurā, Dwārkā and Kāśī. Once when Patirām was on his way to Rāmeśvar, the holy place of the Hindus, with the permission of his *gurus*, he reached a place called Koḍegāṅv which is to the north-west of Khāpā. Formerly Koḍegāṅv was a big jungle inhabited by wild animals. There was a streamlet of crystal-clear water where Patirām used to take bath thrice a day. His way of taking bath was extraordinarily unusual. He used to take all his bowels out from the mouth, clean them thoroughly well and put them back in the original place. One day he was observed by a *varaṭhī* who was a washerman by profession. The *varaṭhī* recognised him to be a great saint and fell on Patirām's feet. Patirām obtained a promise from the *varaṭhī* that he would not disclose the matter to anybody in return for which he blessed away the *varaṭhī's* poverty. But as Patirām was not sure of the *varaṭhī* keeping his promise, he came over to Khāpā and began to look after the cattle of a Brahmin and earn his livelihood. One day the Brahmin's servant who had brought food to Patirām saw him taking water from a well without the help of a rope. The news spread far and wide like wild fire and so people began to visit the place for his *Darśan*. One of these was a goldsmith by name Dhoṇḍbā Borkar who was so poor that he never had a sumptuous meal throughout his life. On the advice of Patirām he went to Nāgpūr where he got employment. Afterwards he thought of building a house for himself and while laying the foundations struck across a store of pearls which he offered to Patirām. Patirām refused to accept the wealth upon which Dhoṇḍbā built the present temple of Murlidhar for him and the idols which

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are to be seen in the temple were installed by Patirām Mahārāj. There are so many like stories told by the people about Patirām Mahāraj. He had many followers and in his commemoration the locality has been named as Patirām Mahārāj *Vāḍī*.

Muralidhar Mandir.

In the centre of the *Gabhārā* on a pedestal is the idol of Muralidhar having idols of Rakhumāi and Radhā to the left and right sides, respectively. They are all made of white marble and are in a standing posture. The temple has a grand *Maṇḍap* of modern construction, having for its support a dozen massive pillars. The floor has been paved with white marble slabs which enrich and heighten the beauty of the temple. It has also a terrace.

At the entrance to the *Gabhārā* is the *Samadhi* of Patirām Mahārāj, circular in shape. On top of the *Samādhī* are placed his *Pādukās*. People hold Patirām *Mahārāj* in high esteem and touch his *Pādukās* in reverence and pray for his blessings.

Important festivals like *Rām Navmi*, *Gokul Aṣṭamī*, *Tripuri Paurṇimā*, etc., are celebrated amidst great rejoicings. Especially from *Aśvin Paurṇimā* to *Tripuri Paurṇimā*, *Kākaḍ Ārti* (i.e., morning *pujā* and songs sung in praise of God) is performed. Besides this, in the month of *Māgha* an annual Bazar is held in commemoration of the great Saint Patirām Mahārāj who was and is still revered equally by the Hindus and the Muslims.

Kṛṣṇāji Buvā Maṭh.

This *Maṭh* houses the *Samādhī* of a couple. A certain *Buvā* by name Kṛṣṇājī thought of taking *Samādhī* but his wife, at the thought of parting away from her husband was overcome by grief and began to shed tears. Kṛṣṇājī did not swerve from his path and at the time of taking *Samādhī* he blessed his wife by placing his palm on her head and surprisingly enough she also swooned to death on the spot. The *Samādhī* to be seen in the *Maṭh* is that of this couple. It is circular in shape and is 1.829 metres (6′ feet) in height at the top of which is a *tulśi* plant. By the side of the *Samādhī* in the same *Maṭh* are placed some idols of different Gods. The *Maṭh* has a marble tile-paved *Sabhāmaṇḍap* which is 3.048 × 2.438 metres (10′ × 8′) and is supported by 4 wooden pillars. On the walls of the *Maṇḍap* are engraved in relief the images of numerous deities.

Śahid Laṣkar Śavli Dargāh.

The *dargāh* is situated to the north-west of Khāpā town and is built in memory of one Śavli who died fighting the enemies. It is said that though the head of *Śahid* Laṣkar Śavli was separated from the trunk, the trunk went on fighting for some time. The *dargāh* was built on the spot where the trunk fell. The wall enclosing the *dargāh* is in a dilapidated condition. The entrance door is a solid work in masonry and measures 1.829 × 1.219 metres (6′ × 4′). On entering, to the left, there are sort of cavity-like shades in the wall where people coming from far-off places cook their food. By the side of it is the *idgāh* which is used as a prayer place by the Muslims. In the centre, on a plinth measuring about 12.192 × 9.144 × 3.048 metres (40′ × 30′ × 10′) is the tomb of *Śahid* Laṣkar Śavli and around his *dargāh* are the tombs of the

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Śahid Laṣkar Śavli Dargāh.

soldiers who also died fighting along with him. It has been proposed to construct a shade on the tomb of *Śahid* Śavli. A handsome donation is offered by a resident of Khāpā for the purpose. In one of the corners of the *dargāh* is a banyan tree with its copious growth providing shade nearly for all the tombs. The area of the *dargāh* measures 24.3840 × 21.3360 metres (80′ × 70′).

Urus is held here and likewise the festival of *Muharram* when *Muslims* as well as Hindus meet together to pay their respects to *Śahid* Laṣkar Śavli.

KONDHALI.

Kondhaḷī : A large agricultural village of the Kaṭol *tahsīl*, lying 17.703 km. (11 miles) south by west of Kaṭol and connected by a P.W.D. road. It is also connected with Nāgpūr from which it is 54.718 km. (34 miles) distant, by the old Nāgpūr-Amrāvatī main road which is now known as the national highway running *via* Bazārgāṅv. Its population as per 1961 Census is 6,242. Kondhaḷī was at one time a depot for the important trade between Nāgpūr and Amrāvatī, but after the railway was built it lost much of its importance. It has a weekly market held on every Wednesday and is one of the most frequented in the *tahsīl*. It also lies in a more or less detached cotton-growing area and has a brisk business in the transport of cotton which is largely carried on by *Telis*. Most of the Government forest reserves of the Tahsīl lie around Kondhaḷī. The village has a ginning factory. It has a high school, Urdu primary school, Marāṭhī primary school, a village post office and a police station. Recently the village has been electrified. It has the office of the Forest Ranger and comes under *Grāmpañcāyat* administration.

KUHI.

Kuhī : A large village in the Umreḍ *tahsīl*, situated on the bank of the Nāg river, 19.31 km. (12 miles) north of Umreḍ town and 35.40 km. (22 miles) from Nāgpūr. According to 1961 Census the population of the village is 4,163. Kuhī is noted for its mango groves and guavas and has one of the largest tanks in the district. The ruined shrine and temple of Rukhar *Mahārāj* are held in great veneration. This saint is credited with miraculous powers and it is said that on one occasion he fed 500 beggars with two loaves of bread, which remained intact after all had been served. On another occasion the giver of a marriage-feast found himself without provision for his guests, but the saint supplied a small measure of rice, which when cooked sufficed to feed a hundred people. Not less curious are the legends connected with the tombs of two Muhammedans, whose blessings are invoked by the Hindus and Muslims alike for the cure of their cattle.

The village has a weekly cattle market and is visited by traders from Kāmpṭee every year to make purchases of grain. Kuhī is a railway station on the Nāgpūr-Nāgbhir railway route which has added to its importance. It has a primary and a middle school, a post office and a police station which was formerly just a police outpost. Of late a health centre, a veterinary hospital and a large

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number of co-operative societies have been established. The bricks and tiles manufactured here are well-known in the district. A motorable road is under construction which when completed would link the village with Nāgpūr-Cāndā road thus facilitating transport and communications.

MANSAR.

Mansar : Mansar is a village on the Great Northern road, 24.140 km. (15 miles) north of Kāmptee and 8.047 km. (5 miles) from Rāmṭek. The road to Rāmṭek takes off here from the Great Northern road which is now called Nāgpūr-Jubbulpore national highway. It has a fine tank from which rice, betel-vine and wheat are irrigated, and after which the village is called *Maṇisar* or the Jewel Tank. Mansar is one of the eight sacred places surrounding Rāmṭek, and pilgrims to the great shrine come here to bathe in the tank on the day of *Caitra Paurṇimā* when a fair is held. The fair is attended by about 2,000 people coming from a distance of 32.18 km. (20 miles) around. The village is overhung by low hills, the southern slopes of which are strewn with brickbats, while here and there the foundations of brick walls crop up through the surface. Parts of the old walls have been excavated and the bricks taken for building houses in the village. At the eastern end of the hills on level ground near the corner of the tank is a great mound, the lower part of which appears to be composed of solid brickwork. It has all the appearance of the stump of a Buddhist *stupa*. About the base of the mound, bricks have been dug out which appear to have belonged to the broad walls of massive buildings. The bricks measured 0.525 by 0.285 by 0.08 metre (17½" by 9½" by 3") and are cemented with mud. The area covered with the brick foundations is too small for a town or civil settlement, but large enough for a religious colony, and the place may have once been a Buddhist monastery. No images or stone-carvings are to be found except one broken figure, which the people believe to be that of the female demon Hidimbā. She is a mythological personage in the Mahābhārata, who saved the Pāndava brothers from being devoured in their sleep by her brother, the giant Hiḍimba. She had fallen in love with Bhīma and he married her as a reward for her action. Many of the adventures of the Pāṇḍavas as related in the great Hindu epic have been assigned by rural tradition to different places in the Nāgpūr district, but such stories cannot be considered to have any historical truth. About the tank it is related that formerly any traveller who halted for the night on its banks would find brass cooking-vessels floating on the water for his use. The only condition was that he must return them to the tank in the morning. But one covetous traveller did not return them and since then they have ceased to appear. A temple of Kṛṣṇa, the deity of the *Mahānubhāv* stands by the tank, and a local gathering of the *Mahānubhāv* is held at Mansar in the month of *Caitra* (April).

Manganese ore deposits occur in the hills near the village and are being worked by the Central India Mining Company. Beautiful orange and deep-orange spessartite crystals are found

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in the pit known as the 'Kāmptee Lady'. The betel-vine grown at Mansar is of a somewhat bitter variety and was much liked by the Bhosle Rāṇī, Bakā Bāi. Since the removal of the Court the leaf has become less fashionable and now commands a much lower price than that of Rāmṭek. The village has a traveller's bungalow. It has a sub-station of electric power-house.

MAKARDHOKDA.

Makarḍhokḍā : A large village in the Umreḍ *tahsīl*, about 12.87 km. (8 miles) west of Umreḍ and 25.75 km. (16 miles) from Borī station. It is on the Borī-Umreḍ road and is excellently situated on fertile level land near the Āmb river. It is also connected to the Nāgpur-Cāndā road by a pucca road which passes through Uṭī village on its way. The population of the village according to 1961 Census is 2,507. A number of Koṣṭi weavers reside here and there is also a considerable number of *Bhāmṭās* (nomadic tribe) who weave coarse canvas matting. They also grow hemp. The cultivators sublet their fields to them for a year for this purpose, as the cultivation of the crop renders the land more productive. The village has a school and a post office. It is administered by a *Grāmpañcāyat*. Formerly it was a part of the Bhosle *Rājā's* estate.

MANDHAL.

Māndhāḷ : A large village in Umreḍ *tahsīl*, 17.70 km. (11 miles) from Umreḍ towards Veltur situated on the Āmb river. The population of the village according to 1961 Census is 3,835. The village contains a fine tank and on its bank is a small shrine erected to the memory of one Māroti *Mahārāj*, a Brahmin devotee about whom there are several legends, one being to the effect that he had a small tail. It is also said that he addressed all women as 'Mother' and would suck from their breasts. There was formerly a cloth-weaving industry, but most of the *Koṣṭīs* have left the place. The village has a primary and a middle school and a post office. It has *Grāmpañcāyat* which looks after its administrative affairs. The land of this village is fertile. Chillis are produced in abundance and the village ranks first in the whole of *tahsīl* in this respect.

MOHPA.

Mohpā, in Sāoner *tahsīl*, is situated in 21°19′ N. and 78°50′ E. on a tributary of the river Candrabhāgā. It is at a distance of 33.796 km. (twenty-one miles) from Nāgpūr, the district headquarters and 12.874 km. (eight miles) to the north-west of Kaḷameśvar. The Candrabhāgā cuts the town into two halves. The town was subject to frequent floods during the rainy season, the worst on record being that of 1906 when large areas were inundated and hundreds of houses washed away. Now a dam has been constructed across the river which has not only saved the town from the fury of nature but has brought large tracts of land under irrigation downstream. According to the Census of 1961 the population of the town is 5,561. Due to the excellent fertility of the soil, the people of this region are well-to-do and prosperous. The weekly market held at Mohpā is one of the most important in the *tahsīl* particularly the cattle market, which is perhaps the largest in the district. Garden produce is largely dealt in and there is also a fairly good trade in cotton.

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Municipality.

The municipality at Mohpā was established in February, 1953. It has an area of 1.9 square miles under its jurisdiction. The total number of councillors who constitute the municipal committee is 10. One seat is reserved for women. The president is chosen by the councillors from amongst themselves. The vice-president is either nominated by the president or is elected.

There are five sub-committees set up by the municipal committee and they function as per by-laws of the municipal Act.

Income and Expenditure.—In the year 1961-62, the income accrued to the municipality from various sources totalled Rs. 1,48,315.42. It excludes income under extraordinary and debt heads. The income heads are municipal rates and taxes contributing Rs. 97,516.65; realization under special acts Rs. 1,653.29; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 10,289.20; grants and contributions for special and general purposes Rs. 34,114.78 and from miscellaneous sources Rs. 4,387.00.

During the same year the expenditure incurred by the municipality excluding that on extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,50,135.84. The deficit was met by drawing upon previous year's balance. The following heads show the expenditure incurred: general administration and collection charges Rs. 21,620.50; public safety Rs. 11,106.39; public health and convenience Rs. 86,792.37; public instruction Rs. 27,225.37; contributions Rs. 1,701.00 and miscellaneous Rs. 1,690.00.

Administrative Organisation.—There are no separate departments to run the municipal administration. It is looked after by the secretary. He is directly responsible to the president.

Municipal Works.—The municipality has constructed a market at a cost of Rs. 44,600. It has a *sarāi* attached to it which is used by the people coming to the cattle market.

Health.—There is an allopathic dispensary which is under the management of the municipality. There is also a veterinary dispensary. It is run by the government. The municipality shares 50 per cent of the costs incurred in this behalf.

Drainage.—The town does not have any special type of drainage. Neither are there pucca drains. All the drains are 'kutchā'.

Water-supply.—Wells, private as well as public, are the only source of water-supply.

Education.—Primary education is compulsory and is under municipal management. During 1961-62, there were 334 pupils receiving primary education. In addition to the municipal primary schools, the government maintains one primary school exclusively for girls. There is a high school, established in 1911 and run by the Mohpā Education Society.

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Roads.—There are no asphalted roads in the town. The metalled roads measure four and a half furlongs while the length of unmetalled roads is two miles and five furlongs.

Cremation and Burial Places.—Cemeteries and cremation places are managed and maintained by the respective communities.

Amenities.—The municipality maintains a small library.

Objects.

Mohpā Gaḍhi.

The *Gaḍhī* which stood on the south of the Mohpā town is all in ruins and only the few remains indicate that sometime in the past there stood on the place a ground fort popularly called Mohpā Gaḍhī. It was built by a Marāṭhā nobleman by the name Khaṇḍāgaḷe, who created for himself a *jahāgīr* at the place. The *Jahāgīr* was later transferred to the Bhosles of Nāgpūr. The Bhosle handed it over to one of his servants by the name Kādarali who was killed in the war of independence of 1857. At the spot where formerly the *Gaḍhī* stood is now located a maternity hospital and a government primary school for girls.

Mahādev Mandir or Harālaya.

The temple of Mahādev was originally constructed by one Śri Pāmajī Cimoṭe who later gifted it to a Tāmbuḷī Brāhmaṇ. The stone inscription adjacent to the temple specifically enumerates the event. The temple, in architecture, is similar to the one that stands on the banks of Godāvari at Nāśik built by Ahilyābāi. The temple is beautifully decorated and the sculpture and engravings in the temple are a treat to the eyes. The inner of the temple measures 20.903 m.^{2} (15′ × 15′) and contains a Śivliṅg. The Liṅg is shadowed by an image of *Trimurti* (Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Maheś) along with *Śeṣa,* all made of copper and measuring about 0.91 metre (3 feet) in height. In addition to the *Liṅg* there are idols of Goddess Annapurṇā, God Gaṇapati and many others of Nāga Gods and Goddesses. Exactly opposite to the Śivliṅg on the wall is a beautiful frame picture of God Śaṅkar. Quite close to the temple flows the river Madhukalyāṇī which adds to the glamour of the temple especially so on full-moon days when the pinnacle shines in the moonlit night and when the temple structure is beautifully reflected in the river down below. From the architecture the temple does not seem to belong to remote history. The architecture has the influence of mid-history sculpture. On the two sides of the entrance to the temple stand erect the statues of Jay and Vijay, the traditional and legendary door-keepers of Bhagvān Viṣṇu. On the door is one carved picture, depicting numerous episodes from the Purāṇic period. On both sides of the temple are the idols of God Gaṇapati and Māruti in warrior dress. The temple is supposed to be 175 years old.

The other places worth a visit in the Mohpā town are the Viṭṭhal *Mandir* built by one Śri Bhagvānjī Deśmukh and the numerous wells with stone steps built by one Śri Jogobā Taras to remove the scarcity of water felt by the residents of the Mohpā town. It is also reported that the living exponent of the Theosophist Philosophy, Śri Kṛṣṇamurti, was born in his pre-life about 2,400 years back in Mohpā town when he assumed the name of Bhoj Yallam *Ṛṣi.*

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Objects.

Temple of Goddess Tukāi.

Like the Viśveśvarī temple, the temple of Goddess Tukāi is also reported to be old. The sculpture of the idol shows that the idol must have been made in historical times. It is held in high esteem by all sections of the Hindu Community. The temple has a lowly constructed ceiling. The idol of the Goddess has four hands, one of the hands is on the hips, one held in a blessing position. The other two having their middle fingers closed and the index and the last finger is of a considerable length. The idol reminds the visitor of the statue of Sītā in the same temple at Rāmṭek with wide eyes, straight nose, a beautifully decorated crown, earrings and excellent pieces of neck and hand ornaments. All these enhance the appearance of the idol and make it pleasing to look at.

Tukārām Mahārāj Maṭh.

The *Maṭh* is in commemoration of Śri Tukārām Mahārāj (a namesake of the famous Marāṭhī saint poet Tukārām) who was born at Mohpā on *Vaiśākha Śuddha Saptami* in *Śake* 1816. The *samādhī* is built at the spot which was the birth place of Śri Tukārām *Mahārāj*. The monument measures about 0.91 metre (3′) in height and is built of pure white marble. The inner measures about 3.05 × 3.05 metres (10′ × 10′) and presents a construction of varied marble combinations. Two festivals are held, one in *Āśvin* and the other in *Caitra*. On *Caitra Śuddha Ekādaśi* a chariot procession is held in great eclat.

Sacchidānand Devasthān.

The *Devasthān* contains the monument of Śri Saccidānand, a disciple of Śri Accutānand in the family of the great poet saint Śri Eknāth. Śri Saccidānand was an oldest devotee of Bhagvān Śri Kṛṣṇa and spent his life in the propagation of the principles of the *Bhāgvat dharma*. The monument is built in stone and measures about 1.82 metres (6′) in height. The entrance to the *samādhī* is through doors which are all made of brass. On the top of the *samādhī* are placed the legendary footwear (*pādukā*) of Śri Saccidānand. The footwear are made of black stone. Very close to the *samādhī* of Śri Saccidānand is the monument erected in honour of Śri Vāmansvāmī, a disciple of Śri Saccidānand. It is 1.52 metres (five feet) in height. Both these monuments are erected at the place which was the former residence of Śri Saccidānand. In the old god-room of this residence are the idols of Bhagvān Śri Kṛṣṇa, Satyabhāmā and Rukhmiṇi with the idol of Śri Kṛṣṇa in the centre. All the idols are carved out of black rock. The temple thus formed is reported to be about 200 years old and is built in a simple style. The temple has a pinnacle which is said to be one brought by Raghujī Bhosle during his campaigns in the province of Bengal. Two festivities are celebrated on *Jyeṣṭha Śuddha Ekādaśi* and *Mārgaśirṣa Śuddha Ekādaśi*, respectively when considerable number of devotees assemble from surrounding areas. The festivities continue for four days. It is said that the idol of Bhagvān Kṛṣṇa contained in the temple was brought by Raghujī Bhosle (second) from Kaṭak. The temple possesses *inām* lands in Lohagaḍ, Budhalā and Dhan.

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Objects.

Viśveśvari Temple.

It is one of the oldest temples in Mohpā reported to be 400 years old. The temple contains an idol of Goddess *Viśveśvarī* about 0.76 metres (two and a half feet) high and all made of sandalwood. Roundabout the idol of Goddess *Viśveśarī* are the petty idols of the *bhaktagaṇas* of *Viśveśvari* which number about 20. The temple has a low ceiling. The entire structure is devoid of any architecture. The Goddess is worshipped by a cobbler and is held in veneration by all the Hindus. A considerable fair is held in honour of the Goddess on *Caitra Śuddha* 15th when many devotees gather to pay their homage to the Goddess.

MOUDA.

Moudā is a large village in the Rāmṭek *tahsīl*, 33.796 km. (21 miles) from Nāgpūr on the Great Eastern road which is now called Nāgpūr-Calcutta national highway, and situated on the Kanhān river. It has a population of about 3,356 according to 1961 Census. Moudā is surrounded by five mango groves and has an old *satī* pillar, on the face of which is a rudely carved female figure. It is famous for weaving industry and rice trade. The village has a police station, a school, a high school and an inspection bungalow.

There are three primary schools which meet the needs of the village. The village comes under the stage VI Development Block and has an office of the same. There is a primary health centre run by the Director, Public Health, Mahārāṣṭra State, Pooṇā. A civil and veterinary dispensary is run and managed by the *Panchayat Samiti*. The village also has a post office and a branch of the Nāgpūr Central Co-operative Bank. Recently the village has started receiving tap water-supply.

MOVAD..

Situation and population.

Movāḍ (21°25′ N and 78°25′ E, P. 5,802) is a small but flourishing municipal town of the Kaṭol *tahsīl*, situated along the Wardhā river, in the north-west corner of the district, 93.322 km. (58 miles) from Nāgpūr. The population of the town as per 1961 Census is 5,841. The tract of the country surrounding Movāḍ town is one of the richest in the district.

History.

Movāḍ appears to have some kind of corporate existence in remote times. The old Muhammedan inhabitants profess to have seen some deeds granted by Auraṅgzeb to the people of the town. The Muslim population is gradually migrating to other areas. The town was situated on debatable land between the Hyderābād and Nāgpūr territories. The land owners used to divide their tributes of land revenue between the two powers in proportion to the strength of each for the time being. The present municipality was constituted in 1867, and the town has been prosperous ever since. It was decided to abolish the municipality as the town is very small but taking into consideration the excellent work it has done in public interests and public utility, the proposal was dropped. As the financial position of the municipality improves it spends accordingly to provide the people with better civic amenities.

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MOVAD.

Present Condition.

During the decade ending 1901, the average income of the municipality was Rs. 3,600 but now it has risen gradually. In the year 1961-62 the income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 88,231. In the same year the expenditure incurred came to Rs. 85,504. Up-till 1906, Movāḍ was considered to be the dirtiest town in the *tahsīl*. But the reforms carried out by its leading residents and the municipal committee have resulted into much improvement.

Buildings.

A view of the Movāḍ town can best be had from the high ground on the bank of the Wardhā river towards Khairgāṅv. From this point the five old stone revetments built by the Marāṭhās, and the clean white-washed buildings arranged round the open market place, present a scene of tidiness and well being that will not be easily equalled. To the north a large embankment is built for protection from the river. The embankment is being raised high by 1.524 metres (5′) more as a result of the floods hitting the town and the surrounding villages in 1961. The municipal office, the dispensary, the high school and the police station, which all open on to the market place, are well constructed buildings of more than usual pretensions. The town has a high school, primary schools, a police station and veterinary and civil dispensaries. It has also an office of the Mahārāṣṭra State Electricity Board. A child welfare centre was started in 1958. There is also a privately run theatre.

The town is connected with Nārkheḍ and Kaṭol by bus routes.

Trade.

Movāḍ has benefited considerably by the decay of the old Āmner town which used to attract all the produce and the trade of the north-western part of the *tahsīl*. Railway caused the final downfall of Āmner, and its northern trade found its natural market at Movāḍ. The weekly market is held on every Wednesday.

Miscellaneous.

Movāḍ is well-known for its handloom cloth and there are as many as 400 persons engaged in this occupation. Movāḍ is still recognised for its skilled carpenters and fine pieces of furniture. There is one very old temple of Kṛṣṇa which was built by a rich moneylender by name Candravān Jagannāth Chatrapure. There is also a mosque reported to be some 100 years old.

Municipality.

Movāḍ is a municipal town situated on the banks of the river Wardhā in Nāgpūr district.

Constitution.—Established in May 1867, it had an area of 12.95 km.^{2} (5 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction in 1951.

Twelve members constitute the municipal committee. Out of these, one seat is reserved for women and one for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The president is elected from amongst the elected members and the vice-president is nominated by the president.

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To carry out the various functions efficiently the following sub-committees have been formed: (i) Finance sub-committee, (ii) Public Health sub-committee, (iii) Public Works sub-committee, (iv) Building and Nazul sub-committee, (v) Education sub-committee and (vi) Waterworks sub-committee. To facilitate their work, the municipal committee has delegated certain powers to these sub-committees. It holds the heads of these sub-committees responsible for the disposal and transaction of business of their respective departments.

Income and Expenditure.—During the financial year ending March 1962, the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads but including the previous year's closing balance, amounted to Rs. 89,431, which comprised municipal rates and taxes contributing Rs. 24,574, revenue derived from conservancy Rs. 5,519, from markets Rs. 10,850, education, medical and public health accounting for Rs. 47,288 and the previous year's closing balance carried forward, Rs. 1,200. During the same year, expenditure on the corresponding items excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 85,504; which included expenditure on general administration Rs. 18,217; water-supply Rs. 68; conservancy Rs. 10,815; markets Rs. 217; roads Rs. 286, education, medical and public health Rs. 55,801.

Cremation and Burial grounds.—The municipality does not maintain any cremation and burial places. However, these places are managed by the respective communities.

Drainage.—There are '*kutcha*' drains as well as stone-lined gutters. The water is allowed to gather in cess-pools and then it is removed out of the town by the municipal scavengers. An expenditure of Rs. 1,062 was incurred on the repairs and upkeep of the drains during the financial year under review.

Water-supply.—The municipality has no water-supply scheme to provide water to its populace. At present wells form the principal source of water-supply.

Education.—There are separate primary schools, for boys and girls, run by the municipality to implement the programme of compulsory primary education. Compulsory education has been in force since 1953. The total strength of the boy's primary school was 405 with 11 teachers, while that of the girls was 244 with seven lady teachers. The municipality received a grant of Rs. 448 during the year under review as government aid towards the enforcement of compulsory primary education.

The municipality also manages a high school to impart education up to the secondary level. Its total strength is 411. The school has 16 teachers. During the year 1962 the municipality received an income of Rs. 46,915 by way of fees and revenue from education and grants for educational purposes. Correspondingly it had to incur an expenditure to the extent of Rs. 52,177 for the purpose of running the school and implementing the programme of primary education.

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Public Health.—A medical dispensary is run by the municipality which gives free medical aid and advice to the poor people. This has gone a long way towards the improvement of the health standard of the public. Special arrangement is made to vaccinate the people in times of epidemics.

Recently, a veterinary dispensary has been opened by the government towards which the municipality contributed a sum of Rs. 1,500.

NAGARDHAN.

Nagardhan is a large village 6.437 km. (four miles) south of Rāmṭek, with a population of 2,920 in 1961 as against 2,647 in 1951. The name is a corruption of the older one of Nandivardhan, which is mentioned conjointly with Nāgpūr in a copper plate found at Devḷī in Wardhā district dated in the year 940 A.D. Nagardhan was thus an old town and was formerly of considerable importance as it gave its name to the district. The local tradition is that it was founded by a *Suryavaṅśi* king Nand, but Mr. Hira Lal supposes it to have been established by a king named Nandivardhan belonging to the Śail dynasty, which is mentioned in the Rāgholi plate discovered by Mr. C. E. Low in Bālāghāṭ. The village has a temple of Koṭeśvar Mahādev built in the *Hemāḍpanti* style without mortar. The *liṅg* in the temple is broken by a crack about three feet deep. The story goes that once there was a Gavaḷī woman who worshipped Mahādev very ardently and always, before she went out to sell milk, offered some to the God. In return He caused her milk to increase and she made much money by its sale. Her husband, not understanding how she gets the money, suspected her of bad conduct, and seeing her visits to the temple, concluded that she meets her lover there. One day accordingly he followed her with a spear, intending to surprise and slay the couple. The woman seeing him approaching in wrath prayed to Mahādev to shelter her, and accordingly the *liṅg* opened and she crept inside. It has never quite closed again, and since then the crack has remained. The enraged husband struck the *liṅg* with his spear and made a hole which is still visible. The famous fair of Koṭeśvar Mahādev is held on *Māgh vadhya* 14, i.e., on *Mahāśivrātra* day and is attended by about 5,000 people. Besides the usual articles like copper and brass vessels and toys, chillis, brinjals and green vegetables are sold on a large scale.

Near the temple is a tank, known locally as *Śaṅkh* (conch-shell) *Tirtha* or *Śukla* (white), which Mr. Hira Lal suggests may be the *Haṅs* (Swan) *Tirtha* mentioned in the inscription of the temple of Lakṣmaṇ at Rāmṭek. The inscription states that bathing in the *Haṅs-Tirtha* makes one clean of sin, like the whiteness of a swan. Thus, the epithet of white may have come to be attributed to the tank, and the name *Haṅs* may have been changed to *Śaṅkh*. There is a fort said to have been built by the Bhosles with brick walls resembling those of Cāndā town, and at some distance is a large field known as the *Junā Killā* or old fort. This was probably the site of the fortress of the early kings. In the field large bricks like those at Mansar are found. Nagardhan is said to be the first place to which the *Ponvār* Rajputs came

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after leaving Dhārā, their original home in Māḷvā. A number of Jāṅgrā Lodhis reside here, who are perhaps the descendants of the fighting classes. The village has a primary school and a post office.

NAGPUR CITY.

Nāgpūr City (T. Nāgpūr) lying between 21°5′ N and 79°5′ E is situated at a distance of 836.680 km. (520 miles) from Bombay and 1,128.15 km. (701 miles) from Calcutta at the junction of the Bombay-Hovrāh, Delhi-Madrās, Nāgpūr-Rāmṭek, Nāgpūr-Chindvāḍā and Nāgpūr-Nāgbhir railway lines. It is 362.025 km. (225 miles) from Jubbulpore by rail, 716.005 km. (445 miles) from Allāhābād and 907.476 km. (564 miles) from Kanpur. Hyderābād (Deccan) is 511.662 km. (318 miles) distant by road. The foot hills of the Sātpuḍā range are 40.234 km. (25 miles) to the north and the city stands in comparatively level country on the banks of the small Nāg river from which it has taken its name. The site is low but well sloped and to the west and north there are ridges of steep basaltic rock. The area of the city is now 217.56 km.^{2} (84 square miles), the civil station having been merged in 1951.

Population.

The modern city first gathered about the ancient fort of the Goṇḍ *Rājās*. About a century and a half ago it was a collection of small hamlets scattered over a fertile plain, but it has long been an overcrowded and spreading mass of habitation. The present population of the city is 643,659.

History

The present city of Nāgpūr was founded at the beginning of the 18th century by the Goṇḍ *Rājā*, Bakht Buland. It subsequently became the capital of the Bhosles, was sacked and burnt in 1765 and again partially burnt in 1811 by the *Peṇḍhāris*, but it grew with the growth of the Bhosle Kingdom and was considerably improved by the *Rājās* of that dynasty. In 1817 it witnessed the battles of Sitābuldī and Nāgpūr, which secured British influence in these territories, and in 1853 it lapsed with the kingdom to the British Rāj to become the capital of the Central Provinces in 1861. At the time of the upheaval of 1857 there was but little disturbance in the city. A riot occurred in 1896 at the commencement of the famine, and another in 1899 when plague preventive measures were first enforced, but the British succeeded in bringing the situation under control by suppression. The growth and importance of the town was quickened by the advent of the then Great Indian Peninsula Railway, now called the Central Railway, in 1867. With the attainment of Independence in 1947 and the formation of Madhya Pradeś State it became and continued to be the capital of that State till the reorganisation of States in 1956. At present it forms one of the most important cities of Mahārāṣṭra State. It is also called the second capital of Mahārāstra as at least one session of the legislative assembly is held at Nāgpūr, every year.

Description.

The city of Nāgpūr has been naturally divided into two parts, one lying east and south of Sitābuldī Fort and the railway station and the other, known as civil lines, lying to the west and north of these.

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NAGPUR CITY.

Description.

The railway station has been rebuilt on a much larger scale with a majestic and towering front view. A traveller coming out of the main gate of the railway station catches a beautiful view of the Sitābuldī fort. The road from the railway station runs in three directions, *viz.*, Sadar, Sitābuldī and Haṅsāpurī. The road from behind the railway station (via orange market), leads towards Jummā *Talāv*, a large rectangular lake built by the Bhosles and improved in later years. Now in the middle of the lake a beautiful garden with a tiny temple is to be seen and this has added more fascination to the spot.

Beyond this lake the old main street runs through the Jummā *Darvāzā*, remnant of the city wall and leads directly to the centre of the city. Here stood the old Bhosle palace which was burnt down in 1864. Part of its site is occupied by the Town Hall and opposite this is the police station. To the south lies the Sakkardarā garden. Along the road leading to Sakkardarā, to the right is situated the Mohotā Science College and opposite to it lies the residential colony called Reśambāg.

The main business street of the city is the Haṅsāpurī Road which runs from west to east. At the eastern end where the Bhaṇḍārā road runs out is the site of the Itvārī Bazar. Along this road at Gāndhī *Bāg* a residential colony for police families has been constructed. In this area are situated many saw-mills. It has become the busiest and the most thickly populated area of Nāgpūr. Some eighty years ago Nāgpūr could be described as a mere huddle of habitations. It had no metalled roads or wide streets but only narrow lanes and paths of beaten clay which became bogs of mud in the rainy season, and it contained many unsightly and insanitary ponds and waste spaces. But today the face of the city has been completely changed. A network of broad and handsome roads has been built connecting the different parts of the city which gleam in the sunshine. The railway station as has been stated elsewhere has been practically rebuilt on a grand scale and has become one of the most important junctions of India, where Bombay-Hovrāh, Delhi-Madrās, Nāgpūr-Rāmṭek, Nāgpūr-Chindvāḍā and Nāgpūr-Nāgbhir railway routes meet. The water-supply from Ambāzarī lake, first brought to the city in 1873 and since then from time to time enlarged, was inadequate to meet the demand and hence the waters of the Gorevāḍā tank and the Kanhān river had to be tapped. The Khāparkheḍā Thermal Power Station, commissioned in 1950, provides electricity to the city. The city has a fair natural drainage in the Nāg river. The corporation has taken up the work of constructing underground drainage system which is estimated to cost Rs. 159 lakhs. The system, when completed, would meet one of the long-felt needs of the city.

The city has no great claims to picturesque beauty but when viewed from higher lands the slopes of Sitābuldī hills form a fine background to the waters of the Jummā lake, and the crowded lanes and streets are so screened by the greenery of many trees that only the chimneys of the mills and factories reveal the presence of a city.

CHAPTER 19

Places.

NAGPUR CITY.

Description.

The part of the city popularly called Civil Lines, lying west and north of the railway and of Sitābuldī hill, has a much better natural site. In Bhosle times it was the garden suburb. Since then great improvements have been carried out and gardens of striking scenery have been laid out. In 1891, on a steep isolated hill to the north of Sitābuldī, the Government House was built. Beyond this runs a longer ridge on which stands the Roman Catholic Seminary and Retreat, a tall and solid building. Under these hills to the south lies the flat plain, laid out on the usual Indian lines with wide roads and compounds, cricket and foot-ball grounds, polo grounds, a race course (where no races take place now), and a golf course. The older part is a park of trees from which only the larger buildings show, the Roman Catholic Cathedral, the English Church, the Museum, the Club House and the Victoria Institute. The new secretariat building is prominent and opposite stands the towering building of the General Post Office built in red bricks. In the vicinity are the majestic buildings of the High Court, Circuit House, Reserve Bank of India, and the Municipal Corporation. Beyond these, to the south, several houses have been constructed for the government officers. On a fine site near the Telaṅkheḍī lake the building of the club faces the defunct race course and the new polo ground. Much of the part of this plain has been planted with trees and these plantations give a picturesque view to the plain. The ground to the north of the hills called Ṭākḷī is a little elevated and is within easy reach of the railway. Several new bungalows have been recently built here by private individuals and more are being constructed. There has been much building extension from Ṭākḷī northwards to Kāmpṭee.

Orange cultivation and handloom weaving.

Nāgpūr is noted in India for its orange cultivation and for the cotton and silk fabrics woven by the *Koṣṭī* (handloom weavers). Despite the keen competition of mill-made cloth, the handlooms still attract the attention of a considerable number of buyers. Nāgpūr is by far the biggest orange market in India. Since the advent of the railway, Nāgpūr has become one of the leading towns of industrial and commercial activity in India.

Cotton Mills and Factories.

Empress Mills and the Model Mills are the most prominent and occupy an important position in the cotton textile manufacturing of Nāgpūr. The Empress Mills were opened in 1877. Since then from time to time they have been greatly expanded and revitalised.

Manganese Mines.

In recent years the mining of manganese and coal in the district and in the neighbouring districts has added to the trade of Nāgpūr. The Indian Bureau of Mines has established its office at Nāgpūr. The railways have given impetus to trade and have eased the transport problem. The mineral wealth of the district has enriched the city of Nāgpūr.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

NAGPUR CITY.

Printing Presses and Newspapers.

In the city there are nearly ten leading presses besides the government press and a considerable number of small presses. The newspapers* of the city include two English papers, three Marāṭhī and three Hindī. Thus, Nāgpūr has adequate means of keeping its people informed on all local and international topics of importance.

General Trade.

Apart from the big factories and cotton mills the general trade has flourished to a great extent. The chief items of wholesale trade are orange, cotton, jowar, wheat, rice, timber, firewood, kerosene oil, cloth, food-stuffs, leather goods, tobacco, medicines and tin. The trade in wood and timber is especially heavy and there are a number of saw-mills and furniture marts. The import of timber is accompanied by great activity in brick-making owing to the constant demand for new houses and buildings. The installations of oil-pumping sets in the neighbourhood of the railway station are numerous. Several decent shops of crockery have been established during the last ten years. The position of milk supply has considerably improved with the operation of Nāgpūr Milk Scheme on the lines of Āārey Milk Colony at Bombay.

Public Institutions and Offices.

At Nāgpūr several government offices are established. It is the headquarters of the Divisional Commissioner, the Deputy Inspector General of Police[1] and the Conservators of Forests of Nāgpūr and Cāndā circles. Near the District Court a new building for *Tahsīl* office has been erected. At Nāgpūr is a bench of the High Court. Nāgpūr has civil and criminal courts and a number of other government offices. It has a broadcasting station of All India Radio.

Jails and Asylums.

Besides these, there is the Central Jail. The chief industries of the jail are carpet-weaving and upholstering in cane. There is also an asylum for lunatics.

Gardens.

Nāgpūr in olden days had very few spots for recreation. In addition to the old gardens of Telankhedī, Mahārājbāg and Sakkardarā many gardens like Gāndhī Bāg, Ambāzarī and Śukravār Bāg have sprung up under the aegis of the Nāgpūr Municipal Corporation. The Mahārājbāg is the principal public garden of Nāgpūr. It contains a fair zoological collection and of late an aviary has also been constructed. The Ambāzarī garden is always full of activity and is lively in the evenings. Close to Sitābuldī stands the Museum which contains an excellent collection of archaeological remains.

Religious Institutions.

The city has many shrines dedicated to Hindu Gods, a mention of which appears elsewhere. Nāgpūr is the headquarters of a Roman Catholic diocese and has a cathedral. a convent and a seminary.

* More details in Chapter 18.

[1]Now Police Commissioner, Nagpur, is in charge of the City.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

NAGPUR CITY.

Military and Police.

The town of Kāmptee lies 10 miles to the north of Nāgpūr and the only regular force in the city itself is the 118 Infantry Battalion of the territorial army stationed in the fort of Sitabuldi. Police force has been considerably reinforced and reorganised since the reorganisation of States and now there is regular patrolling by the police. The head police station is known as *Kotvāli*.

Educational Institutions.

Nāgpūr is considered to be a great seat of learning. It has two Science Colleges, three Arts Colleges, one Agricultural, one Commerce, a Basic Training College, a Government Polytechnic, a Law College, a Veterinary College and Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇ Institute of Technology and many more primary, secondary and other educational institutions. Formerly colleges in Nāgpūr were affiliated to the Allāhābād University but with the establishment of the Nāgpūr University in 1943 all the colleges are now affiliated to this University.

Medical Institutions.

The chief medical institutions of Nāgpūr are the Medical College and Hospital (situated near Hanuman Nagar), the Mayo Hospital, Muir Memorial Hospital, Daga Hospital and a number of others which adequately serve their purpose. The old hospitals have been enlarged and expanded and new ones are set up. There are also private hospitals, dispensaries and clinics.

As the capital of Bhosles in the past and the State of Madhya Pradesh in recent times, Nāgpūr has glorious traditions and the city presents a fine blend of old and new. Since historical times Nāgpūr has been culturally, historically, and commercially an important place. To-day Nāgpūr is having the distinction of being an important administrative centre. The population of the city according to 1961 Census was 643,659.

Nāgpūr Municipal Corporation.

Constitution.—The present Municipal Corporation came into being as a result of the amalgamation of the old municipal committee and the civil station sub-committee in 1951. At present it covers an area of 217.56 km.^{2} (84 square miles) which is much more expansive as compared to the corresponding figure of only 20.72 km.^{2} (eight square miles) in 1908. To facilitate the execution of municipal functions, the area of the corporation is divided into a number of well-marked wards. The city at present has 42 such wards.

The Nāgpūr Corporation Act has created three authorities which are charged with carrying out the provisions of the Act. They are—

(i) The Corporation,

(ii) The Standing Committee, and

(iii) The Municipal Commissioner.

The Corporation.—The elected councillors constitute the Municipal Corporation. The meetings of the Corporation are presided over by the Mayor and in his absence by the Deputy Mayor. The Mayor and the Deputy Mayor are elected for a term of one year from amongst the councillors themselves.

Standing Committee.—Of the 57 councillors ten are elected to form this committee. A chairman is elected by these members from amongst themselves. The committee is elected for a term of one year only after the expiration of which period a new committee is elected. The standing committee functions as the finance committee of the Corporation.

Municipal Commissioner.—He is the chief executive officer of the Corporation and is appointed by the State Government for a term of three years. He is a senior member of the Indian Administrative Service. He is subject to the control of the appointing authority and may be removed if three-fourths of the total number of councillors vote for the same. In him are vested extensive, executive and supervisory powers. He exercises overall supervision and control. For carrying out the day-to-day administration, certain powers are delegated to the heads of various departments and it is under his orders that all appointments, suspensions and removals of Corporation servants are carried out. All matters concerning the execution and disposal of business are referred to him.

In addition to the abovementioned bodies, there are five consultative committees, each consisting of five to nine members. The term of office of these committees is for one year only, The committees are as noted below:—

(i) *Public Works Committee.*—It advises the public works department on the feasibility of various problems and plans connected with the building of roads, construction of buildings, laying out of gardens and parks and such other related problems. Any matter connected with the public works department may be referred to it and its advice sought.

(ii) *Public Health and Market Committee.*—To this committee are referred for enquiry, report and opinion any question or problem connected with public health and safety, health of animals in the city, sanitation and vaccination, disposal of sewage and rubbish, markets, slaughter-houses and regulation of dangerous and offensive trades.

(iii) *Education Committee.*—All questions relating to education and learning are referred to this committee for its opinion and advice.

(iv) *Hospital Committee.*—Matters connected with hospitals and dispensaries, medical and public health administration are referred to this committee for scrutiny and its opinion.

(v) *Water-works Committee.*—To this committee questions relating to supply of water and management of water-works belonging to the Corporation are referred to.

The Corporation is empowered to form such additional *ad hoc* committees as it may think fit and any question pertaining to the matter for which such a committee is constituted may be referred to such committees for enquiry, report and opinion.

Income and Expenditure.—The schedule given below indicates the income and expenditure of the Nagpur Corporation for the financial year 1959-60:—

		Rs.
Income—		
(i) Municipal rates and taxes	...	1,11,43,573
(ii) Realisation under special Acts	...	10,295
(iii) Revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation		9,69,471
(iv) Grants and contributions	...	14,88,007
(v) Miscellaneous	...	21,11,513
Total	...	1,57,22,859
(vi) Extraordinary and debt heads	...	99,42,239
Grand Total	...	2,56,65,098

Against the income of Rs. 2,56,65,098, the expenditure that the municipal corporation had to incur comprised the following items:—

		Rs.
(i) General administration and collection charges	...	14,93,036
(ii) Public safety	...	5,74,000
(iii) Public health and convenience	...	1,27,09,357
(iv) Public instruction	...	30,65,955
(v) Contributions	...	5,18,487
(vi) Miscellaneous	...	4,39,860
Total	...	1,88,00,695
(vii) Extraordinary and debt heads	..	63,28,834
Grand Total	...	2,51,29,529

For purposes of administrative convenience and implementation of the schemes drawn up by the Corporation for the welfare of the people, various departments have been formed and certain powers have been delegated to the heads of these departments so that they may be able to carry out the work assigned to them smoothly and without any hindrance. The departments are—

Engineering department which looks after public works and buildings, estates, fire brigade and lighting.

Assessment department whose work it is to assess the taxes on land and buildings, calculate the ratable value of property, and prepare an yearly register of assessment and demand and send it to the collection department.

Collection department looks after the collection of dues assessed by the assessment department.

Octroi department looks after the recovery of octroi tax on all articles, goods and animals brought into the city.

Education department looks after the implementation of the programmes and plans drawn up for the furtherance and betterment of education.

Sewage farm department is concerned with the removal of sewage and sullage of the city thereby maintaining cleanliness.

Drainage department is concerned with the implementation of the plan of underground drainage system and conversion of private dry type latrines into flush latrines.

Health department looks after the sanitation of the city and supervises the municipal dispensaries, the family planning and child welfare centres.

Water Works department is charged with the duty of completing the water projects undertaken by the Corporation and maintaining the completed ones.

Accounts department maintains the accounts of the Municipal Corporation and deals with provident fund and pension cases of the employees.

Workshop department carries out repairs to the Corporation vehicles and other conservancy implements.

In addition to the above-stated departments, there are others like the General department to which are referred matters other than those referred to the Municipal Commissioner.

The Central Records office keeps all the important records of all the departments.

Public Relations office publishes the weekly journal *Nagar Jivan* and issues press notes. It also functions as the enquiry office.

Press department is concerned with all the printing work of the Corporation and supplying of all sorts of forms and registers.

The formation of separate departments has made for the administrative efficiency of the Corporation.

Roads.—Roads form the arteries of a city or a nation. They help the speedy transport of goods which is a necessity of the fast changing times. Nāgpūr Corporation has constructed a network of roads connecting the various parts of the city. The beautiful and broad roads have made Nāgpūr one of the good cities in India.

The various categories of roads maintained by the Corporation with their length are listed below:—

	Km.
(1) Cement roads	11·265
(2) Asphalted roads	130·329
(3) Water bound macadom roads	96·540
(4) Boulder roads	61·155
Total ..	289·289

Following are the names of some of the important roads and their starting and ending points:—

(1) *Abhyankar Road*: It starts from the Variety Chowk and meets the *Gorakṣaṇ Sabhā* Road.

(2) *Amrāvatī Road*: This road also starts from the Variety Chowk and up to the Law College runs within the municipal limits and further goes to Amrāvatī.

(3) *Ansāri Road*: Starts near the Nāgpūr University and meets the Station Road.

(4) *Institute Road*: It begins from the Śankar Nagar Chowk and joins Amrāvatī Road near Lakṣmi Nārāyaṇ Institute.

(5) *Umreḍ Road*: Begins near the Nāg river bridge and after running up to the Mohata Science College within the municipal limits goes to Umreḍ.

(6) *North Ambāzarī Road*: It starts from near Mor Bhavan and ends at the Ambāzarī Tank.

(7) *Kingsway Road*: It starts near the Central Railway station and meets the Residency Road near the Improvement Trust Office.

(8) *Kāmpṭee Road*: It starts from near the Oriental Building and runs to Kāmpṭee *via* Indorā Chowk.

(9) *Kaṭol Road*: From the Rāj Bhavan Gate it goes to Kaṭol.

(10) *Ghāṭ Road*: It begins at the Cotton Market Square and meets the Great Nāg Canalisation Road.

(11) *Chindvāḍā Road*: It also begins from near the Rāj Bhavan Gate and goes to Chindvāḍā.

(12) *Jail Road*: It starts from the Variety Chowk and meets the Ajani Chowk just ahead of the Central Jail.

(13) *Zīllā Kaceri Road*: It takes its route near Mahārājbāg gate and runs up to the Cricket Association ground.

(14) *Temple Road*: This road starts from the Government Press, Civil Lines and ends at Telaṇkheḍī Temple.

(15) *Ṭiḷak Road*: Beginning from Śukravār Tank near the Statue of *Lokmānya* Ṭiḷak it goes up to the Mahāl Chowk.

(16) *South Ambāzarī Road*: It starts from the Central Jail and goes to Ambāzarī Tank *via* Śraddhānand Peṭh.

(17) *Bhaṇḍārā Road*: It starts from the Śahid Chowk and goes to Bhaṇḍārā.

(18) *Mahātmā Gāndhī Road*: The road beginning at Variety Chowk and going up to the Railway Bridge is called the Mahātmā Gāndhī Road.

(19) *Mount Road*: This road starts from the Seminary Mount and meets the Kāmpṭee road a few yards ahead of the Mutual Building.

(20) *Wardhā Road*: It starts from the Añjanī Chowk and runs to Wardhā after passing from near the aerodrome.

(21) *Central Avenue Road*: The road starting from near the Mayo Hospital and running up to the Gāndhībāg is called the Central Avenue Road.

There are many more roads but the roads listed above are some of the most important ones. The Nāgpūr Corporation maintains and takes care to repair and develop the road system from time to time.

Water-supply and waterworks.—With the gradual increase in the population, the Corporation is faced with the acute and pressing problem of supplying potable water to the populace.

The city gets its supply of water from (i) Ambāzarī Tank, (ii) Gorevāḍā Tank and (iii) Kanhān River.

(i) *Ambāzarī Tank*: The tank is situated to the south-west of the city and is perhaps the oldest one. The tank is well built and has a catchment area of 15.54 km.^{2}. Its capacity is 6,191,640 m.^{3} (221.13 million cubic feet) above the siphon lifting level. The daily draw of water from this tank is over 10.012 m. litres (2.2 million gallons).

(ii) *Gorevāḍā Tank*: It was constructed in 1911 and has a catchment area of 28.8008 km^2. (11.12 square miles) situated to the north-west of the city. The tank has a capacity of 7.70896 million m.^{3} (275.32 million C. ft.) above filter level. The daily draw of water from this reservoir is 18.20 million litres (4 million gallons). Near the reservoir are installed three filters with a capacity of filtering 1½ million gallons each per day and the pumping station.

(iii) *Kanhān Waterworks*: As both the above sources were not found to be adequate to meet the increasing demand for water the Kanhān waterworks was taken up and built. A masonry barrage has been constructed on the river Kanhān for storing water. The barrage has 10 openings, each of 9.1440 metres (30') length. The main waterworks is situated within the limits of the Kāmptee cantonment. It has six filters of the rapid gravity type, each with a capacity of filtering 6.8189 million litres (1½ million gallons) of water per day. Also installed is a huge pumping station with pumps having capacities up to 950 H. P. Over 34.0950 million litres (7.5 million gallons) of water is drawn from the works daily. It is proposed to increase the capacity to 68.190 million litres (15 million gallons) a day. This target would be achieved on completion of the second stage of the Kanhān Waterworks.

It may be stated that during the financial year 1959-60 the income derived from water-supply amounted to Rs. 25·25 lakhs, while the expenditure came to Rs. 16.38 lakhs.

Drainage.—Well laid-out drains are essential for a planned city. With this in view the Nāgpūr Corporation has drawn up a plan of underground drainage system which, when completed, would add to the health and sanitary conditions of the city of Nāgpūr.

The scheme is expected to cost about Rs. 159 lakhs. The work has already started. The dry type of latrines which were common, till recently, are being replaced by flush system. Side by side the work of constructing big open nullas has been taken up to keep the city clean of the filthy water and refuse. The dirt, if not removed, serves as a breeding place for mosquitoes and other parasites which spread malaria and other types of epidemics. A part of sewage water is utilised in cultivating about 60.70 hectares (150 acres) of land.

Health.—Keeping up the health conditions of the people in the modern industrial cities has become a very important problem of the day. The programme of development of health standard envisages mainly expansion of medical aid facilities, introduction of preventive measures and schemes aimed at improving public sanitation and water-supply. To achieve this goal the Corporation has opened thirteen Ayurvedic dispensaries, ten allopathic dispensaries, three Unani and one Nature Cure Clinic including a mobile dispensary. These dispensaries give treatment to a number of patients every day. In addition to this, there are out-door dispensaries attached to the various government hospitals. The Employees' State Insurance Scheme of the Government is also running five dispensaries which treat all the industrial workers. These dispensaries are located in different parts of the town.

To check the spread of diseases and outbreak of epidemics, separate arrangements are made from time to time to vaccinate and inoculate the people. For this purpose the Corporation has maintained one isolation hospital for segregation and treatment. Besides there is a T. B. clinic at Itwārī maintained by the government.

With a view to encourage family planning, six family planning clinics have been opened, three for men and three for women. A few child welfare centres have also been set up.

In all there are three veterinary dispensaries out of which two are run by the State Government while the third is run by the Corporation.

The medical facilities thus made available both by the State Government and the Corporation have definitely tended to improve the health standard of the people.

Education.—Primary education is compulsory in the city and it is looked after by the Education Officer. Separate sections for boys and girls have been created. The boys' section is divided into three zones, whereas the girls' section has been divided into two zones. Each zone is supervised by a superintendent. In 1959-60 there were 1,494 teachers in the primary schools and the number of pupils (both boys and girls) was 49,138. The Municipal Corporation had to incur an expenditure to the tune of Rs. 30,45,135 during the same year.

Fire Service.—The Nagpūr Corporation maintains a good fire brigade equipped with modern fire engines to meet any emergency. In view of the wide expanse of the city three stations have been established in its different parts. These are: (i) Civil Fire Station, (ii) Gañjipeth Fire Station and (iii) Lakaḍgañj Fire Station.

These stations together provide employment to over hundred persons.

Markets.—In the various parts of the city the Corporation has constructed cement platforms covered with tin shades where weekly bazars are held. In addition to these, there are the following markets: i) Phule Vegetable Market, (ii) Netaji Market, (iii) Gokulpeṭh Market and (iv) Temple Bazar Market.

Cremation and Burial Places.—There are separate cremation and burial places for different communities.

The following four burial places are exclusively used by the Muslims:—

(i) *Kabarasthān*, situated in ward No. 28 and managed by the *Kabarasthān* committee;

(ii) Muslim Burial Ground, situated in ward No. 7 near Candanbāi;

(iii) Muslim Burial Ground, situated in ward No. 12 near Gārobā *Maidan*;

(iv) *Imāmbāḍā* Burial Ground, located in ward No. 6, near Bhārat Oil Mills, just opposite to Isolation Hospital.

The cremation ground situated at Camārnālā Ghāṭ is managed and exclusively used by the Buddhist community.

There is one burial ground or cemetery located along the Medical College Road near Poor House which is used and managed by the Christians.

The Hindus maintain the following cremation places for their use:—

(i) Gangabai Ghat	.. ..	Ward No. 11.
(ii) Gadang Ghat ..	.. ..	Ward No. 4.
(iii) Śantinagar	.. .. ..	Ward No. 22.
(iv) Camārnālā	.. .. ..	Ward No. 24.

(v) Ambazari which is situated on the North Ambazari Road.

In addition to these privately maintained cemeteries and cremation grounds the Corporation has reserved the following villages for cremation and burial of the dead:—

(i) Dighore, (ii) Pardi, (iii) Sakkardara, (iv) Bidapeth, (v) Watoda, (vi) Manewada, (vii) Chikhali, (viii) Tajbagh, (ix) Old and New Babulkheda, (x) Ajani, (xi) Chinchbhuwan.

Recreational Centres.—Recreational centres have come to attain an important place in the life of the people in the fast changing world of today, where people can take rest and relax after a day's hard work. The Nāgpūr Corporation has, accordingly, laid out some 20 gardens in suitable localities which are far removed from the buzz and din of industrial life and where only silence prevails. All these gardens are provided with cement benches where people can relax. Radio sets and loud-speakers have also been provided in a few, on which melodious tunes are played in the evenings. Likewise every garden is having a children's corner where swings and other types of recreational facilities for children are provided. The gardens have been planted with giant trees and beautiful fragrant flower plants which give a look of grandeur. These trees and plants provide shade and fragrance which is spread around by the zephyr. Ambāzarī garden is one of the most noted gardens and is having a hanging bridge. All the gardens are provided with beautiful and lovely playing fountains which look charming when the light is on them. In all, four swimming pools are maintained by the Corporation and two more are under construction.

The Corporation maintains and runs a library at Sadar which provides different types of magazines, newspapers, novels and books on literature and other branches of learning. In the city there are a number of libraries which receive maintenance grants from the municipality. Many people take advantage of the library facilities. It also maintains a Hall where cultural programmes are arranged.

The Corporation has taken up the work of constructing a stadium for outdoor games at Citṇavis Park and a grand Town-Hall. The former is estimated to cost five lakhs of rupees while the latter, one and a half lakhs. The stadium will have a seating capacity for 1,500 people. The Corporation is also constructing a number of buildings to house primary schools. In addition to the isolation hospital building, maternity homes at Sadar and Śāntinagar have been constructed and maintained. They are equipped with all the modern facilities.

The Central Museum, which is maintained by the State Government, is the pride of Nāgpūr. The historical fort of Sitābulḍī, where is stationed the 118 Infantry Battalion (Territorial Army), is a prominent landmark in the history of Nāgpūr.

Objects.

Sitābulḍī Fort.

Sitābulḍī fort is undoubtedly the most distinguished object of interest in the city of Nāgpūr. The fort stands on the twin hills of Sitābulḍī. Proudly does the tricolour, our national flag, fly over the main building taking a panoramic view of the whole city now surrounding the fort and the countryside for miles around. At night, specially when there is moon shining in the sky, the view from the bastion behind the officer's mess of 118 Infantry Battalion (Territorial Army) is bewitching enough to haunt one's memories for ever.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

NAGPUR CITY.

Objects.

Sitābuldi Fort.

History always leans heavily on the grim side of life, the invasions, battles and destinies of people through the trials of their national strength. The battle of Sitābuldī which was fought between the Bhosles and the East India Company unfolds before our eyes a grim tale of destruction and massacre in which eventually the East India Company emerged triumphant. The decisive battle was fought in 1817, in which the Marāṭhā forces, especially the Arab forces, fought valiantly which showed the resolute determination of our people to oust the British. But they had to yield to the superior command and the fire power of the British. All was lost to the Marāṭhās because the hills, joined by a narrow saddle of ground about 274.32 metres (300 yards) in length of considerably lower elevation than either of the two hills, were of great strategic importance from where the town could be defended and governed and with the loss of the hills the Marāṭhās also lost the town to the East India Company. But yet the determination with which the Marāṭhā forces fought, made one British officer to exclaim: "Thank God the Arabs have agreed to move out and stop fighting. At last we are the Lords of Nāgpūr."

Two beautiful drawings depicting the decisive events from the battle of Sitābuldī can be seen in the Rāj Bhavan. One shows the explosion of the tumbril on the Arab position on the smaller hill. The other drawing shows the gallant charge of Lt Fitzgerald of the British forces. The Vidarbha Mahāvidyālaya (Old Residency) also has a copy of each of these historic drawings. Very fine portraits of Mr. R. Jenkins, the Resident and Lt. Col. H. S. Scott, the military commander, are also hung in the Rāj Bhavan.

It was after this battle and as a part of the agreement that British fortified the twin hills of Sitābuldī and the fort was built. Of the two hills the one to the north is lesser in height, where the lines of the 927 E. and M. company of engineers are located now, but is within musket range of the higher hill. Here are now located the main barracks and administrative building of the 118 Infantry Battalion (Territorial Army). On this side, the suburbs of the city come close to its base. There is nothing aesthetic and artistic about the place, but is a strong and sturdily built structure, ideally suited for the purpose for which it was meant; that was to dominate the city of Nāgpūr.

There are two defensive areas, the larger area embracing both the hills and the smaller, which is much stronger, confined to the larger hill. The walls and ramparts are surrounded in suitable places by a moat and at other places, a sheer vertical cliff bars the way effectively. Further, some portions of the slopes of hills are strengthened by barbed wire fencing. There is enough of built-up accommodation to house two hundred men and there is space available to pitch tents and accommodate nearly a thousand troops in times of emergency. The fort itself contained, as far as drinking water is concerned, large underground storage tanks and wells serving this purpose effectively.

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Sitābuldi Fort.

The defence is built upon the old bastion system. No less than five dominating positions being very effectively built up in the inner fort and two more in the outer area. Each bastion has gun emplacement built on top and local protection to each gun is provided by three storeys of battle positions for the infantry. Even if the outer area is to be evacuated a band of five hundred determined men can easily withstand a siege until the arrival of reinforcements.

Right on top of the larger hill stands a monument built in memory of those who dedicated their lives in the battle of Sitābuldī. Just before the entrance of the tunnel leading to the inner fort one sees on the slopes of the hill to the right-hand side, the grave of Mr. Sotheby and some other ranks of the British forces. Facing the city to the east is another monument which marks the places from where King George V and Queen Mary gave audience to the people of Nāgpūr in 1911.

Tucked away between the eastern walls of the inner fort and the barracks is a large grave popularly known as Nav Gaz Ali Bābā. This is believed to be the grave of *Navāb* Kādar Ali, grandson of Tipū Sultān of Mysore and his eight associates. They were hung from the ramparts of the fort by the British for the part they had played in the freedom struggle of 1857. They were all buried in a common pit nine yards long. The fort recalls to our mind the memory of those brave soldiers who fell with their faces to the foe in an attempt to preserve the independence of the mother country. Every year on 15th August and 26th January the fort is open to the public from where a beautiful view of the illuminated city gracefully opens to the vision.

Hedgevār Memorial.

This beautiful little building has been erected in memory of the late Hedgevār who was one of the important personalities of Nāgpūr. He was a staunch protagonist of the principles and ideals of Hindutva, but this is no indication that he was an antagonist of other religions and faiths. He was the principal pioneer in establishing the organisation known as '*Rāṣṭriya Svayamsevaka Sangha*'. The building houses the *Samādhī* and a life-size statue of Hedgevār. In the centre of the hall lies the *Samādhī* and the letter "ॐ" has been artistically embossed upon it. The floor all round is paved with marble slabs of a superior quality specially brought from Rājasthān. Even the walls till half the way, are studded with marble slabs. In the same hall on a raised platform, which can be reached by climbing about five steps, is the majestic statue of Hedgevār, cast out in bronze, in a sitting position. The statue has been artistically shaped and looks life-like. It gives a glimpse of the high ideals and amiable nature of the departed man. He is held in high esteem by all the people of Nāgpūr. Around the memorial a beautiful garden has been laid out. It has been proposed to set up a school and other cultural and social centres on the open ground around. The plan is under study.

Gāndhi Bāg and Swimming Pool.

The garden is spread over an area of 2.85505 hectares (7.05 acres) enclosing within it a cultural hall and a swimming pool. This garden has been laid out and the pool has been constructed in

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Gāndhi Bāg and Swimming Pool.

commemoration of Mahatmā Gāndhī. Even, that part of the locality is known after the garden. The Gāndhī *Bāg* is one of the biggest gardens of the locality and has many green lawns which are divided by pathways running in between and encircled by avenues of lovely flower plants. At every cross-way creepers have been formed in the shape of arches which look like welcome arches erected at the time of sacred ceremonies. Here and there, in every corner of the garden well-groomed, handsome young trees have been grown which, besides giving shade to the people and keeping the surroundings cool, add mirth to the beauty of the garden. Benches are provided for sitting purposes. There is also a children's corner wherein swings and all other means of entertainment for the children are provided. The lawn that is in the centre of the garden is a very big one where gatherings and meetings are held occasionally. Every evening hundreds of people flock to the garden. The municipality has arranged a radio set with speakers and in the evenings melodious tunes are played. A garden's beauty cannot be complete unless there is a playing fountain and the fountain erected here looks exceedingly beautiful.

The cultural hall is located in the southern sector of the garden and was built at a cost of one lakh of rupees. It was inaugurated on 23rd April, 1957 by late Shri M. S. Kannamwar, the then Health Minister of Mahārāṣṭra State. Various cultural and social programmes of the town are arranged here.

Behind the cultural hall is the swimming pool which measures 32.0040 × 4.572 × 3.658 metres (105′ × 15′ × 12′). It was built at a cost of one and a half lakhs of rupees. The pool is of modern construction having lights underneath water. Around the pool three pillar-like structures having projections have been constructed which are used for diving in the water. Attached to the pool are bath-rooms, toilet, and other necessary facilities. In front of the pool are playing fountains which are fascinating and which make the pool all the more bewitching.

Telaṇkheḍi Udyān.

On the outskirts of the city at an undisturbed and quiet spot is situated the old garden called the Telaṇkheḍī Udyān. Being far removed from the hubbub of the town the place is ideal for picnics and excursions. In this garden there are avenues of giant trees and wild bamboos which give deep shade and also avenues of flower-plants whose fragrance spreads all around with the blowing breeze. In between the avenues of trees and flower plants is a lovely small tank of water, with stone revetments having steps on all the sides leading down to the water level. The tank has increased the fascination of the garden many more times. To the west of the garden there are hillocks which have formed valley glades and there is a thick growth of forest trees. The valley glades enclose within a very big and indescribably enchanting lake whose beauty is all the more heightened by the natural surroundings. The eastern embankment of the lake has been revetted with stones. The waters of the lake are clear and still at first sight it seems as if a mirror has been

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Telaṇkheḍi Udyān.

spread on the ground in which the surrounding trees and mountains are beautifully reflected. It is known as Telaṇkheḍī lake and the garden has derived its name from this lake. The lake is very ideal for swimming and being the most quiet spot near-about the town, people go on excursions and trips on holidays and festive occasions and enjoy themselves. Special buses ply on such days.

Gitā Mandir.

Almost in the heart of Nāgpūr on the Subhāṣ Road is situated the temple, popularly known as Gītā *Mandir.* It was built by the late *Svāmī* Vidyānandajī *Mahārāj* who by his erudition and inspiring personality was popular amongst the people. He called upon the people to contribute liberally for the construction of the temple, who responded to his call. The opening ceremony was performed by the then Speaker of the Lok Sabha late Śri Māvḷaṇkar, amidst great rejoicings, on 7th May, 1954. The temple is representative of the magnificent sculptural and architectural skill of the modern architects. The temple covers an area of 1.13 acres which was donated by the Nāgpūr Municipal Corporation.

The *Gābhārā* measures 20.903 m² (15′ × 15′), the idol of Śri Kṛṣṇā in marble occupying the central position. The *Gābhārā* has a *Śikhar* on the top. The *Śikhar* serves as a flag-post for the saffron-coloured flag. The main hall of the temple is 38.10 × 16.76 metres (125′ × 50′) at the end of which is a statue of *Svāmī* Vidyānandaji *Mahārāj.* The front of the temple is round shaped, on three sides of which is an open gallery. Besides the temple building, there are rooms which are used by mendicants and *Sādhus.* Down the roadside opens the main entrance gate on the southern side on either side of which there are rows of shops and on the same side another gate opens through which cars can enter the temple courtyard. The *Sabhāmandir* is lent on hire for religious and social ceremonies on certain pre-conditions. The temple has a monthly income of Rs. 1,300 which is derived out of shops rented in the compound.

The temple is managed by a trust. From time to time discourses on Bhagvadgītā are held to propagate its ideals and principles amongst the masses, as also *Bhajans, Kirtans,* etc. Important festivals like *Gītā Jayantī, Janmāṣṭamī, Rām Navmī,* etc., are celebrated amidst great rejoicings when people gather in large numbers to offer their prayers to Lord Kṛṣṇa. The temple is worth a visit.

Within the Mandir compound the Trust runs an Ayurvedic dispensary which provides free medical aid to the needy.

Mahārāj Bāg.

This is perhaps the oldest garden in Nāgpūr and is situated on Nāgpūr-Amrāvatī Road, near the Nāgpūr University. The garden, it is believed, was laid out by the Bhosle rulers and the grand old trees with their massive trunks speak of the long years of their existence and consequently of the antiquity of the *Mahārāj Bāg.* The garden which was neglected for sometime has been renovated now and turned into an alluring and pleasant

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Mahārāj Bāg.

recreational centre. There is a small but lovely artificial tank in the centre of which is seated an elephant artistically carved out of black rock. It is laid out on the same pattern as other gardens, having beautiful flower plants planted in gaiety, hanging creepers, lovely soft green lawns, children's corner, playing fountains, which look charming but unlike other gardens it houses a zoo which is an added attraction to the people. The zoo has a rare collection of species of animals and birds like lions and tigers, different types of apes, monkeys, deers, spotted antelopes and bears, birds like peacocks and serpents like pythons and cobras. In the extreme end of the garden is the building of the Agricultural College which by its appearance gives an ancient look to the garden. The experimental farms of the College are situated close by. There is also an agricultural laboratory where experiments on the development of improved seeds and such other related problems are carried out. There is also a nursery garden where different varieties of plants are grown and sold. The Mahāraj Bāg can definitely be regarded as one of the most beautiful spots of recreation. It is looked after by the Superintendent of Parks and Gardens, Government of Mahārāṣṭra.

Statue of Mahārāṇi Lakśmibāi of Jhānśi.

The statue of the Queen of Jhānśi stands in front of the buildings of Vidarbha *Sāhitya Saṅgha* and Mor Bhavan. The *Mahāraṇi* is seated on a horse which is shown to be in a galloping position. The statue, cast out of bronze, is 15′ in height and looks majestic. It was erected at a total cost of Rs. 45,000. It was unveiled on 11th November 1962.

Statue of Saṅkar.

Śaṅkar, a young patriot who had participated in the 1942 Quit-India Movement was arrested and sent to gaol and later hanged in 1943. The statue, in the Navābpurā Zeṇḍā Chowk, at Nāgpūr, is erected in commemoration of this great son of India who sacrificed his life for his mother land. The statue is life-size and was erected at a cost of Rs. 14,000. It was unveiled on 13th February, 1962 by Paṇḍit Javaharlāl Nehru, the late Prime Minister of India.

Central Museum.

Nāgpūr city has a museum situated in civil lines which is regarded as the only one of its kind in the Vidarbha Region. It was established in 1863 A.D. It is maintained by the Government of Mahārāṣṭra, the controlling officer being the Director of Education, Pooṇā.

The collections of the museum are divided into six sections, *viz.*, (1) Art and industry, (2) Archaeology, (3) Anthropology, (4) Paintings, (5) Geology and (6) Natural History.

Art and Industry.—The central hall is devoted to the art and industry section. At the main entrance which leads into the art section is seen a model in plaster "Return from the Field." The arts and crafts exhibited in this section include specimens of plain and engraved metal-ware from Banāras, Sialkoṭ, Murādābād, Nāśik, Tañjore, Bidar, Cāndā, Bhaṇḍārā, Maṇḍlā, Dāmoh and many other parts of the country which speak eloquently of the

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sculptural as well as æsthetic sense of the sculptors. There are samples of horn and ivory work from Ratnāgirī, Kaṭak and Mysore, lacquer work from Jaipur and Sind, inlaid stone work from Āgrā, soapstone figures from Purī, gold thread saris from Burhānpūr, wood carvings from Bombay, Sahāranpūr and Nāgpūr; ornamental pottery from Uttar Pradeś, schools of Art at Bombay and Madrās and wooden models of fruit and vegetables from Belgāṅv which compel the curiosity of the visitor to have a close look at them. A silver model of *Cakra* is worthy of attention as also a group of Hindu deities of clay, locally made. There is a set of illustrated manuscripts from the Bhosle collection. There is also an attractive and enchanting set of decorative pottery from England, Venice, China and Japan and some cottage industry products from Japan.

Archaeology.—The west wing with four rooms is devoted to the archaeological collections, anthropology and picture gallery The archaeological collections are further divided into five classes; (1) pre-historic, (2) sculptures and bronzes, (3) coins, (4) inscriptions and (5) miscellaneous articles.

In the pre-historic gallery are shown stone age and copper age antiquities found in the region and the Bālāghāṭ district of Madhya Pradeś. Also exhibited are the numerous antiquities of the Chalcolithic age discovered at Mohenjodāro in Sind and Harāppā in the Puñjāb. These are supplemented by the paleolithic, neolithic, copper age and bronze age antiquities from Europe.

The sculpture gallery is one of the main attractions of the Museum and the collection ranges from circa 100 A.D. to 1600 A.D. It is grouped under three heads, *viz.*, Hindu, Jain and Buddhist. The Scythian sculptures exhibited in the porch are assignable to the 1st century A.D. Care has been taken to exhibit them region-wise. Some of the noteworthy Hindu sculptures are Varāha, Kurma, Brahmā, Cāmuṇḍā. Indra, Śiva, Lakṣmināraāyaṇ, Garuḍa, Candra and Viṣṇu. Notable among the Jain sculptures are Mahāvira and Supārśva. In addition there are interesting images of Sumantināth Aṁbikā, Sarasvati, and Yakṣadampati. The Buddhist sculpture includes an image of Buddha, Bodhisatva and Tārā images belonging to 11th and 12th centuries A.D. There is also a small collection of Buddhist bronzes from Negapatam.

The coin collection of the museum is fairly representative and is kept in a cabin. The cabin contains punch-marked coins of the Sātvāhanas, Guptas, Nalas, Śarabhapuryas, Kalacuris of Ceḍī, and Dakṣiṇakośalas, Paramāras, Cālukyas, Yādavas, the Sultāns of Delhi and their contemporaries including the Goṇḍs of Devgaḍ. In the gallery, again are displayed electroplated metal and plaster casts of selected types of Ancient, Mediaeval and Muslim coins.

The inscription gallery exhibits copper plates and stone inscriptions ranging from circa 3rd century B.C. to the 17th century A.D. Among the stone inscriptions notable are the

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Devṭāk inscription of Aśoka and Rudrasena I kept in the porch, Karitalai and Bilhari inscriptions of Ceḍi rulers, Sitabuldi stone inscription of the time of Vikramaditya VI, Nagpūr inscription of the rulers of Maḷva and Persian inscription from the remains of a Moghal bath at Burhanpūr. The collection of copper plates includes the charters of the Vakaṭakas, the Śarabhapuriyas, the Parivrajakas, the Somavaṅśis, the Raṣṭrakūṇas, the Kalacuris, the Parmāras and Candelas.

The miscellaneous exhibits contain, what deserves a special mention, an interesting Babylonian seal dating as far back as 200 B.C. It is kept in a cabin. In this section are also displayed a few landscape paintings and photo enlargements of national monuments and those of the Vidarbha region.

Anthropology.—The anthropological section displays a large collection of ancient weapons of warfare. It also includes garments and clothes, headgears and footwears, ornaments, musical instruments of various types, household articles and agricultural and hunting implements. The material culture has been supplemented with coloured photographs depicting dances and other scenes which give a picture of the tribal life. There are elaborately carved memorial sculptures which depict hunting and battle scenes. Weapons of offence and defence are to be seen. Unique among them may be mentioned the signal staves which were taken at the relief of Lucknow. A series of clay models illustrating the *Saṅskāras* of a Mahārāṣṭra Brāhmaṇ deserve attention.

Paintings.—The picture gallery which has been recently started contains mostly modern Indian paintings which may be conveniently grouped under three heads, *viz.*, portraits, compositions and landscapes. It contains the paintings of some of the the greatest modern Indian painters. The collection of old Indian paintings though small, is representative of the principal styles of painting. Specimens of Moghal, Rājasthānī Kaṅgrā, and Deccani styles of paintings are to be found. There is an old portrait of Mahādajī Śinde said to have been drawn by an Italian artist. There are two Nepāḷī and Bhutāni banners.

Geology.—The exhibits in the geological section have been divided into four groups: (1) type rocks, (2) type minerals, (3) minerals of economic importance and (4) fossils.

The type rocks have been grouped as igneous, sedimentary and metamorphic. The type mineral series is arranged acid-wise and base-wise. Samples of minerals of economic importance comprise ores of manganese, iron and copper, coal bauxite, wolfram, limestone clay, ochres, graphite, mica, asbestos, galena, salts, agates and jaspers. The fossil collection comprises specimens of plant, invertebrate and vertebrate fossils.

Natural History.—This section of the Museum holds (1) bird gallery, (2) reptiles, fishes and invertebrate gallery and (3) mammal gallery.

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In the first gallery are two habitat groups of *sāras* and peacock. The rest of the gallery is devoted to the display of birds of over 200 species. The galaxy of stuffed birds is so very real as to deceive the eye even of a connoisseur.

In the reptile, fish and invertebrate gallery, there is a habitat group of Indian crocodiles. Also shown are gaeko, blood-sucking and monitor lizards, chameleons, pythons and other various types of poisonous and non-poisonous snakes. In the fish collection there are fresh water fishes like *bām, singhārā, niḷā, mahāsir, maral, phulmarāḷā* and *pohu.* There are a few marine fishes from Madrās. The Amphibian fauna includes species of frog and toad. The invertebrate gallery displays a variety of marine shells and the insects are shown in a series of show-cases with their life cycles in some cases.

In the third gallery are preserved large and small mammals which include blue-bull, *sāmbar*, black-buck, *bārasiṅgā,* spotted antelope (*ciṅkārā*), barking deer, four-horned antelope, mouse-deer and bison. In the carnivora are included, sloth-bear, tiger, leopard, wild-cats, hyaena, wolf, jackal, fox and wild dog. A big show-case displays a collection of large mammals against a suitable background colour scheme. Among the small mammals are porcupine, hare, flying and other squirrels, bats, civets, mongoose, otter, ratel and pangolin. But the main attraction of this gallery lies in a series of habitat groups of Indian tiger, leopard and *cittaḷ.* Some of the well-known Aesop's fables illustrated with the use of taxidermical preparations are an added attraction.

The museum is open to the public from 9 a.m. to 5-30 p.m. on all days of the week except Monday and National Holidays. About 1,000 visitors visit the museum every day. There is a small library attached to the museum. *Bona fide* research students are permitted to make use of it and every possible help is rendered to them by the authorities in charge.

Medical College and Hospital.

The construction work of the college and hospital was started in 1948 and was completed in 1953. The buildings are constructed in modern style. The college and the hospital are equipped with all the necessary and up-to-date facilities for training the students as well as treating the patients. The institutions were inaugurated by the late Dr. Rajendra Prasād, the then President of the Indian Union, on 27th March 1953.

The buildings in which the college and the hospital are housed occupy an area measuring 7,803 m² (84,000 square feet) and were built at a cost of over 42 lakhs of rupees. The hospital has a special physiological department. Besides, there are other connected laboratories where Anatomical, Histological, Embryological, Physiological, Biochemical, Pathological, Bacteriological and Pharmacological research is conducted. There is a very big library containing a collection of over 10,000 books on medical science. In addition to this the library purchases about 150 informative pamphlets and magazines on modern developments

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Medical College and Hospital.

in medicine every year. On the third floor of the college there is a spacious auditorium where facilities to enact dramas and other programmes are provided. In this hall, lectures of distinguished physicians and surgeons are arranged for the benefit of the students. College gatherings and meeting are held here.

Nearby the college in the same compound is the hospital where patients both indoor and outdoor are treated. The hospital has about 864 beds and it has been proposed to further increase the number of beds. Here all types of patients are given treatment. There are separate departments, *viz.*, gynaecological and obstetrics, ophthalmic, ear, nose and throat, dentistry, medical, surgical and tuberculosis. For outdoor patients there are separate X-ray, screening and clinical pathology departments, besides those belonging to the main hospital. For cancer treatment the hospital has acquired the most modern equipment and machinery. Every day over a thousand outdoor patients are treated free of charge. The college students are given practical training in this hospital.

Every year over 120 new students are admitted. The total strength of the college was more than 674 in the year 1959. From time to time foreign as well as indigenous experts in medical science and surgery are invited to address the students on the various complicated present-day problems in medical science and surgery. In addition, a Nurses' Training Centre has been opened where about a hundred nurses are given training.

The medical college has its own hostel for the students. It has its own playground and a fine garden.

Mayo Hospital.

The hospital was established in 1867. At present it provides over 285 beds. The Mayo Hospital has its own Blood Bank. It has started a diploma course in Rural Medical Practice as also a Nurses' Training Centre.

Mental Hospital.

This is situated on Chindvāḍā Road and is the oldest hospital treating mental patients. The hospital covers an area of about 215 acres. It is provided with the most modern equipment like electric convulsion, insulin-coma, occupational and reactional therapy and the like for treating mental cases. Students of the medical college are sent here for training in psychiatry.

Government T. B. Clinic.

This T. B. Clinic was established in 1937. The purpose of the clinic is to admit the already examined patients in the T. B. Sanatorium and other hospitals, for better treatment. There are about 60 beds in this clinic and is having all the necessary equipment to treat the patients suffering from tuberculosis. The hospital owns a van.

Sir Kasturcand Dāgā Memorial Hospital.

The hospital is situated near Gāndhī *Bāg* on Pañcpāvli Road. It admits only female patients and children for treatment. It accommodates 130 beds. The hospital has a child welfare and a family planning centre. There is also a nursing and midwifery training school attached to the hospital. This hospital treats about 700 indoor and 10,000 outdoor patients annually.

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Mure Memorial Hospital.

It was founded in 1896 and is situated at Sitābuḷḍī. Till 1952, it was meant only for women and children, when a general ward for men with 30 beds was introduced. The hospital runs a Nurses' Training School. At a distance of ten miles from the city the hospital has its dispensary where nurses from the training school are sent for practical training.

Mātru Sevā Saṅgh.

This maternity home was established in 1921 and is situated on North Ambāzarī Road[1]. Today it is having about 19 branches all over Vidarbha Region and some towns of Madhya Pradeś with its headquarters at Nāgpūr proper.

Council Hall.

Of the premier buildings in Nāgpūr city is the council hall. The building assumes importance from the fact that not only today but even in the past during the British regime, the council hall was the place where important decisions affecting the lives of millions of people were taken. It is a two-storeyed structure built in red bricks, in about 1912-13. The building presents a majestic and palatial frontage with the surroundings partially dense with tree growth of various species. It has a closed balcony in the front as well as in the rear and the ample ventilation provided on all sides, keeps the atmosphere in the building extremely cool. It has a small terrace on top of the porch entrance. The building could be viewed in three parts, the middle portion which has a sloping roof on both the sides and the sides to the left and to the right, respectively. These sides have a conical shaped roof, with the tops of the roofs in line with each other. The halls and rooms inside are spacious and so clean and tidy as to present a picture of a recent construction. The building has a considerable compound. The entrances to the building are well built in tar and possess excellent greenery on both the sides throughout the year.

Reserve Bank of India.

One of the indications of the tremendous industrial and commercial advance the city of Nāgpūr has made, is reflected in the huge building where the Reserve Bank of India, Nāgpūr is housed. It is centrally situated at the corner of the Kasturcand Park on the Rāghavendrarāv Road. It is built in sand-stone and represents one of the finest specimens of modern art of building and construction. The bank building was inaugurated on December 10, 1956. The building cost the Government a sum of Rs. 75 lakhs. It is completely air-conditioned. It is semi-circular in shape. The entrance to the building is through an imposing gateway with two side constructions forming part of the main building but slightly protruding. The entrance has two pillars covering the whole height of the building. The building has a stonewalled compound with pipe fencing covering the half of it. The compound has an excellent lawn. The porch has a room on top covered by an open terrace.

[1] Other noteworthy hospitals are :—

(1) Dr. Dalvi Memorial Hospital, Bāgaḍgañj-2.
(2) Śri Pakvāsā Samanvaya Rugṇālaya, Mahāl-1.
(3) Vaccine and Public Health Institute, South Ambāzarī Road-3.
(4) Śri Netra Sudhār Saṅgh Cikitsālaya, Pācerivālā Āśram, Dhantoli.
(5) Indian Red Cross Society, Nāgpūr Branch.

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The Lakṣmi Nārāyaṇ Institute of Technology.

The building of the institute of technology receives its name from Rāi Bahādur Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇ who donated a sum of Rs. 38 lakhs to the Nagpūr University. The University decided to establish an institute for imparting Chemical and Technological instructions from the funds donated by Śri Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇ. The institute came into existence in August, 1942. The institute has a huge building on a hill-side situated on Nāgpūr-Amrāvati Road. It is a coloured structure tending to be semi-circular in shape. It has a porch that forms the entrance overlooked by circular pillared frontage. It has two wings one to the right and the other to the left and is beautifully terraced. It has an excellent clock tower which could be distinguished from miles foundabout. Immediately in front of the porch is the foundation slightly squarish in structure and has the life-size statue of the donor planted on it. The compound has a beautiful lawn. On all sides of the building in a space of about 2′ in between the foundation and the premises, is planted excellent shrubbery. The structure is pure stone and concrete. The open horizon serves as a beautiful rear background.

Sri Poddāreśvar Rām Mandir.

The Rām *Mandir* is situated near the Nāgpūr railway station on the Mayo Hospital road. The *Mandir* is an excellent piece of architectural design and sculptural beauty. On entering the inner room, facing the north, are three beautiful idols of Rām, Lakṣmaṇ and Sītā. To the right of the Rām *Mandir* and facing east is the Śiv *Mandir*. The Śiv *Mandir* contains an idol of God Śiv of considerable size. In addition, there are idols of Bhagvān Kārtikeya, Gaṇeś, Śeṣnāg and Devī Pārvati. In the south-east corner is the temple of Hanumān. In the temple are six cavities in which are placed the idols of Hanumān, Garuḍ, Gāyatri, Gaṅgā and other deities. The foundation of Poddāreśvar *Mandir* was laid in the month of *Śrāvaṇ Śukla* 15 *Samvat*, 1976. The temple cost about 5 lakhs of rupees. The novelty and the grace of the temple lies in the depiction of various episodes in the lives of Rām and Śiv on the silver entrance of the temple. The pinnacle which is made of white stone slabs and the main door of the temple which has copper casting about the wooden frame are a sight to watch and extremely enchanting. The *sabhāmaṇḍap* is octagonal in shape and is supported by eight stone pillars with designs of the idols of Rām carved on it. The latticed ceiling of the *sabhāmaṇḍap* is also carved in stone and possesses excellent designs. The floor of the *Sabhāmaṇḍap* is also paved with marble stones and is extremely smooth. In the temple of Rām the marble surface has beautiful multi-coloured designs depicting shrubs and flowers which add to the splendour of the temple. In the month of *Śrāvaṇ* from 3rd to 15th, celebrations are held when the temple is decorated to suit the occasion. On the following days, *viz.*, *Śarad Paurnimā*, *Rām Navami*, *Mahāśivrātra*, *Janmāṣṭamī*, etc., great celebrations are held when thousands of devotees gather to pay homage to the revered Gods. In the temple premises are located a library, a reading-room and a *dharma śāḷā*. The temple is looked after by a trust committee.

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Places.

NAGPUR CITY.

Objects.

Ambāzari Lake and Garden.

The Ambāzarī lake and gardens, four miles west of Nāgpūr is one of the most beautiful and interesting sites of Nāgpūr. It is probably the main object of interest to the tourists and the city populace who find in it a nice resort on Sundays and holidays.

The lake, oldest of its type in Nagpūr, was built in the days of the Bhosle rule. It is almost a natural reservoir formed in the basin of the Nāg river. During the time of the British rule, the lake was improved so as to supply water to the city on the principle of siphon. Ever since then the lake was maintained and improved considerably to ensure supply of potable water to the city by municipal authorities. At present water is sucked by means of a pumping set.

The catchment area of the lake extends over 17.094 km^2 (6.6 square miles) and has a storage capacity of 1837 lakh gallons of water. The bund wall is 960.12 metres (3,150 feet) long and 98.755 metres (324 feet) high. The Nāgpūr Corporation has prepared a scheme for establishing a filtration plant to ensure filtered water-supply throughout the year. The level in the lake goes down considerably in the summer and causes shortage of water in April, May and June.

The Ambāzarī garden, to the north of the lake, gives a panoramic and picturesque view of the lake. A variety of beautiful, charming and fragrant flower plants are planted in gaiety. The soft green lawns in the midst of rows of flower plants give an impress of profound beauty and richness of nature's colours. The luxuriant rows of pink, yellow and white roses, and avenues of multi-coloured plants on the bank of the lake have enriched the æsthetic charm of the spot. The bowers with well-knit young creepers please the eye. The tiny hanging causeways deliberately designed over the streams passing by have contributed to the grandeur of the spot. A stroll in a moon-lit night across the garden takes one to the realms of enchanting beauty.

The Municipal Corporation has maintained a rest-house which is fully furnished with modern equipment. The rest-house is available to the tourists and official guests of the Corporation. Arrangements for passenger traffic by city bus services are made on Sundays and holidays.

Śukravār Tank.

It is a beautiful tank located in the heart of Nāgpūr city with embankment all round and shaded by thick palm trees. A long-range view of the lake is a beautiful sight spread over furlongs together and creating visions undreamt of. The Nāgpūr Corporation has devised numerous schemes to beautify the spot and make it a place of beauty worth a visit. The schemes are all under way. The lake is now cleared of all its dirty remnants. There is an encroachment in the lake from the southern side forming itself into a three-sided island. It has been broadened and a pathway connecting it with the northernmost part of the lake has been constructed which has compartmentalised the lake. The island is now about 60.96 metres (200 feet) broad. Lining the road as well as on all sides of the island are fixed automatic light

CHAPTER 19. Places. NAGPUR CITY. Objects. *Śukravār Tank.*

poles. To afford safety to the sight-seeing public as well as to the pedestrian, traffic railings have been fixed on all the sides of the island. The beauty of the island is enhanced by the creation of an eye-filling garden which occupies an area of about 64 acres of land. The garden has a fountain and is equipped with all the paraphernalia that makes it an enchanting children's park. The Corporation has spent about a lakh and sixty-three thousand rupees in implementing these schemes and the old lake is now converted into a place of an exquisite breath-taking beauty. The period of the construction of this lake dates about 255 years back when Nāgpūr was under the overlordship of king Sultān Cānd originally of Goṇḍ dynasty. Formerly the lake had stone embankment on two sides only. The Corporation completed the work of constructing embankment all round the lake.

Tājabād Śarif.

The tomb of Bābā Tājuddin Tājul *Avaliyā* situated in the Sakkardarā locality in the south-east part of Nāgpūr city is popularly known as Tājabād Śarif. Bābā Tājuddin, though a Muslim, was regarded in high esteem by Hindus and Muslims and by the rich and the poor alike and his fame as a spiritual guide was not limited to Nāgpūr only but had spread all over the country. The tomb is constructed in the traditional Muhammedan style and is spacious. It has a wooden fencing. It is squarish in shape and has arches all round numbering about 20 and 5 on each side. It is supported on four giant pillars on the four sides, which are crowned by minarets. In addition to these four minarets of medium size there are four smaller ones on each side making a total of sixteen. In the centre is a big round-shaped dome. The dome is raised on a structure of the height of smaller minarets and has carvings all round. A trust committee looks after the management of Tājabād Śarif. Every year an *urus* is held when the devotees of Bābā Tājuddin gather in considerable number.

NAGPUR TAHSIL. Description.

Nāgpūr Tahsīl : The Nāgpūr tahsīl forms the central and south-western portion of the district, lying between 20° 46′ and 21° 23′ N. and 78° 44′ and 79° 19′ E. It is bounded on the north by the river Kolār as far as its junction with the Kanhān above Kāmpṭee, and thence by the Kanhān itself, separating it from Rāmṭek. South and east lies Umrer, the Wunnā river marking the border for about 15 miles, while to the south-west the *tahsīl* adjoins the Wardhā district, and to the west, Kaṭol and north-west, Sāoner. The *tahsīl* may be divided into three marked geographical tracts, the Kauras plateau, the Wunnā valley, and the Nāgpūr-Kāmpṭee plain. The first tract, which differs considerably in its natural features from every other part of the *tahsīl,* is the plateau of Kauras, a continuation of the uplands of Kaṭol, which round off in this *tahsīl* and form an extensive and fairly well-cultivated tract of highland. The Wunnā valley, the second tract, comprises the central and southern portions of the *tahsīl,* traversed by the Bombay-Nāgpūr-Howrāh railway line. The surface is generally undulating, and is broken by a few low hills. The third tract comprises the whole of the level plain lying to the south and east of Nāgpūr, drained by the Nāg river and its tributaries. The third of these areas is the most fertile and

CHAPTER 19. Places. NAGPUR TAHSIL. Description.

contains the best wheat cultivation; in the second there is also wheat but to a far less extent, and there is abundance of *jovār* and a fair amount of cotton. The first tract has very little wheat indeed and the poor lands are chiefly cultivated with *jovār, tur* and cotton.

Population.

The population of the *tahsīl* was 2,68,479 in 1881, 2,94,262 in 1891, and 2,96,117 in 1901, showing increments during the two census periods of 9.6 and 0.63 per cent. In 1951 the population was 6,46,090 and is shot up to 8,28,455 in 1961. The towns of the *tahsīl* are Nāgpūr (population 6,43,659), Kāmpṭee (population 40,859) and Kāmpṭee Cantonment (population 5,784). The *tahsīl* has seven large villages with a population of over 2,000 and fourteen with a population of between 1,000 and 2,000. Excluding Nāgpūr and Kāmpṭee and their dependencies the *tahsīl* is comprised of 445 revenue villages.

Agriculture.

The soils of Nāgpūr tahsīl are distinctly above the district average. Of its total area of 1,93,856.895 hectares (4,78,659 acres), the net area sown is 1,17,334.658 hectares (2,89,940 acres). Area sown more than once is 839.970 hectares (2,074 acres) bringing the gross cropped area to 1,18,173.978 hectares (2,92,014 acres).

Miscellaneous.

The railway stations of Borkheḍī, Buṭī Borī, Gumgāṅv, Khārī, Ajanī, Nāgpūr, Itvārī and Kāmpṭee are on the Bombay-Nāgpūr, Howrāh line within the *tahsīl.* On Delhi-Nāgpūr-Madrās route Bharatvāḍā is the only station in the *tahsīl,* on Nāgpūr-Chindvāḍā line Korāḍī, and on Nāgpūr-Nāgbhir those of Bhāṇḍevāḍī and Dighorī. While Nāgpūr is a Corporation, Kāmpṭee is a municipality. In addition to this there is the Kāmpṭee Cantonment. Police station-houses are situated at Kāmpṭee, Nāgpūr, Vyāhāḍ, Sonegāṇv, Hiṅgṇā, and Borī. There are Post-offices at Nāgpūr, Kāmpṭee, Sonegāṅv, Bazārgaṅv, Hiṅgṇā, Gumgāṅv, Borī and Kānholī.

NARKHED.

Nārkheḍ : (T. Kaṭol, 21°25′ N. and 78°30′ E). An important agricultural town and cotton-growing centre situated in the north-west corner of the Kaṭol *tahsīl,* 86.886 km. (54 miles) from Nāgpūr and 24.140 km. (15 miles) from Kaṭol. It is on the Madrās-Delhi railway line. The municipality was founded in 1948. It has a population of 10,442 according to 1961 Census as against 9,349 in 1951. The majority of the people are *Telis* who are chiefly engaged in growing and trading in cotton. Their principal market used to be Amrāvati but in recent years they trade more extensively with Kaṭol and Nāgpūr. The town lies about 4.827 km. (three miles) to the south of Chindvāḍā hill, in flat and fertile country and is surrounded by rich garden cultivation. The orange produce of Nārkheḍ is well-known and the town has the biggest orange market only next to that of Nāgpūr. The old betel-leaf gardens have made way to orange gardens. The town had a large population of weavers and dyers but as the industry is gradually declining the people who were engaged in the dyeing business are finding employment elsewhere.

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NARKHED.

The town is the headquarters of Revenue Inspector, Nārkhed Circle and that of the *Pañcayat Samiti*. New quarters for Block Development Officers and Extension Officers have been built here. The town has a regional middle school, primary schools, an Urdu school, two high schools, a police station, a primary health centre and a post and telegraph office. The state government has built an extensive godown for storing foodgrains.

The town has fairly good communications. It is linked by roads to Kaṭol, Savargaṅv and Movaḍ on which State Transport buses ply regularly.

In 1955, on the occasion of Nehru Jayanti a small park was inaugurated and is exclusively meant for the entertainment of the children. In the same year the Block Development Board opened a recreation centre and has provided a radio with speaker. Half the cost of the radio was borne by the town-people voluntarily.

There is a hillock called Konhābarḍī Hill at the top of which there is a temple and a privately owned rest-house. On the occasion of the death anniversary of Śri Tukārām *Mahārāj*, the noted saint of Mahārāṣṭra, a fair is held here.

There is a tank called Ṛṣi Talāv which is 92,903 m² (1,000′ × 1,000′) and where lotus flowers grow in plenty. On the bank are spread many small temples where *Sādhus* reside. The giant trees around provide a good background.

The town is said to have been founded by the Mānas, then a warlike caste, who made plundering expeditions into Berar and repelled *Peṇḍhāris* at every encounter. Some ornaments and coins largely of the Moghal period, were unearthed in the old fort and are supposed to have been their plunder. Now very few people of *Peṇḍhāri* origin could be found in Narkheḍ. They have taken to agriculture.

Municipality.

Constitution.—The Nārkheḍ municipality was constituted in the year 1948 under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922. It covers an area of 7.77 km² (3 square miles) and according to 1961 Census has a population of 10,442. A total of 16 councillors both elected and nominated constitute the municipal committee. Of these 16 councillors, 4 are nominated. The president is chosen by the councillors themselves and the vice-president is either nominated or elected. He holds the office of the president during latter's absence from the office.

Income and Expenditure.—In 1961-62 the income of the municipality, excluding that under extraordinary and debt heads, came to Rs. 1,10,804.00. The income heads were: municipal rates and taxes Rs. 37,979.00; municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 29,235.00; grants and contributions for special and general purposes Rs. 42,369.00 and miscellaneous Rs. 1,229.00.

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NARKHED.

Municipality.

During the same year the expenditure incurred came to Rs. 98,026.00. It comprised general administration and collection charges Rs. 13,832.00; public safety Rs. 9,602.00; public health and convenience Rs. 33,076.00; public instruction Rs. 34,436.00; and miscellaneous Rs. 7,080.00.

Administrative Organisation.—The president is the administrative head. No separate independent departments have been created.

Cremation and Burial Grounds.—The communities concerned maintain the cremation and burial grounds.

Water-supply.—The town has no special water-supply scheme. Wells, private and public, and the adjoining river form the source of water from where the people draw their requirements. However, no scarcity of water is felt.

Health.—The state government runs one health centre in the town in which the civil dispensary is also accommodated. Here poor people receive free treatment.

Drainage.—The town has open surface drains and they are stone-lined in the main squares and *kutcha* at other places. However, arrangements are made to collect the waste in cess-pools and to remove it later on. Besides the private latrines, the municipality has provided the town with nine sets of public latrines.

Roads.—The town has no asphalted roads. All roads are *kutcha* and their length is only 3.219 kms. (two miles). In 1961-62 the municipality spent a sum of Rs. 1,326.35 on their repairs.

PANDHARABODI.

Pandhārabodi.—Formerly it was a deserted village. Now the Government has built a big irrigation tank at a cost of Rs. 37.05 lakhs. The area submerged by the construction is 1,161.25 acres. The tank would irrigate a total of 1,272 acres of land. The village is being populated gradually.

PARADSINGA.

Parāḍsingā.—A big village in Kaṭol *tahsīl* with many wells and a large number of orange and other fruit gardens, inhabited chiefly by *Māḷis*. Kaṭol is the principal market for its orange produce. It is situated in the Jām valley 9.659 km. (six miles) west of Kaṭol and is 67.592 km. (42 miles) from Nāgpūr. Its population is 3,373 as per 1961 Census as against 3,263 in 1951. This shows a gradual increase in the population trend. The village is administered by the *Grāmpañcāyat*. It has a weekly bazar held on every Wednesday at which large quantities of turmeric, oranges and sugarcane are sold among others. It has also a separate orange market. Since 1962 spraying of orange gardens with insecticides to protect the crops from harmful insects is carried out through the *Grāmpañcāyat*. Bunding on a large scale is done by the Soil Conservation Department to increase the fertility of the land. The village has a high school, a primary school and a basic training school run by the Zillā Pariṣad. The village is connected by the Kaṭol-Jalālkheḍā motorable road on which buses ply regularly.

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PARSEVNI.

Pārsevni. A large village in the Rāmṭek *tahsīl* about 27.358 km. (17 miles) north of Nāgpūr and 3.219 km. (two miles) west of the Peñc river, has a population of 3,877 as per 1961 Census. It contains three tanks and more than 32.374 hectares (80 acres) are under betel-vine gardens. There is a trading quarter in the village and some money-lenders reside here. The village has a Government senior basic middle school and English middle school and a primary school for girls. The Sarvodaya High School is managed by *Bharat Sevak Samaj*.

The village has a police station, two dispensaries, *viz.*, civil and veterinary, and another only to treat the lepers. It has a Block Development Office. Some manganese mines are worked in the vicinity. The Bhivagaḍ hill fort is at a distance of 8.047 km. (five miles) from the village and lies in a dilapidated condition.

PATANSAONGI.

Pāṭaṇsāvaṅgi is a large village in Sāoner *tahsīl* 24.14 km. (fifteen miles) north-west of Nāgpūr on the Nāgpūr-Chindvāḍā road. It has flourished near the confluence of the rivers Kolār and Candrabhāgā. In the village there are the ruins of an antique fort. In 1742 a battle was fought here between the Goṇḍ usurper Vali Śāh and the legitimate queen, the widow of Cānd Sultān, in which 12,000 persons were killed. There is a considerable handloom weaving industry and the village population comprise a large number of *Raṅgāris* or dyers. The village has a middle school.

RAMTEK TAHSIL.

Description.

Rāmṭek Tahsīl (21° 5′ and 21° 44′ N and 78° 55′ and 79° 35′ E, p. 1,71,995). The Rāmṭek *tahsīl* occupies the northern and north-eastern portions of the Nāgpūr district, from the rest of which it is separated by the Kanhān and its tributary the Kolār. It is bounded on the north by the Chindvāḍā and Seoni districts, on the east by the Bhaṇḍārā district, on the west by the Sāoner *tahsīl* and the Chindvāḍā district, and on the south by the Umreḍ *tahsīl*. It covers an area of 1,323.23 km², a considerable part of which is under Government forest, constituting the east and west Peñc reserves. The *tahsīl* is naturally divided into the northern country bordering the Sātpuḍās, which is intersected by hills and jungles, and the southern country between the hills and the Kanhān, which is flat and open. But an almost equally important division is made of east and west, the natural boundary being the river Peñc, which flowing directly southwards from the Chindvāḍā district, joins the Kanhān at Binā of the Rāmṭek *tahsīl*, and Vāregāṅv of the Nāgpūr *tahsīl*. It, thus, completely cuts the Rāmṭek *tahsīl* into two portions. To the east of the Peñc, lie the Rāmṭek town and Doṅgartal and Thārsā villages being the larger area, while to the west are situated the Bhivagaḍ and Pāṭaṇsāvaṅgi villages. To the east of the Peñc the principal crops are wheat and rice and to the west *jovār* and cotton. The *tahsīl* includes the two poorest tracts in the district, but the southern portion on both sides of the Peñc is closely cultivated, and is only second to the Wardhā valley in fertility. The population of the *tahsīl* has increased to 1,75,153 in 1961 from 1,58,271 in 1951.

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RAMTEK TAHSIL.

Agriculture.

As regards composition of soils, Rāmṭek is inferior to the Nāgpūr and Umreḍ *tahsīls*, and only slightly superior to the Kaṭol *tahsīl*, but the wheat fields of the Peñc valley are the best in the district. The total geographical area of the *tahsīl* is 4,27,297 acres (1,73,055.285 hectares). The net area sown is 2,56,592 acres (1,04,919.760 hectares) of which 5,259 acres (2,129.895 hectares) is cropped more than once. Hence the gross area cropped comes to 2,61,851 acres (106,049.655 hectares).

Land Revenue.

The number of villages in the *tahsīl* is 406. The land revenue derived from the total cultivated area is Rs. 4,67,629.

Miscellaneous.

The means of transport and communications of the *tahsīl* are quite good. The Nāgpūr-Jubbulpore national highway runs east from corner to corner of the *tahsīl*. The Bombay-Nāgpūr-Calcutta national highway also passes through the *tahsīl*. The Bombay-Nāgpūr-Howrāh railway line cuts across the south-eastern corner and has stations at Kanhān, Sāḷvā, Cācer, Thārsā, Revarāḷā and Khāṭ. The Nāgpūr-Rāmṭek rail line links Rāmṭek with the Bombay-Nāgpūr-Howrāh main line. Besides this rail link, the manganese mines worked in the *tahsīl* are connected with railway lines which are used only for the transport of ore. The *tahsīl* had only two police stations formerly at Rāmṭek and Moudā. Now two more have been established one each at Devaḷāpār and Pārsevani. To increase the production of arms and ammunitions, a defence ordnance factory has been set up. For this purpose extensive area has been acquired by the Government. At Thārsā an experimental agricultural farm and a horticultural research station have been started. The horticultural research station lays stress on increasing the production of oranges. At Ḍumrī and Māroḍī two seed multiplication farms have been established. At Ṭākārḍī coal mines are already being worked and a survey conducted by the Indian Bureau of Mines has declared the area around to have been containing extensive deposits of coal. There are the factories of Khaṇḍelvāl Ferro Manganese, Vidarbha Paper Mills, Brooke Bond Tea Centre, Kānpūr Chemical Works and Hume Pipes Ltd. Because of the mines and industries Rāmṭek *tahsīl* has come to attain great importance in recent years.

RAMTEK TOWN.

Position and Population.

Rāmṭek Town (21°24′ N and 79°20′ E., p. 11,747).—The head-quarter town of the Rāmṭek *tahsīl* is situated to the north-east of Nāgpūr at a distance of 54.718 km. (34 miles) by road and 20.922 km. (13 miles) from Sālvā station. A branch road leads to Rāmṭek from Mansar on the Nāgpūr-Jubbulpore national highway and a broad gauge railway line has been constructed to Rāmṭek from Kāmpṭee. The population of the town according to 1961 Census is 11,758. The town lies round the foot of a detached hill forming the western extremity of the small Ambāgaḍ range. The name signifies 'the hill of Rām'. Older names are Sinduragirī or 'the vermilion mount', and Tapogirī or 'the hill of penance', and both these occur in an inscription of the Lakṣmaṇ temple, dated in the 14th century. The stone of the hill when newly fractured appears almost of a blood-red colour when the sun is on

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RAMTEK TOWN.

it, and this effect is supposed to have been produced by the blood of the demon Hiraṇya Kaśyap, slain here by Viṣṇu in his Narsiṅha or 'Man-Lion' incarnation.

Position and Population.

Ramṭek is celebrated for its betel-leaf, and a considerable area is devoted to the cultivation of the vine. The leaf produced here is considered a delicacy and is exported to Pooṇa and Bombay. There are two sets of gardens known as the Maṇiktal and the Mathurasagar. The town has not much trade, but about 50 *malguzars* of neighbouring villages reside here. It has a somewhat dirty and disreputable appearance for which the crowds of monkeys who break up the tiled roofs unmolested, are partly responsible. The Ramṭek municipality was established in 1867. The completion of the railway, and manganese mines in the vicinity have increased the importance of Rāmṭek. A large irrigation reservoir has been constructed in the vicinity, a dam being thrown across a gorge of the Sūr river at an estimated cost of about Rs. 13 lakhs. The local institutions comprise three high schools, Marāṭhī primary schools, a dispensary to which is attached a maternity home, a police station, and a post and telegraph office. A veterinary hospital has also been opened. It is the headquarters of *tahsil* office and Block Development Office.

Rāmṭek Hill.

On the hill, standing about 152.400 metres (500 feet) above the town, are a number of temples which can be seen gleaming in the sunshine from a long distance. To the south and west sides the hill is protested by a lofty natural scarp, and on the north it has a double line of defence. The inner one belongs to the citadel, and the outer, running below the citadel walls to the west, takes a sweep outwards and is carried across a narrow valley which leads down to the Ambālā tank. It is continued along the edge of the south side of the hill facing the town of Ramṭek. This outer fortification is now in ruins; it was of rude construction and is ascribed to the Gavaḷis. Within it was a considerable village, of which there are still traces to be seen. The citadel is at the western or highest extremity of the enclosure, having the chief temples at the apex of the angle. From the west end of the Ambālā tank, a flight of steps leads up the hill, at the opposite end of which another flight descends to the town of Rāmṭek. All pilgrims, who go to worship at the temples, ascend the hill from the Ambālā flight of steps. Nearby at the top of the steps to the right is a very old stone-faced tank with a *Dharmaśāḷā*. It is said that Narsiṅha, after killing the monster Hiraṇya Kaśyap threw away his cudgel on the hill with such force that it made the hole which now forms the tank. Close by are two temples of Narsiṅha with huge images.

The coming of Rām.

Opposite to these temples is the one which is known as that of Dhumreśwar Mahādev. About this temple it is told that in primeval times a *Śudra* named Śambuka lived at Rāmṭek and practised austerities, a prerogative of the higher castes, with such effect that he caused the untimely death of a Brāhmaṇ's son. On this Rām came and cut off his head. The *Śudra* was highly pleased at being so honoured in his death, and prayed to Rām

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RAMTEK TOWN.

Rāmṭek Hill.

The coming of Rām.

that he would abide for ever at Rāmṭek, and that he (the *Śudra*) might also be worshipped there. So Rām took up his abode on the hill, and the *Śudra* was turned into a *liṅg* over which the temple of Dhumreśwar Mahādev was built. And as a sign that Rām has fulfilled his promise and abides here for ever it is said that from time to time a flame resembling the Morning Star plays round the pointed iron rod on the top of the temple. This phenomenon appears to occur in cloudy weather and to be the effect of an electric discharge. It is on account of the above exploit of Rām and the belief that he took up his residence here that Rāmṭek is invested with special sanctity.

Citadel and temples.

Further along the hill is a plain mosque said to have been built in memory of one of Auraṅgzeb's courtiers. From this a flight of steps leads up to the outer gate, a massive building which with all the outer line of walls belonging to the citadel was built by Raghujī I. This gate is called *Varāh Daravāzā*, from a huge figure of the *Varāh* or boar incarnation of Viṣṇu which is placed just inside it. This figure is of great age and is referred to in the inscription as 'The Primeval Boar'. Pilgrims slide under its belly and any one who by reason of his bulk or other cause is not able to do so is considered as a sinner. In this court is a temple of Kṛṣṇa belonging to the *Mānbhāvs*. The Siṅghpūr gate in the second line of walls leads to the second court, and all this part of the citadel is much older than the outer walls. In the second court the Marāṭhās had an arsenal and a few old guns are still left. A very fine gateway called the Bhairava Daravāzā, leads to the third court or citadel, the walls and bastions of which were restored by the Marāṭhās and are in good repair. In the court are the dwellings of temple servants. Beyond this is the Gokuḷ Darvāzā, leading into the last court. In the court is an arch on a platform, a half of which is dedicated to Gaṇapati, while the other half is claimed by the *Kabīrpanthis* as their seat. The visitor on entering beholds the temples of *Rājā* Daśaratha, the father of Rām and that of Vaśiṣṭha *Munī*. Lakṣmaṇ's temple stands in front and beyond it the great temple of Rām and Sītā, while those of various other deities are arranged round the sides. Rām's and Lakṣmaṇ's temples have the outer door-frames plated with brass and the inner with silver. The idols are of black marble and are said to have been found in the Dudhalā tank after the original ones had been mutilated by a Muhammedan iconoclast king. The temples are in the mediaeval Brāhmanic style, and the entrance-court to the shrine is in both of them supported by eight massive pillars. There is an inscription in Lakṣmaṇ's temple, apparently engraved after their construction, and this shows that they are at any rate more than 600 years old. The temples of various other epic personalities like Vālmikī, Gaṇapati, Lav and Kuś (the sons of Rām), Kausalyā and Sumitrā, and Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇ are arranged round the sides. The *gābhārās* of almost all the temples measure 37.161 m² (20′ × 20′). The *Sabhāmaṇḍap* of the temple of Rām is square in shape while that of Lakṣmaṇ is round. The carvings on the *Gokuḷ Daravāzā* and in the Lakṣmaṇ *Maṇdir* are especially noteworthy.

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RAMTEK TOWN.

Rāmṭek Hill.

Citadel and temples.

To the left of the Rām *Mandir* there is an eyelet known as Rām *Jharokā* which gives a panoramic view of the surroundings.

Two great religious fairs are held at Ramṭek, one at the time of *Tripurī Paurṇimā* and the other at the time of *Rām Navmī*. On these occasions nearly 20 to 30 thousand people gather, and on the principal day a yellow silk cloth called *Pitāmbar* is burnt at the top of Rām's temple in commemoration of the burning of the demon Tripurāsur whom Śiv slew. A good amount of trade in utensils, stationery and other goods takes place which yields a sum of over Rs. 900 to the temples, for the traders are required to pay something to the temple. The Bhosles have left behind a fund of nine and a half lakhs of rupees from the interest of which the temples are maintained and the festivals are celebrated.

Other temples.

To the east of the Lakṣmaṇ *Mandir* is the temple of Rādhā-Kṛṣṇa. The massive gate in front of this temple, which has been mentioned elsewhere is known as the *Bhairava Daravāzā*. This is so-called probably because of the *Nagārkhānā*, or the music gallery, which is just nearby.

Between the citadel and the traveller's bungalow are the ruins of a small shrine with a life-sized image of Viṣṇu in his Dwarf incarnation. This is considered by archaeologists to be the oldest temple in Rāmṭek; it is known to the people as the *Bhāu Bahiṇ* temple. Down the hill is a very old temple of Kalinkā and some Jain temples of Śānti Nāth, whose image is about 5.486 metres (18 feet) long and has the sign of a deer. The temples are all old, built in the Mediaeval Brahmanic style and one of them being covered with beautiful carvings.

Ambālā Tank.

The Ambālā tank, which is lined with stone revetments and steps throughout, has many temples on its banks, most of which are of modern construction. Their appearance, however, is picturesque and in the morning, when the sun is shining on the white temples, the view of the tank and hills is very beautiful. Among the temples is one of the rare ones dedicated to the sun. The story of the tank is that there was once a *Suryavaṅśī* Rajput king named Ambā who was a leper. He happened to come to the spot of the present tank while hunting, and feeling thirsty he took water from a spring and washed his face and hands with it. And to his amazement he found that the marks of leprosy disappeared from his skin where the water had touched it. He, therefore, excavated the spring, and from it came up the waters of Bhogāvatī or the Gaṅgā of the nether world. For this reason, people throw the ashes of the dead into the tank, whose water is as sacred as that of the Gaṅgā. For the purpose of immersing the ashes of the dead a particular part of the tank on the east has been set aside and a *ghāt* has been built which is known as *Daśakriyā Ghāt*. In all, eight *ghāts* have been constructed on the tank and have been named after the sacred *Aṣṭatirthas*. The town has about 27 tanks, several of which are held to be sacred.

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RAMTEK TOWN.

Municipality.

Established in 1867, Rāmṭek municipality comprises eight wards and covers an area of 5.69 km². It was the first municipality to be established at a tālukā place in the district. The municipal committe is composed of ten members from amongst whom, the president is elected. The president nominates the vice-president from the remaining members. The committee is re-elected every third year.

Out of eight wards six wards elect one member each. The remaining two *viz.*, Bastervāḍī-Papḍhup and Hanumantpurā-Maṅgalvāḍī, elect two members each. In these two wards a seat each is reserved for a woman and for Scheduled Caste community, respectively. There are various committees for finance, sanitation, education, etc., which advise the general committee in their respective fields.

Income and Expenditure.—In 1960-61, the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,77,022. It comprises municipal rates and taxes accounting for Rs. 99,280; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 12,184; grants and contributions (for general and special purposes) Rs. 60,276 and miscellaneous Rs. 5,282. The expenditure during the same year excluding extraordinary and debt heads, totalled Rs. 1,76,773; of which the expenditure on general administration and collection charges was Rs. 35,285; public safety Rs. 12,006; public health and convenience Rs. 69,302; public instruction Rs. 54,640; capital expenditure Rs. 700 and miscellaneous Rs. 4,840.

Amenities.—There is no special water-supply scheme for the municipal area. There are, however, numerous private wells in the town which hold a good deal of water throughout the year. Situated at the foot of the hill, Rāmṭek had a natural drainage for rain and sullage water. Excepting a few stone-lined gutters most of them are kutchā drains.

The total length of roads under municipal control is six miles, (9.6561 km.), of which three miles (4.8280 km.) are metalled and the rest unmetalled. There are two cremation grounds, one near Gohutaḷā and the other on the bank of the Ambālā tank. At the foot of Kāsamśāh hill, behind the tahsīl office, is a public burial place.

The primary education is compulsory and is managed by the municipal committee. There are five municipal schools, and they have 948 students on the roll.

The municipal committee runs a hospital with the aid of Government where patients are treated free of charge. There is also a veterinary dispensary, managed by the committee. Both the hospital and the veterinary dispensary are well equipped and adequately staffed. Of late a T. B. Centre and a maternity hospital have been opened. The hospital has a family planning centre attached to it.

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RIDHORA.

Riḍhorā. A flourishing village on the Jām river, 6.437 km. (four miles) south of Kaṭol. The population as per 1961 Census is 2,340. The village grows fine cotton and jowar crops, and its oranges are of exceptional quality. A weekly market is held on Sundays. Riḍhorā has one middle school, and an ayurvedic dispensary. It comes under the administrative sphere of Grāmpañcāyat. The Grāmpañcayat has its own building. Riḍhorā has been provided with electric lights. A motorable road connects the village with Kaṭol and Kondhaḷī. Riḍhorā is at a distance of 3 furlongs from this road.

SAONER. Description.

Sāoner A considerable town lying on the Kolār river, 37 km. (twenty-three miles) to the north-west of Nāgpūr at the junction of Chindvāḍā and Itārsi roads, situated in 21°23′ N and 78°55′ E. The country to the north and west rises to the Sātpuḍā hills but in the neighbourhood of the town and to the south and east the land is exceptionally fertile. The present population of the town is 10,186. Sāoner town is the headquarters of Sāoner *tahsīl.*

Sāoner is said to be mentioned in *Jaimini Aśvamedha* under the name of Sārasvatpūr, and there are many legends connected with it. Of the temples more ancient are those of Gaṇapati and Mahādev, at the neighbouring village of Adāsā, on a hill. This hill is said to be one of the gates of a great ancient city. There are also broken shrines of Rām, Lakṣmaṇ, Nandi and Rāvaṇ. There are also the remains of a large stone fort with corner towers built for protection against the habitual raids of the *Peṇḍhāris.*

Sāoner has a considerable population of *Koṣṭīs* who weave ordinary cotton cloth. Red dye is still produced, for which the town at one time was noted. This industry is fast decaying because the mill-made cloth is preferred by the people. The *Koṣṭīs* are now engaged in occupations like agriculture. A large weekly market is held on Fridays at which the attendance is about 10,000. This is chiefly a cloth and cattle bazar. In the open season two to three hundred cattle are sold weekly.

Sāoner depends chiefly on its trade in raw cotton and oranges. There are three ginning factories at work and two pressers. Raw cotton mostly goes to Nāgpūr.

The Scotch Free Church Mission had an English middle school but now in its place a montessori school is run. One veterinary dispensary has been started by the municipal committee. In place of the former civil dispensary a grand health unit has been established by W.H.O. in 1954-55 where medical college students are given practical training. A motor stand is under construction. There are Government offices and buildings such as the post and telegraph office, tahśil office, a dak bungalow and a police station. The town has been supplied with electric power from Khāperkheḍā Thermal Power Station.

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SAONER.

Schools.

The town has two high schools of which one is managed by the municipality and the other is under private management. There are five primary schools one being solely for girls. There is also Secondary Teachers' Certificate Training Institute and a Primary Teachers' Training College. The educational institutions afford educational facilities up to secondary level.

Municipality.

The Sāoner municipality was established in 1867. Its area in 1960 covered 6.18 km². (2.4 sq. miles). According to 1961 Census its population is 10,186. Committees composed of elected members are constituted to carry out functions, such as, maintenance of health and hygiene; furtherance of education; lighting public streets; maintaining parks; disposing night soil and refuse of the town, etc.

In 1959-60 total income of the municipality including extraordinary debts of Rs. 9,971 was Rs. 1,50,700; of which municipal rates and taxes amounted to Rs. 39,839; realisation under special acts Rs. 231; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 39,950; grants for general and special purposes Rs. 58,172 and miscellaneous Rs. 2,537. Figures of expenditure for the same year including Rs. 13,995 of extraordinary debts was Rs. 1,43,392; of which charges for collection of taxes and general administration accounted for Rs. 17,284; public safety Rs. 13,006; public health and convenience Rs. 38,148; public instruction Rs. 57,520 and miscellaneous Rs. 3,439.

Sāoner town, which is a railway junction, has a brisk trade in cotton and oranges and separate markets have been established for them, besides daily and weekly markets. Kolār river serves as the chief source of water-supply, which is supplemented from private and municipal wells. A scheme to install an electric pump on the well near the motor-stand is in operation. 'U' shaped gutters built in stone are provided for carrying filthy water out of the town. The municipality has improvised for equipment of fire-fighting by putting a water tank on a truck. With this the municipality is able to meet emergencies.

The length of P.W.D. roads in the municipal limits is about 3.20 km. (two miles) all of which is asphalted. Out of 6.43 km. (four miles) of municipal roads, 4 km. (2.5 miles) are metalled and remaining unmetalled. A scheme of compulsory education is in operation in the town. In 1960, the total number of pupils in the primary schools was 986 and that in the high school was 548. The municipality maintains a library in the town, and has equipped it with literature for the enlightenment and information of the reading public.

Four places on the banks of Kolār river are maintained by the municipality to serve as burial and cremation grounds. Muhammedans maintain separate burial ground.

Objects.

Bhansāḷi Āshram.

The *Āśram* is situated some 6.43 kilometres (four miles) off Sāoner town. It is named after Prof. Bhansāḷī who established it. Prof. Bhansāḷī was a firm and devoted follower of Gāndhijī and his philosophy. The *Āśram* is carrying out some constructive

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SAONER.

Objects.

Bhansāli Āshram.

work in the social, cultural and educational fields. It has established a middle school and a montessori school with a view to bringing about the educational uplift of the children. It also maintains a sermon hall where religious discourses are held and lectures on religion are delivered. In addition, it runs an agricultural school and a laboratory where instructions in scientific agricultural knowledge are being given to the agriculturists. It tries to promote and encourage the use of scientific methods and implements for the betterment of agriculture. The *Āśram* receives grants-in-aid from the Government towards the expenditure it incurs for cultural and social welfare of the people.

Samādhī of Rām Gaṇeś Gadkarī.

The *samādhī* of late Śri Rām Gaṇeś Gaḍkarī, a renowned Marāṭhī dramatist and poet is situated at Sāoner. The *samādhī* is built in a very simple style and is ordinary in appearance and design. But it brings to the mind of the visitor the fabulous imagination and gigantic poetical qualities of the great writer whose mortal remains lie underneath possessed.

Śiv Mandir.

The temple of Śiv is situated on the banks of the river Kolār. It is said to be some 400 years old. The area of the temple measures 18.288 × 6.096 metres (60′ × 20′.)

The shrine where the *Liṅg* is placed measures 3.65 × 3.65 metres (12′ × 12′) while the length of the *Liṅg* itself is 1.06 metres (3½′). On the wall, at the back of the *Liṅg* and facing the visitor is engraved an image of Gaṇapati with admirable skill. Outside is the *Maṇḍap* of the temple having walls on all the four sides with an entrance in the front. In addition to the walls the *Maṇḍap* is supported by four pillars. The temple does not bear any carvings of much significance, but it has the pictures of numerous deities beautifully painted on the walls. In the *Maṇḍap* exactly facing the *Liṅg* is the image of Nandi which is about 1.21 × 0.76 metres (4′ × 2½′).

Two fairs, one at *Śivrātra* and the other in *Jeṣṭha* are held, the management of which is left to a committee. The expenditure is incurred from the generous contributions given by the people.

It is said that Emperor Auraṅgzeb in his quest to convert *Dār-ul-harb* (land of the infidel) into *Dār-ul-Islām* (land of the faithful) tried to demolish and raze the temple to the ground. But wherever he struck flames of fire leapt out and thus prevented Auraṅgzeb from achieving his goal.

In front of the temple there is an idol of God Māruti about 1.52 × 0.91 metres (5′ × 3′) in a standing posture. There are also many other images of different deities, and an unknown *Samādhī*.

At the back of the temple there is a *pimpaḷ* and a banyan tree which shelter the temple from rains and heat alike.

KHAPERKHEDA THERMAL POWER STATION.

The Khāperkheḍā thermal power station is the major scheme of power development in the district. Situated in Sāoner *tahsīl* at a distance of 20.922 kilometres (13 miles) from Nāgpūr, the station was formally commissioned by the former Madhya Pradeś Electricity Board in 1950. Initially it had an installed capacity of

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KHAPERKHEDA THERMAL POWER STATION.

30,000 kw. But recent installation of one more 30,000 kw. turbo-alternator set has doubled the installed capacity of the station. This power station has been connected with Ballārśāh power station and together they have a total installed capacity of over 82,500 kw. The Khāperkheḍā thermal power station supplies power to the eight districts of Vidarbha region. A programme to develop the grid lines was included in the second plan and has also been included in the third plan with a view to meet the prospective power requirements. The Khāperkheḍā power station has gone a long way towards meeting the power requirements of the people as well as the industries.

SAVARGANV.

Sāvargāṅv. A large village in Kaṭol *tahsīl* about 16.093 km. (10 miles) north of Kaṭol and 74.03 km. (46 miles) from Nāgpūr. The population of the village is 3,639 according to 1961 Census, as against 3,062 in 1951. The village is mainly agricultural, but there is also a small dyeing industry. The industry, however, is fast declining. A nulla cuts off the village during the rainy season from other villages. To overcome this difficulty a causeway is under construction. The village has a high school, a primary school and a post office. A weekly market is held on every Monday when people purchase their requirements. There is a motorable road which connects the village with *tahsīl* headquarters, Kaṭol. State Transport buses ply on this road both ways five times a day. The village has been electrified and now a sub-station of Mahārāṣṭra State Electricity Board is being set up to supply electricity in the interior areas. The village is under the administration of a *Grāmpañcāyat*.

There are the old remains of a mud fort which was built as a protection against the depredations and ravages of the *Peṇḍhāris*, a tribe noted for arson and looting. A small temple of Mahāvīr stands in the middle of the village. It is built of a fine compact yellow clay obtained locally, and its carved panels and scrolls are of exceptionally clean workmanship and design.

TAKALGHAT.

Tākaḷghāt. A large village in the Nāgpūr *tahsīl*, 30.577 km. (19 miles) south-west of Nāgpūr, and 6.43 km. (four miles) from Borī station, situated on the Kṛṣṇā river. The present population of the village is 2,499. The old southern road now called Nāgpūr-Borī-Hiṅgaṇghāṭ road passes through the village and a good track connects it with Borī. Near the village are a number of mounds and rough stone circles covering five acres, from which have been dug fragments of pottery, flint, arrow-heads and ironware, evidently of great antiquity. The village has a primary school.

SIRSI.

Sirsī. A village in the Umreḍ *tahsīl* about 27.358 km. (17 miles) south-west of Umreḍ on the Wardhā district border near Girāḍ. According to 1961 Census the village has a population of 3,535. The village lies in the valley of a large stream flowing into the Naṅd river. A road is under construction which would connect the village with the road that runs from Umreḍ to Girāḍ. The weaving industry which flourished formerly is now on the

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SIRSI.

decline. The weavers now have taken to agriculture. The village is large and straggling and has a poor appearance. The name is derived from the *siris* tree (*Albizzia Lebbek*) which grows abundantly in the vicinity. Sirsī has a primary and a middle school, a police station and a post office. The village has a *Grāmpañcāyat*.

TARNA.

Tārnā. A small village in Umreḍ *tahsīl* about 9.656 km. (6 miles) south-east of Umreḍ. The village is located on the bank of a stream known as Hedu nulla. One mile down the stream the State Government has constructed a tank at a cost of Rs. 3.45 lakhs. The tank is named as Satighāṭ Project after the names of the hills which surround it. The tank would irrigate an area of 336.150 hectares (830 acres). Nearby in the hills are some old caves having the images of Śiv in different poses. On the day of *Śivarātra* a fair attended by a large congregation of people is held. The construction of the tank and the natural scenery around has rendered the spot a beautiful picnic place.

UMRED TAHSIL.

Umreḍ Tahsil. Umreḍ *tahsīl* occupies the central and south-eastern portions of the district, lying between 20° 35′ and 21° 11′ N, and 78°56′ and 79°40′ E. In shape it is a rough parallelogram. The only notable geographical feature of the tahsīl is the broad belt of hills, a continuation of the Kondhalī hills of the Kaṭol *tahsīl* and the Kelijhār hills of the Nāgpūr *tahsīl* which run from north-west to south-east into the Cāndā district. The rest of the *tahsīl* is a broad undulating plain traversed here and there by broken ranges of hills and cut up by several rivers. Its area is over 2.508.81 km.^{2} (969 square miles), of which an appreciable area is under Government forest.

Population.

The population of the *tahsīl* according to 1961 Census is 1,92,177. Umreḍ is the only town in the *tahsīl*. It is the third largest town in the district in respect of population. It possesses eight large villages with a population of over 2.000, and 14 villages with a population of between 1,000 and 2,000. The *tahsīl* has a total of 518 villages.

Agriculture.

As far as the composition of soil goes Umreḍ is the most favoured of the five *tahsīls*. Four-fifths of its land is capable of producing wheat. Its rainfall, too, is usually in excess of the district average. Nevertheless for reasons never fully explained the Umreḍ *tahsīl* is the most backward in the district and always suffers most in bad seasons. The explanation may lie in the unusual large number of streams and nullas which cut up the surface of the plain in all directions and render the drainage undesirably rapid and complete in an area devoted largely to rice and *rabi* crops. The total area of the *tahsīl* is 2,32,314 hectares (5,73,615 acres), of which 1,32,242 hectares (3,26,524 acres) constitute the net area sown. The area under *rabi* crops has fallen but still occupies considerably more than half the total cultivated area.

Miscellaneous.

The communications of the *tahsīl* are good. The *tahsīl* has three major roads connecting it with other *tahsīls*. The first runs from Umreḍ to Borī and is called Borī-Umreḍ road, the second one is the Nāgpūr-Cāndā state highway passing through Umreḍ and the third one running from Umreḍ to Mul in Cāndā district.

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UMRED TAHSIL.

Miscellaneous.

A recent survey conducted by the Bureau of Mines and Research has disclosed extensive deposits of high grade coal in Umreḍ *tahsīl*. The coal deposits are estimated to be 71.123 million metric tons (70 million tons) and the deposits are spread over an area of 956 hectares (2,362 acres) of land. The mine would be mechanised and would be named as Umreḍ Project. A special railway line linking Umreḍ Project with the Buṭibori station on the Nāgpūr-Bombay line of the Central Railway is under construction. This line would transport 4,064.2 metric tons (4,000 tons) of coal every day. A town settlement for the workers has also been planned and it would spread over an area of 101 hectares (250 acres).

UMRED TOWN.

Umreḍ Town (20° 50′ N and 79° 15′ E).—The headquarter town of the Umreḍ *tahsīl* lies 46.67 km. (29 miles) south-east of Nāgpūr on the metalled road to Mul and Cāndā. Umreḍ is also a railway station on the Nāgpūr-Nāgbhir narrow gauge railway line, 56 kilometres away from Nāgpūr. The town lies on the high plain forming the watershed of the Āmb and Maru rivers, and the fields lie between the town and the latter river. It contains a Marāṭhā fort partially ruined, and inside it is a temple with 5.18 metres thick walls, which was dedicated to Śiv, but is now deserted. The temple shows the influence of Muhammedan style and can, therefore, be regarded as very old. The fort is supposed to have been built by *Rājā* Karaṇ Sāh of the Cānd Goṇḍ dynasty in the 16th century. The wealth of the town has much increased in recent years. The *Koṣṭī* weavers have collected here from the neighbouring towns and villages and are a thriving community. Weaving of cotton cloth with silk borders is the staple industry. White loin-cloth with red borders is generally woven, the thread being dyed with lac. Umreḍ is well-known for silk bordered *dhotis*, *sāris* and *khaṇs* of remarkable quality. The Umreḍ *uparṇe*, a single cloth worn loosely over the shoulders, whose use is becoming extinct now, is considered as of very good quality. The superfine mill cloth which has taken the place of woven cloth has given a severe set-back to the dyeing and weaving industry. The industry is fast falling into decay. There is also a considerable community of *Telis* or oil pressers. A considerable cattle market is held on every Thursday and the sales are registered. There are several irrigation tanks. Betel-vine and garden-crops are grown but now they are on the decline. The only product produced in abundance is chillis, and is exported to distant places like Madrās, Bombay, Calcutta and Delhi. Merchants from these places go to Umreḍ and make their purchases. The average annual turnover is about 5,000 quintals valued at Rs. 7,50,000. There are also coalfields.

The town has two privately managed high schools and two middle schools one for girls and the other for boys. The former is under private management but the latter is run by the municipality. In the town there are eight primary schools run by the municipality. There is also an Urdu primary school under municipal management. There are civil and veterinary dispensaries, a police station and an inspection bungalow.

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UMRED TOWN.

In Umred there is a very old land-fort. It lies in a dilapidated condition. Some of the fortifications of the fort are still standing. Three of the bastions are still to be seen in a good condition. There is one gate with an arch in one of the walls and it is said that there is an underground tunnel from here which directly leads one to Sitabuldi in Nagpur. But there is no sufficient proof to corroborate this. At the foot of the fort the municipality has laid out a beautiful garden. The garden is quite spacious and among other things has a separate corner for children.

The town has one temple dedicated to Rām and built by the Marvadi community. The temple pillars have on their faces beautiful architectural designs which add glory and beauty to the temple. The temple is a fine piece of architecture and is worth a visit. There is also one temple of Durgā Devī which was recently built.

Municipality.

Constitution.—The municipality was established in 1867. It has an area of 10.36 km.² under its jurisdiction. A total of 18 members constitute the municipal committee. Out of these, two seats are reserved for women and one for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes combined together. The members elect a president from amongst themselves. The vice-president is nominated by the president. He has to head the committee in the absence, illness or resignation of the president until such time as a new president is elected.

A number of departments have been created with an officer at the head of each of them, who has to supervise and transact the business assigned to his department. The following are some of the important departments:—

(1) *General Administration Department.*—This is the most important of all and is headed by the secretary. The general administration department has overriding powers over all other departments. The secretary is invested with the power of over-all supervision and control of the other departments. In addition he has to record the proceedings of the meetings held by the committee.

(2) *The Collection department.*—This department is bifurcated into two, *viz.*, (a) Tax department, with a tax superintendent at its head and (b) Octroi department, with an octroi superintendent. Both these departments perform their duties independently.

(3) *Sanitary and conservancy department.*—A sanitary inspector is in charge of this department and he is to look after the sanitation of the town by keeping it clean of any refuse.

(4) *Education department.*—The secretary for education heads this department and he is responsible for the implementation of compulsory primary education programme, supervision of schools and holding of the meetings of school committee to discuss and find out the difficulties faced in carrying out the successful implementation of compulsory primary education programme.

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UMRED TOWN.

Municipality.

(5) *Public Health Department.*—The doctor in charge of this department is to see that the needy patients are rendered proper medical aid. He has to report the outbreak of epidemics and arrange for preventive measures. This division of work has gone a far way towards the speedy transaction and performance of business.

Income and Expenditure.—The total income of the municipality excluding extraordinary and debt heads, during the financial year 1961-62 was Rs. 2,94,886.53; municipal rates and taxes contributing Rs. 1,21,625.58; realisation under special Acts Rs. 2,215.45; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 57,488.03; grants and contributions Rs. 1,00,372.99 and miscellaneous Rs. 8,684.48.

During the same year expenditure on corresponding items amounted to Rs. 3,06,290.69; public safety Rs. 14,931.47; public health and convenience Rs. 1,23,687.99; public instruction Rs. 98,447.34; contributions Rs. 440.60 and miscellaneous Rs. 15,249.87.

Cremation and Burial Grounds.—There are neither cremation nor burial grounds falling within the municipal limits. However, there are such places which fall just outside the municipal area which are managed by the respective communities.

Drainage.—There are *kutcha* drains and a few stone-lined gutters. As yet the municipality has not prepared any special drainage scheme for the town. The water is allowed to gather in cess-pools and arrangement is then made to remove it at a safe distance.

Water-supply.—The wells and tanks form the principal source of water-supply. The roads are watered by means of water sprinkling truck.

Roads.—The Nāgpūr-Cāndā road passes through Umred, and runs a distance of 3.21 kilometres (two miles) in Umred. There are no asphalted roads within the municipal jurisdiction. The length of metalled roads is 8 kilometres (five miles) while unmetalled roads measure 16.90 kilometres (10 miles 4 furlongs). The municipality carries out repairs to the roads from time to time.

Education.—As per Government regulations, primary education is compulsory in the town. It is being managed by the municipality. There is no high school under the management of the municipality. The municipality runs a public library at its own expense.

Health and public safety.—The municipality maintains and runs a dispensary where patients are treated and medicines supplied free of cost. A veterinary dispensary is also run by the municipality. The town is not susceptible to any epidemic but in case the surrounding villages are affected by epidemics, immediate arrangement to vaccinate the people is made.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

UMRED TOWN.

Objects.

Mārāṭhā Fort.

The fort which was built in about the 16th century lies in a dilapidated condition. Only two walls, which are also partially ruined are standing and except for these walls no trace of the fort is to be seen. Inside the fort is a temple, of no great importance, dedicated to Śiv. The temple shows the influence of Muhammedan style and can therefore be regarded as very old. The fort is supposed to have been built by *Rāja* Karaṇ Śāh of Cānd Goṇḍ dynasty in the 16th century.

Within the ruined compound of the fort is a high school where education up to the S. S. C. Examination is imparted. Behind this school building the municipality has laid out a fine and well-preserved garden. The garden opens on a lovely playing fountain. The green, soft, well-cut lawns are encircled with avenues of fragrant flower plants whose fragrance is spread around by the gentle breeze keeping the atmosphere pleasant. In all the corners of the garden are planted huge trees which look like green-robed senators of the mighty woods. The trees with their dark shade keep the garden premises very cool. Under the trees are placed benches where people can rest and relax. The evenings are especially gay and full of life when the children amuse themselves by playing and the elders, forgetting their wordly worries for a moment, refresh while listening to the records played, for which a special arrangement has been made by the municipality. The garden has become an excellent spot of recreation and relaxation to the people.

Just ahead of the municipal garden is an expansive lake which covers an area of about 101 hectares (250 acres). In the lake are grown some lotus plants on which charming lotus flowers grow. Around the lake are fixed benches on which people sit and enjoy the sight of the lotus flowers tossing their heads against each other and dancing gaily at the gentle touch of the Zephyr.

Jagdaṁbā Mandir.

The temple of Goddess Jagdaṁbā was built in 1958. The inner of the temple measures 1.829 × 1.219 metres (6′ × 4′) in the centre of which is set the idol of the Goddess on a raised pedestal. The idol, made of pure white marble, is in a standing position. The Goddess is having four hands and is donned with a silver crown, while its eyes are studded with gold. The entrance to the *Gābhārā* is 1.524 × 0.914 metres (5′ × 3′). On the door, on either side are carved in wood the symbols of two lion faces. The *Gābhārā* is having a vaulted dome which is about 6.096 metres (20′) high. The *Sabhāmaṇḍap* of the temple is 6.096 × 3.048 metres (20′ × 10′). The floor of the *Sabhāmaṇḍap* is paved with multicoloured marble tiles. The temple has five windows all round whose frames bear exceedingly beautiful designs, carved in wood. The walls of the *Maṇḍap* are painted with beautiful pictures on them. The Navrātra festival is celebrated in all its glory and on the occasion *kirtans* are performed. There is an open courtyard in front of the temple. In one of its corners there is a *bakul* tree which gives shade as well as fragrant flowers. The temple being of recent construction is noteworthy.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

VAKODI.

Vākoḍi is a large village in Sāoner *tahsīl,* at a distance of 4.827 kilometres (three miles) from Khāpā, on the road to Pāṭaṇsāvaṅgi. It has spread along the banks of the Kanhān and as per 1961 Census has a population of 2,758. Wild plums of good variety are grown here in abundance. The *Koṣṭī* community of the village weave women's *saris and* body-cloths. At Vākoḍi is a shrine dedicated to a certain *Koṣṭī* saint and is held in high veneration by the local people. The village has a middle school.

VELTUR.

Veltur. A large village in the north-east of the Umreḍ *tahsīl,* lying close to the Bhaṇḍārā border and about 32.187 km. (20 miles) from Umreḍ. The population is 2,793 according to 1961 Census. The village has a primary school, a post office and a police station. According to tradition Veltur was founded by a man of the *Mahār* caste.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS

EXPLANATION OF COLUMN HEADINGS, SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS USED

The names of towns and villages are arranged in alphabetical order for the whole of the district.

Column (1)—The names are given both in English and Deonagari. The English spelling is marked diacritically as under :—

ā-आ; ī-ई; ū-ऊ; ṛ-ऋ; c-च; ch-छ्; ṭ-ट्; ṭh-ठ्; ḍ-ड्; ḍh-ढ्; n-न्; ṅ-ङ्; ñ-ञ; ṇ-ण; s-स; ś-श; ṣ-ष; l-ळ.

Abbreviations indicating Tahsils—

Ktl—Katol.
Ngp—Nagpur.
Rmt—Ramtek.
Snr—Saoner.
Umr—Umred.

Column (2).—(*a*) Direction ; (*b*) Travelling distance of the village from the taluka head-quarters.

Abbreviations used showing direction from taluka headquarters—

E—East.	NE—North-East.
W—West.	SE—South-East.
N—North.	NW—North-West.
S—South.	SW—South-West.

HQ—Headquarters.

Column (3).—(*a*) Area (acres); (*b*) Total population ; (*c*) Number of households ; (*d*) Total number of Agricultural population.

Column (4).—(*a*) Post office ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column (5).—(*a*) Railway station ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column (6).—(*a*) Weekly bazar ; (*b*) Bazar day ; (*c*) Distance of the bazar place from the village.

**Column* (7).—(*a*) Nearest motor stand ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column (8).—Drinking water facilities available in the village.

br—brook.	pl—pipe-line.
cl—canal.	spr—spring.
n—nalla.	str—stream.
o—scarcity of water.	t—tank.
p—pond.	W—big-well.
rsr—reservoir.	w—small-well.

Column (9).—Miscellaneous information about school, panchayat, co-operative society, temple math, mosque, dargah, chavadi, gymnasium, library, dispensary, church and inscription :—

Sl—school.	tr-clg—Training College.	(c)—credit.	(mis)—miscellaneous.
(h)—high.	mun—municipality.	(fmg)—farming.	(mp)—multipurpose.
(m)—middle.	pyt—panchayat.	(i)—industrial.	(sp)—sale and purchase.
(pr)—primary.	Cs—co-operative society.	(con)—consumers.	(wvg)—weaving.
			Fr—fair.

Months according to Hindu Calendar—

Ct—Chaitra ; Vsk—Vaisakha ; Jt—Jaishtha ; Asd—Ashadha ; Srn—Shravana ; Bdp—Bhadrapada ; An—Ashvina; Kt—Kartika ; Mrg—Margashirsha ; Ps—Pausha ; Mg—Magh ; Phg—Phalguna ; Sud—Shudha (First fortnight of the month) ; Vad—Vadya (Second fortnight of the month).

tl—temple.	gym—gymnasium.
m—math.	ch—chavadi.
mq—mosque.	lib—library.
dg—dargah.	dp—dispensary.
dh—dharamshala.	Cch—Church.

ins—inscription.

N.B.—Figures for distance in columns (2), (4), (5), (6) and (7) stand for miles and furlongs.

*Column (7) gives the nearest motor stand in its distance.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres) ; Pro. ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Ālesūr Umr. आलेसूर ..	N; 7·0	.. 456; 137; 281		..	7·0	Umrer ; 7·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl; M.
Āḍakā—Ngp.—आडका ..	E; 12·0	1560·52; 524; 126; 292	Dighori; 2·0	Dighori; 2·0	Nagpur; 9·0 All days.	.. 5·0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl; lib.
Aḍam—Umr. अडम ..	NE; 16·0	2413·48; 1052; 213; 582	Local; ..	Kuhi; 7·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W; n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.; gym.; dp.
Ādāsā Rmt. आदासा ..	SE; 20·0	873·56; 197; 32; 112	Khat; 1·4	Khat; 1·4	Khat; 1·4 Wed.	.. 5·0	W.	tl.
Ādāsā—Snr. आदासा ..	NW; 2·0	1003·20; 316; 80; 170	Local; ..	Adasa; 5·0	Saoner; 4·0 Fri.	Saoner; 2-0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Mg. Vad. 4; 2tl; dg.; gym.; lib.
Āḍegāṅv—Ngp. आडेगांव ..	NW; 32·0	2890·23; 1324; 276; 319	Local; ..	Nagpur; 33·0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 11·0	W.;w.	2tl; dg; dp.
Aḍegāṅv—Rmt. अडेगांव ..	E; 14·0	2873·22; 635; 136; 291	Kodamendhi 2·0	Rewarala; 8·0	Kodamendhi 2·0 Thu.	Ramtek; 14·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr) Shankar Fr. Mg. Vad. 5; 2tl.; gym.
Aḍegāṅv Umr. अडेगांव ..	E; 14·0	961·72; 193; 37; 82	Weltur; 1·0	Kuhi; 17·0	Weltur; 1·0 Fri.	Umrer; 14·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.; M.; gym.
Aḍyāl—Umr.—अडचाळ ..	.. ..	896·99; 830; 168; 451	Local; ..	Bhiwapur; 4·0	Bhiwapur; 4·0 Fri.	Bhiwapur; 4·0	W.;w.	2Sl (pr; m); 2tl; Ch.
Aḍyāḷī—Ngp.—अडचाळी ..	SE; 8·0	790·41; 181; 37; 96	Kalamna; 1·0	Nagpur; 10·0	Nagpur; 10·0 Sun. & Wed.	Nagpur; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Āgaragāṅv—Ngp.—आगरगांव ..	W; 21·0	1112·66; 319; 68; 181	Umari; 2·4	Nagpur; 24·0	Umari; 2·4 Sun.	Bajarganv; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Agaragāṅv—Umr.—अगरगांव ..	E; 20·0	893·45; 92; 17; 60	Rajola; 2·0	Kuhi; 2·4	Salwa; 4·0 Mon.	.. 10·0	rv.;w.	tl.
Āgrā—Ktl.—आग्रा ..	NE; 16·4	1977·94; 669; 168; 398	Sawargaon; 4·0	Narkhed; 13·0	Sawargaon; 4·0 Mon.	.. 7·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl. white-clay mine.
Ahamadanagar—Ktl.—अहमदनगर	Forest village	.. 170; 37; 164	Khursapar; 2·4	Katol; 8·0	Kondhali; 7·0 Wed.	Khursapar; 2·4	W.	tl.
Ambāḍī—Umr.—अंबाडी ..	NE; 16·0	971·89; 657; 132; 152	Bhugaon; 3·0	Kuhi; 4·0	Kuhi; 3·0 Wed.	Mauda; 6·0	w.	Cs; 2tl.
Ambada—Ktl.—अंबाडा ..	.. ..	.. 889; 116; 458	Local ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	w.	
Āṅjanagāṅv—Ktl.—आंजनगांव ..	E; 7·2	909·74; 522; 113; 257	Metpanjra; 4·4	Metpanjra; 2·0	Mendhe-pathar ; 2·0 Thu.	Stage; 0·2	W.;w.	Sl (pr), tl.
Ājanagāṅv—Ngp.—आजनगांव ..	NW; 28·0	1031·78; 290; 65; 174	Kanholibara; 3·0	Sindhi; 5·0	Kanholibara; 3·0 Sun.	Sawangi; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.; 2tl.
Ājaṇī—Ngp.—आजनी ..	NE; 12·0	972·41; 1256; 272; 522	Kamathi; 2·0	Kamathi; 2·0	Kamathi; 2·0 Fri.	Kamathi; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Anant Chaturdashi Fr. Bhd. Vad. 11; 3tl.; dh.; gym.
Ājanī—Snr.—आजनी ..	SE; 2·0	1112·09; 478; 132; 276	Saoner; 2·0	Saoner; 2·0	Saoner; 2·0 Fri.	Saoner; 2·0	W.;n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
*Ajanī Kh.—Ngp.—अजनी खर्द ..	.. ..	1992·54; 29	Local; ..	Ajani; 1·0	Sitabardi; 2·4 Mon.	.. ..	..	
Ākeväḍā—Ktl.—आकेवाडा ..	.. ..	1232·42; 3; 2; 2	Shiwa; 3·0	Katol; 19·0	Kondhali; 7·4 Wed.	.. ..	W.	
Ākolā—Rmt.—आकोला ..	NE; 12·0	420·28; 210; 34; 96	Hiwara; 2·0	Mansar; 21·0	Hiwara; 2·0 Mon.	Pauni; 8·0	W.;w.	tl.
Ākolā—Umr.—आकोला ..	.. ..	.. 148; 30; 79						
Ākolī—Umr.—आकोली ..	N; 15·0	979·74; 637; 127; 350	Udasa; 3·0	Umrer; 5·0	Umrer; 5·0 Mon.	.. ..	w.;t.	Sl (pr); Cs.; 4tl.
Ālāgondī—Ngp.—आलागोंदी ..	S; 23·0	1342·81; 245; 47; 149	Borkhedi; 2·0	Borkhedi; 2·0	Butibori; 6·0 Tue.	Brahmani; 1·4	W.	Cs; tl.
Ālāgondī—Ktl.—आलागोंदी ..	SE; 10·0	402·75; 46; 11; 24	Metpanjra; 6·0	Metpanjra; 8·0	Mendhe-pathar. 6·4 Thu.	Metpanjra; 6·0	W.;w.	tl.
Ālāgondī—Umr.—आलागोंदी ..	.. ..	.. 74; 17; ..						
Āmagāṅv—Ngp.—आमगांव ..	NW; 17·0	383·04; 667; 147; 296	Local; ..	Gumgaon; 7·0	Local; .. Thu.	Hingna; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl. ; dp.
Āmagāṅv—Rmt.—आमगांव ..	W; 11·0	592·84; 125; 35; 48	Ramtek; 1·0	Ramtek; 2·0	Ramtek; 1·0 Sun.	.. 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Āmagāṅv—Rmt.—आमगांव ..	E; 2·0	361·00; 251; 46; 131	Parshivni; 3·4	Khaperkheda; 11·0	Parshivni 3·4 Mon.	Naikund; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Āmagāṅv—Umr.—आमगांव ..	W; 12·0	116·71; 161; 31; 104	Makardhokda; 4·0	Umrer; 13·0	Makar-dhokda; 4·0 Fri.	Umrer; 12·0	W.	tl.

*Included in Urban Area.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pro.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Āmaghāṭ—Umr.—आमघाट फॉरेस्ट व्हिलेज. ..	E; 0·4	524·00; 177; 39; 106	Pipara; 4·0	Borkhedi; 14·0	Pipara; .. 4·0 Thu.	.. ..	W.	tl.
Āmaneragond—Ktl.—आमनेर गोंद	.. ..	1·04 4; 4; 3	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Āmaṭī—Umr.—आमटी ..	E; 20·0	.. 181; 39; 114	.. ..	.. 2·0	.. .. ..	.. 8	W.	tl.
Āmbāḍā—Ktl.—अंबाडा ..	W; 2·0	1144·39; 384; 94; 248	Local; ..	Kalambha; ..	Benur;	Katol; 2·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (cr).
Āmbaḍa—Ktl.—अंबाडा ..	N; 14·0	2096·69; 687; 173; 354	Local; ..	Narkhed; 7·0	Sawargaon; 5·0 Mon.	Yenikoni; 2·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (cr); 3tl; 2dg.
Āmbāḍā—Ktl.—अंबाडा ..	.. ..	2·4; 889; 176; 458	Local; ..	Titur; 5·0	Wadoda; 1·0 Tue.	Wadoda; 2·0	W.	2tl.
Āmbāḍī—Ngp.—आंबाडी ..	E; 17·0	543·08; 277; 58; 149	Wadoda; 1·0	..	..	..	..	tl.
Āmbāzarī—Ngp.—आंबाझरी ..	W; 19·0	.. 2 1 2	.. 2	Mansar; 15·0	Pauni; 4·0 Wed.	Pauni; 4·0	W.	Cs; 2tl.
Āmbāzarī—Rmt.—अंबाझरी ..	SW; 19·0	806·04; 364; 79; 230	Pauni; 4·0	Khapa; .. 10·0	Navegaon-khairi; 10·0 Fri.	.. ..	W.	tl.
Āmbāzarī—Rmt.—अंबाझरी ..	W; 25·0	669·20; 251; 55; 140	Navegaon; Khairi; 10·0	Kuhi; 1·0	Ambhora; 1·0 Tue.	Bhandara; 10·0	rv.	Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 6tl; 2m; Historically important temples: Hariharswami; Ram, Chaitanyeshvar.
Āmbhorākalā—Umr.—आंभोराकला	NE; 26·0	86·00; 264; 53; 95	Ambhora; 1·0	Narkhed; 6·0	Narkhed; 6·0 Sun.	.. 1·4	W.	Sl (pr); 4tl.
Āmbolā—Ktl.—आंबोला ..	N; 12·0	1441·04; 309; 64; 154	Yeni; 2·0			Brahmani; 22·0	W.	2 Sl (2 Pr); Cs (c); tl.
Āmbolī—Umr.—आंबोली ..	.. ..	.. 397; 84; 185		Mansar; 2·0	Mansar; 2·0 Thu.	Mansar; 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl; gym.
Āmborā Kh.—Umr.—आंबोरा खुर्द	NW; 22·0	.. 826; 150; 438		Malegaon; 2·0	Saoner; 2·0 Fri.	Saoner; 2·0	rv.; W.;w.	Cs (cr); tl.
Āmaḍi—Rmt.—आमडी ..	W; 6·0	1874·92; 847; 194; 366	Mansar; 2·0	Rewarala; .. 4·0	Mauda; 4·0 Fri.	Mauda; 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl.
Āṅgevāḍā—Snr.—आंगेवाडा ..	NE; 2·0	587·12; 281; 60; 102	Malegaon; 2·0	Dumari; 6·0	Ramtek; 6·0 Sun.	Dumari; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; 2gym.
Āñjanagāṅv—Rmt.—आंजनगांव ..	S; 17·0	2394·28; 621; 151; 334	Dhanala; 2·0	Kuhi; 2·0	Kuhi; 3·0 Wed.	.. ..	w.	tl; gym.
Ājanī—Rmt.—आजनी ..	S; 7·0	1815·47; 768; 162; 405	Nagardhan; 2·0	..		Kuhi; 2·0	W.;n.	
Ajanī—Umr.—अजनी ..	N; 10·0	1097·90; 214; 44; 119	Isapur; 1·0	..		6·0	W.;w.	Sl (Pr); Cs (Cr); 4tl; M.
Ājanī—Umr.—आजनी ..	N; 12·0	.. 134; 22; 75	..	..				
Āpatūr—Umr.—आपतूर ..	N; 8·0	.. 873; 171; 498	..	Katol; .. 20·0	Sawanga Lohari; 4·0 Sat.	Sawanga Lohari; 5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (c); tl.
Ārambhī—Ktl.—आरंभी ..	W; 20·0	2700·22; 580; 123; 340	Ramathi; 1·0	..	..	Ramtek; 11·0	rv.	Sl (pr). (m); Cs; Shri Datta Jayanti Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 3tl; M; 2gym; lib; dp.
Āroli—Rmt.—अरोली ..	SE; 11·0	.. 2,224; 494; 790	..	Titur; 5·0	Wadoda; 2·0 Tue.	Wadoda; 2·0	w.	Mahashivratra Fr. Mgh. Sud. 11; 2tl.
Āsalavāḍā—Ngp.—आसलवाडा ..	E; 18·0	1057·91, 216; 46; 103	Bhugaon; 2·0	Dighori; .. 2·4	Nagpur; 7·0 All days.	.. 1·0	w.	tl.
Āsolī—Ngp.—आसोली ..	E; 9·0	817·37; 301; 61; 167	Dighori; 2·4	Sindhi; 3·0	Sindhi; 3·0 Thu.	.. 1·0	W.;w.	Cs; 2tl.
Āsola—Ngp.—आसोल ..	NW; 24·0	1681·29; 338; 75; 199	Sindhi; 3·0	Ḍharasa; .. 9·0	Kodamendhi; 3·0 Thu.	Ramtek; 11·0	w.	tl; gym.
Āsolī—Rmt.—आसोली ..	E; 11·0	1546·64; 323; 71; 167	Kodamendhi; 3·0	Borkhedi; 6·0	Bela; 4·0 Sat.	.. ..	w.;rv.	2 Sl (Pr. o. m.); Cs; Sakhubai Fr. Kt. Vad. 11; 4tl.; dp.
Āṣṭā—Ngp.—आष्टा ..	S; 29·0	1283·79; 944; 195; 453	Local; ..					

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres); Pro.; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office; Distance (4)		Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)			Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Āṣṭī—Rmt.—आष्टी ..	S;	10·0	1117·33;	233;	50;	113	Dhanala;	3·0	Rewarala;	3·0	Khat;	4·0	Wed.	Kanhan;	10·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Āṣṭī—Rmt. आष्टी ..	SE;	20·0	1568·28;	454;	82;	251	Cacher;	2·0	Cacher;	2·0	Nimkheda;	3·0	Sun.	..	5·0	w.	tl.
Āṣṭī Bk.—Snr.—आष्टी बु. ..	N;	5·6	..	186;	39;	96	Kelwad;	1·4	Kelwad;	1·0	Kelwad;	1·4	Thu.	Kelwad;	1·0	W.;w.	t.
Āṣṭī Kh.—Snr. आष्टी खुर्द ..	..	..	600·76;	17;	4;	10	Kelwad;	1·4	Kelwad;	1·4	Kelwad;	1·4	Thu	Kelwad	1·4	..	Deserted.
Āṣṭī Kh.—Ngp. आष्टी खुर्द ..	NW;	10·0	470·00;	264;	56;	125	Walani;	2·0	Bharatwada;	3·0	Kalameshwar;	3·0	Sun.	Walani;	2·0	w.	tl.
Āṣṭīkalā—Snr.—आष्टीकला ..	S;	18·0	1113·18;	378;	91;	232	Dhamna;	3·0	Kalameshwar;	5·0	Kalameshwar;	5·0	Sun.	Peth;	3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Āvarmārā—Umr.—आवरमारा ..	NW;	20·0	1210·01;	510;	86;	259	Rajola;	1·0	Kuhi;	18·0	Chichghat;	4·0	..	..	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Āvaṇḍhī—Ngp.—आवंढी ..	E;	13·0	1741·40;	641;	130;	345	Gumthala;	3·0	Kamathi;	6·0	Gumthala;	3·0	Thu.	Kadholi;	2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Āvaḷeghāt—Rmt.—आवळेघाट ..	W;	16·4	889·45;	300;	75;	179	Navegaon Khairi;	5·0	Khapa;	10·0	Nawegaon Khairi;	5·0	Fri.	Navegaon Khairi;	5·0	W.	2tl.
Bābadev—Rmt.—बाबदेव ..	S;	13·0	1446·02;	296;	56;	164	Tharasa;	2·0	..	..	Mauda;	4·0	Fri.	Mauda;	4·0	w.	tl.
*Bābulakheḍā—Ngp.—बाबुलखेडा	..	..	1162·83	..	..	13	Local;		Chacher;	3·0	Neri;	2·0	..	Patansawangi;	3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); gym; Ch.
Bābhulakheḍā—Ngp.—बाभुलखेडा	NW;	12·0	1162·83;	355;	80;	218			Ajani;	1·0	..	..	..	Nagpur;	12·0	W.	2tl.
Bābulavāḍā—Rmt.—बाबुलवाडा ..	W;	11·4	716·24;	270;	59;	161	Parshivni;	3·0	..	..	Parshivni;	3·0	Mon.	..	7·4	w.	2tl.
Bācherā—Rmt.—बाचेरा ..	W;	11·0	1126·57;	127;	22;	66	Navegaon Khairi;	1·0	Mansar;	10·0	Navegaon Khairi;	1·0	Fri.	..	..	w.	tl.
Baḍegāṅv—Snr.—बडेगांव ..	..	12·0	2205·83;	1,541;	390;	794	Local;	..	Mansar;	8·0	Khapa;	5·0	Sun. & Wed.	Khapa;	5·0	W.; w.	2Sl (pr, m); 4tl; M; gym. lib.; dip.
Bāgabodī—Rmt.—बागबोडी ..	E;	15·0	671·41;	185;	39;	101	Kodamendhi;	3·0	Rewarala;	8·0	Kodamendhi;	3·0	Thu.	Ramtek;	15·0	W.	tl.
Bāhadurā—Ngp.—बहादुरा ..	..	..	..	425;	96;	242											
Bāilavāḍā—Ngp.—बाईलवाडा ..	N;	8·0	1442·54;	530;	150;	264	Mahadula;	3·0	Bharatwada;	3·0	Nagpur;	8·0	Tue.	Mahadula;	3·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); 2tl; gym.
Bājāragāṅv—Ngp.—बाजारगांव ..	W;	22·0	1484·75;	462;	120;	180	Local;	..	Nagpur;	21·0	Local;	..	Mon.	Local;	..	W.; w.	Sl (pr); 52 tl; mq; dg; dh; Jain temples.
Bajarkuṇḍ—Rmt.—बजरकुंड ..	SW;	12·0	1961·05;	252;	54;	139	Navegaon Khairi;	6·0	Mansar;	10·0	Navegaon Khairi;	6·0	Fri.	..	7·0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bakhārī—Rmt.—बखारी ..	NW;	12·0	1309·90;	466;	95;	283	Khandala;	2·0	Dumari;	3·0	Mansar;	7·0	Thu.	..	4·4	rv.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Dhulivandan Fr. Phg.Vad. 1; 2tl.
Bālāpūr—Umr.—बाळापूर ..	NW;	24·0	535·17;	8;	1;	4	Jiwanapur;	6·0									tl.
Bāmhaṇī—Umr.—बाम्हणी ..	N;	7·0	417·89;	166;	28;	97	Fegar;	2·0	Brahmani;	22·0	Adyal;	4·0	Sun.	..	6·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Sankrant Fr. Jan. 14; 3tl; dh.
Bāmhaṇī—Ktl.—बाम्हणी ..	..	..	3;	3;	3	..	..	..	Bhiwapur;	13·0	Gothangaon;	2·0	Wed.	Umrer;	7·0	W.	
Bāmhaṇī—Umr.—बाम्हणी ..	NE;	11·0	1267·56;	1137;	272;	188	Local;	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	
Bāmhaṇī—Umr.—बाम्हणी ..	E;	20·0	798·13;	164;	35;	103	Mandhal;	2·0	Local;	..	Local;	..	Thu.	Local;	..	W.	tl.
Banapurī—Rmt.—बनपुरी ..	S;	6·0	1714·24;	766;	144;	301	Nagardhan;	2·0	Kuhi;	7·0	Mandhal;	2·0	Tue.	Umrer;	20·0	w.	tl.
Banaśiṅgī—Rmt.—बनशिंगी ..		1·5	7;	2;	2;	..		..	Dumari;	4·0	Ramtek;	6·0	Sun.	Dumari;	3·0	w.	Sl (pr); 3tl; gym.
Banavāḍī—Ngp.—बनवाडी ..	S;	11·0	1325·16;	296;	60;	200	Khapri;	4·0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Bāndar Cuvā—Umr.—बांदर बुवा	NE;	26·0	1096·00;	8;	1;	3	Ambhora;	4·0	Khapri;	4·0	Nagpur;	6·0	Mon.	Nagpur;	11·0	w.	2tl.
Bandhārā—Ngp.—बंधारा ..	SE;	24·0	1296·12;	7;	3;	6	Bajargaon;	3·0	Kuhi;	16·0	Talegaon;	2·0	Mon.	Shahapur;	8·0	W.;w.	tl.
Bāndrā—Rmt.—बांद्रा ..	N;	24·0	669·06	269;	41;	111	Deolapar;	4·0	Nagpur;	22·0	Bajargaon;	3·0	Mon.	Satanvari;	4·0	W.;w.	tl.
Banerā—Rmt.—बनेरा ..	..	2·4	117·06;	21;	58;	..	..	..	Deolapar;	4·0	Deolapar;	4·0;	Tue.	Deolapar;	4·0	w.	tl.
Bānor—Ktl.—बानोर ..	W;	22·0	1322·92;	195;	47;	120	Mendhala;	3·0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	
Banor—Ktl.—बानोर ..	NW;	15·0	1356·41;	349;	79;	183	Yenikoni;	1·0	Katol;	18·0	Medhala;	3·0	Tue.	Jalalkheda;	10·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2tl; dg.
									Narkhed;	4·0	Narkhed;	4·0	..	Yeni Koni;	1·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pro.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Bānor—Rmt.—बानोर ..	S; 12·0	631·32; 434; 91, 131	Nimkheda; 1·0	Tharsa; 1·0	Tharsa; 1·0; Sun.	Tharsa; 1·0	W.	Sl; 2tl.
Bānor—Umr.—बानोर ..	NE; 9·0	1051·45; 264; 51; 168	Musalgaon; 6·0	Brahmani; 3·0	Umrer; 7·0; Mon.	Umrer; 9·0	w.; n.	3tl.
Baraḍapāṇī—Ktl. बरडपाणी ..	W; 24.0	1693·14; 278; 74; 165	Thadipauni 1·0	Narkhed; 20·0	Thadipauni; 1·0; Sun.	.. ..	W.;w.	Cs (gr); 2tl.
Boraḍoha—Ktl.—बोरडोह ..	E; 3·0	831·00; 105; 27; 68	Dhawlapur; 2·0	Katol; 5·0	Dhawlapur; 2·0; Sat.	Dhawlapur; 2·0	W.;w.	tl.
Boragāṅv—Ngp.—बोरगांव ..	E; 21·0	1336·60; 126; 27; 71	Amgaon; 3·0	Gumgaon; 10·0	Amgaon; 10·0; Thu.	4·0	w.	tl.
Borakhedī—Ngp.—बोरखेडी ..	S; 22·0	518·39; 728; 171; 275	Local; ..	Local; ..	Buti Bori; 5·0; Tue.	1·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs.; 3tl.; dh.; lib.
Bārśi—Rmt.—बार्शी ..	S; 9·0	.. 327; 73; 167	.. ..	..	.. ..	Ramtek; 9·0	W.;w.	Cs; 2tl.
Bārhavā—Umr.—बाव्हवा ..	N; 8·0	1196·04; 166; 39; 110	Borgaon; 4·0	Brahmani; 4·0	Brahmani; 4·0; Thu.	.. 5·0	W.;w.	tl.
Bāvanagāṅv—Snr.—बावनगांव ..	NE; 7·0	1603·44; 204; 39; 132	Khuwala; 3·0	Khapa; 1·4	Khapa; 1·4; Sun. & Wed.	Khapa; 1·0	rv; w.	tl.
Belā—Ngp.—बेला ..	SE; 7·0	.. 395; 76; 221	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Beladā—Rmt.—बेलदा ..	N; 25·0	807·92; 404; 86; 148	Deolapar; 6·0	Ramtek; 25·0	Hiwara; 7·0; Mon.	Deolapar; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Beladoṅgarī—Rmt.—बेलडोंगरी ..	NW; 5·0	635·43; 191; 42; 25	Nagardhan; 1·0	Ramtek; 4·0	Nagardhan; 1·0; ..	Ramtek; 5·0	W.	2tl.
Beḷagāṅv—Umr.—बेळगांव ..	W; 1·0	1223·34; 22; 7; 9	Umrer; 2·0	Umrer; 2·0	Umrer; 0·2; Mon. & Tue.	Umrer; 1·0	W.	tl.
Belā Khās—Umr.—बेला खास ..	NW; 23·0	3830·61; 5387; 1214; 1588	Local; ..	Borkhedi; 7·0	Local; .. Sat.	Soneganv; 5·0	w.	4Sl (2pr; m; h); Cs; 12tl; 4 M; 2mq; 5 gym; 3 lib; 3dp.
Belapeṭh—Umr.—बेलपेठ ..	N; 16·0	753·40; 130; 26; 73	Pipara; 2·0	Borkhedi; 13·0	Pipara; 2·0; Thu.	Soneganv; 8·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Belarpār—Umr.—बेलरपार ..	S; 20·0	1029·77; 84; 18; 50	Umrer; 24·0	Umrer; 24·0	Shirshi; 8·0; Wed.	Shirshi 8·0	w.	tl.
Belataroḍī—Ngp.—बेलतरोडी ..	S; 5·0	.. 300; 61; 143	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;	Sl (pr).
Belonā—Ktl.—बेलोना ..	NW; 18·0	1942·62; 3662; 858; 1637	Local; ..	Narkhed; 3·0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 0·1	W.;w.	3Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (cr); Parshwanath Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 9tl; dh; gym; 2dp.
Belorī (Jamādār).—Snr.—बेलोरी जमादार	E; 10·0	1583·95; 170; 41; 99	Brahmapuri; 1·0	Kalameshwar; 4·0	Kalameshwar; 4·0; Sun.	Patansawangi; 6·0	W.;w.	Cs (cr); 2tl.
Belorī Kh.—Snr.—बेलोरी खुर्द ..	.. ..	603·11; 116; 27; 52	Patansawangi; 2·0	Patansawangi; 3·0	Patansawangi; 1·0; Tue.	Patansawangi; 2·0	W.;w.	tl.
Bendolī—Umr.—बेंदोली ..	W; 23·0	351·68; 56; 11; 34	Thana; 1·0	Bori; 9·0	Thana; 1·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	w.	tl.
Besā—Ngp.—बेसा ..	S; 5·0	.. 288; 65; 148	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Besūr—Umr.—बेसूर ..	S; 12·0	2507·38; 1501; 294; 666	Local; ..	Umrer; 12·0	Local; .. Sun.	.. ..	w.; n.	3Sl (Pr; m; h); 2tl; lib; 2dp.
Bhaḍāṅgī—Snr.—भडांगी ..	S; 7·0	831·84; 409; 94; 191	Dhapewada; 2·0	Saoner; 6·0	Dhapewada; 2·0; Tue.	.. ..	rv.; W;. w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bhagavānapūr—Umr—भगवानपूर	S; 16·0	1354·13; 910; 178; 499	Nand; 3·0	Umrer; 14·0	Nand; 3·0; Sun.	Nand; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bhāgī—Rmt.—भागी ..	.. ..	.. 0·8; 9; 2	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Bhāgeborī—Umr.—भागेबोरी ..	NW; 12·0	1030·50 463; 107; 274	Nakshi; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 4·0	Bhiwapur; 4·0; Fri.	Nakshi; 3·0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Bhāgīmahārī—Rmt.—भागीमहारी	E; 12·0	3317·60; 641; 149; 334	Parshivani; 2·0	Khaparkheda 10·0	Parshivani; 2·0; Fri.	Mansar; 8·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Bhājīpānī—Ktl.—भाजीपानी ..	E; 3·0	418·00; 107; 23; 74	Dhawlapur; 3·0	Katol; 6·0	Dhawlapur; 2·0; Sat.	Dhawlapur; 2·0	W; w.	tl.
*Bhāmaṭī—Ngp.—भामटी	W; 4·0	.. ..	Borkhedi; 2·0	Borkhedi; 2·0	Sindi; 4·0; Thu.	Khamla; 1·0	W.	tl.
Bhāmevāḍā—Ngp.—भामेवाडा ..	E; 22·0	1270·37; 420; 81; 235	Mauda; 2·0	Titur; 6·0	Bhugaon; 4·0; Sun.	Mauda; 3·0	w.	tl.
Bhāmevādā;—Rmt.—भामेवाडा ..	.. ..	0·6; 5; 1; 2	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres) ; Pro. ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office ; Distance (4)		Railway Station ; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Bhānasulī– Ngp.– भानसुली ..	W;	16·0	1029·13;	98;	24;	67	Sindhi;	3·0	Sindhi;	3·0	Sindhi;	3·0; Thu.	Bori;	7·0	W.	tl. ..
Bhānasulī– Ngp.– भानसुली ..	NW;	26·0	891·10;	193;	43;	107	Takalghat;	3·0	Bori;	6·0	Takalghat;	3·0; Sat.	..	1·0	w.	Cs; Ramnavmi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 3 tl.
Bhaṇḍārabeḍī– Rmt.– भंडारबेडी	..	..	2656·27;	770;	177;	457	Mahadula;	2·0	Ramtek;	12·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Mahadula;	2·0	W; w.	2Sl (2 pr); tl; Ch.
*Bhāṇḍevāḍī– Ngp.– भांडेवाडी ..	..	..	832·14;	..	..	..	Local;	..	Local;	..	Local	.. Sun.	..	..	..	
Bhāṇḍevāḍī– Rmt.– भांडेवाडी ..	SE;	12·0	693·37;	175;	38;	94	Aroli;	1·0	Tharsa;	7·0	Aroli;	1·0; Tue.	Ramtek;	12·0	w.	2 tl; gym.
Bhānegāṅv– Snr.– भानेगांव ..	SE;	19·0	1997·43;	1428;	279;	371	Khaparkheda;	2·0	Khaparkheda;	2·0	Kamathi;	8·0; Fri.	Khaparkheda;	2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); 3 Cs (c; 2 mis); tl; lib.
Bhāmevāḍā– Umr.– भामेवाडा ..	N;	17·0	1234·05;	439;	90;	237	Malani;	2·0	Titur;	2·0	Kuhi;	.. Wed. & Sat.	Malani;	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Bhāpasī– Umr.– भापसी ..	E;	2·0	203·44;	9;	3;	6	Umrer;	2·0	Umrer;	2·0	Umrer;	2·0; ..	Umrer;	2·0	w.	tl.
Bhārāśiṅgī– Ktl.– भाराशिंगी ..	W;	11·0	309·55;	530;	122;	249	Local;	..	Jalalkheda;	..	Jalalkheda;	3·0; Fri.	Local;	..	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mis); tl.
*Bharatavāḍā– Ngp.– भरतवाडा	W;	10·0	1174·95;	356;	82;	151	Mahurzari;	1·0	Local;	..	Nagpur;	8·0; Tue.	Local;	..	w.	Cs; 3 tl.
Bharatavāḍā– Ngp.– भरतवाडा ..	E;	6·0	900·64;	..	..	79	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	Bagadganj;	2·4	w.	2 tl.
Bhaṭarā– Umr.– भटरा ..	NW;	17·0	1189·03;	326;	77;	168	Kuhi;	3·0	Kuhi;	4·0	Kuhi;	3·0; Wed.	Kuhi;	3·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bhavarī– Rmt.– भवरी ..	..	..	1·4;	95;	20;	55	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	w.	
Bhavarī– Ngp.– भवरी ..	E;	14·0	1463·06;	489;	99;	275	Gumthala;	1·0	Kamathi;	6·0	Gumthala;	1·0; Thu.	Gumathala;	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bhāyavāḍī– Ktl.– भायवाडी ..	N;	17·0	677·07;	94;	16;	49	Narkhed;	2·0	Narkhed;	2·0	Narkhed;	2·0; Sun.	Narkhed;	1·0	W; w.	tl.
Bheṇḍāḷā– Rmt.– भेंडाळा ..	S;	15·0	1063·18;	346;	74;	179	Nimkheda;	3·0	Tharsa;	3·0	Nimkheda;	3·0; Sun.	Mauda;	7·0	w.	Cs; 4 tl.
Bheṇḍāḷā– Snr.– भेंडाळा ..	E;	9·0	1800·00;	663;	139;	298	Waki;	1·4	Patansawangi;	2·0	Patansawangi;	2·0; Tue.	Waki;	1·4	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Bhilagāṅv– Ngp.– भिलगांव ..	N;	5·4	1289·30;	591;	123;	277	Kamathi;	5·0	Kamathi;	5·0	Kamathi;	5·0; Fri.	Nagpur;	5·4	w.	5 tl; M; 2 dg; Radio Transmitter.
Bhilevāḍā Sālebarḍī– Rmt.– भिलेवाडा सालेबर्डी.	NW;	2·0	795·53;	504;	114;	254	Ramtek;	2·4	Ramtek;	2·4	Ramtek;	2·4; Sun.	Ramtek;	2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Bhiṣṇūr– Ktl.– भिष्णूर ..	W;	9·0	2310·00;	2215;	458;	1103	Local;	..	Katol;	7·0	Local;	.. Sun.	..	0·2	rv; w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 Cs (mis); Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 6 tl; 2 dg; lib; dp.
Bhivagaḍ– Rmt.– भिवगड ..	..	..	1352·44;	76;	19;	46	Navegaon Khairi;	3·0	Mansar;	10·0	Navegaon Khairi;	3·0; Fri.	Navegaon Khairi;	..	w.	
Bhivagaḍ– Umr.– भिवगड ..	NW;	14·0	2204·20;	136;	29;	88	Makar Dhokda;	5·0	Umrer;	14·0	Makar Dhokda;	5·0; Fri.	..	9·0	w.	Maruti Fr. Ct Sud. 15; tl.
Bhivakuṇḍ– Umr.– भिवकुंड ..	NE;	21·0	510·11;	147;	27;	91	Salwa;	1·0	Kuhi;	11·0	Salwa;	1·0; Mon.	Mauda;	8·0	W; w; n;	tl.
Bhivāpūr– Umr.– भिवापूर ..	E;	14·0	1477·07;	249;	47;	150	Chanpa;	3·0	Umrer;	11·0	Chanpa;	3·0; Sat.	Local;	..	w.	4 Sl (pr; 2 m; h); 5 Cs; 32 tl; 3 M; mq; dg; dh; gym; dp.
Bhivāpūr– Umr.– भिवापूर ..	N;	11·0	4734·83;	6934;	1444;	1415	Local;	..	Local;	..	Local;	.. Fri.	Uti;	1·0	W; w.	3 Sl (pr; m; h); 3 tl; gym; Ch; lib; dp.
Bhivāpūr– Umr.– भिवापूर ..	NE;	20·0	1477·07;	198;	37;	117	Chanpa;	3·0	Umrer;	11·0	Chanpa;	3·0; Sat.	..	9·0	w.	tl.
Bhivī– Umr.– भिवी ..	S;	20·0	1,512·44	220;	50;	147	Umrer;	20·0	Umrer;	20·0	Shirshi;	4·0; Wed.	..	..	w.	tl.
Bhojāpūr;– Rmt.– भोजापूर ..	S;	1·0	896·02;	318;	67;	145	Ramtek;	0·4	Ramtek;	1·0	Ramtek;	0·4; Sun.	Ramtek;	1·0	w.	2 tl; dg.
Bhojāpūr– Umr.– भोजापूर ..	NE;	14·0	2274·53;	81;	20;	20	Kuhi;	1·0	Kuhi;	1·0	Kuhi;	1·0; Wed. & Sat.	..	..	w.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pro.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Bhokarā—Ngp.—भोकरा ..	N; 6·0	8·85; 358; 97; 193	Mahadula; 2·0	Bharatwada; ..	Nagpur; 4·0; Tue.	Nagpur; 6·0	w.	2tl.
Bhokārā—Rmt.—भोकारा ..	S.; 16·0	895·83; 231; 42; 146	Rewarala; 3·0	Rewarala; 3·0	Dhanala; 3·0; Sun.	Mauda; 6·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Bhoṇḍetāl—Snr.—भोंडेताळ ..	NW; 16·0	369·73; 50; 11; 5	Bichwa; 4·0	Khapa; 10·0	Nagalwadi; 1·0; Fri.	Khapa; 10·0	W.;w.	tl.
Bhoṇḍevāḍa—Rmt.—भोंडेवाडा ..	NE; 20·0	1,414·07; 419; 100; 170	Ramtek; 3·0	Ramtek; 3·0	Ramtek; 3·0; Sun.	Borgaon; 1·0	W.	tl.
Bhoragaḍ—Ktl.—भोरगड ..	W; 10·0	711·93; 342; 79; 173	Katol; 11·0	Katol; 11·0	Katol; 10·0; Tue	Katol; 10·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cı); tl; dp.
Bhavaradev—Umr.—भवरदेव ..	NE; 17·0	728·95; 128; 33; 77	Bhugaon; 3·0	Kuhi; 5·0	Kuhi; 4·0; Wed.	Mauda; 6·0	w.;n.	tl.
Bhovarī—Rmt.—भोवरी ..	N; 22·0	864·48; 95; 20; 55	Dhanala; 3·4	Khat; 5·4	Dhanala; 3·4; Sun.	.. 5·0	w.	tl.
Bhovarī—Umr.—भोवरी ..	SE; 13·0	918·66; 24; 5; 13	Adyal; 4·0	Bhiwapur; 5·0	Bhiwapur; 5·0; Fri.	Kargaon; 8·0	w.	tl.
Bhugāṅv—Ngp.—भुगांव ..	SE; 19·0	2,031·70; 1,926; 373; 865	Local; ..	Titur; 3·0	Local; .. Sun.	.. 5·0	w.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; Shivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 7tl; 2dg; 3gym.
Bhulevaḍī—Rmt.—भुलेवाडी ..	W; 11·0	513·78; 139; 24; 78	Navegaon Khairi; 2·0	Khapa; 8·0	Navegaon Khairi; 2·0; Fri.	.. 7·0	w.	2tl.
Bhuyārī—Ngp.—भुयारी ..	SE; 19·0	1,383·09; 78; 23; 50	Dhamana; 2·0	Nagpur; 17·0	Peth Kal Dongri; 3·0; Tue.	Peth; 4·0	w.	tl.
Bibī—Ngp.—बिबी ..	NW; 31·0	1,060·89; 189; 48; 122	Kanholiwara; 2·0	Kanholiwara; 12·0	Kanholiwara; 2·0; Sun.	.. 6·0	W.;w.	tl.
Bicavā—Snr.—बिचवा ..	N; 15·2	1,415·91; 770; 182; 375	Local; ..	Kelwad; 10·0	Nagalwadi; 13·0; Fri.	Kelwad; 10·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); dp.
Biḍabinā—Ngp.—बिडबिना ..	N; 11·0	316·65; 491; 154; 17	Kamathi; 4·0	Kamathi; 4·0	Kamathi; 4·0; Fri.	.. ..	rv.	tl.
Bidagāṅv—Ngp.—बिडगांव ..	.. ..	0·9; 324; 67; 137	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.; o.	
Biḍakavaḍas—Snr.—बिडकवडस ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	
*Biḍa Peṭh—Ngp.—बिडपेठ ..	E; 4·0	520·31; 17	Sakardara Raghoji Nagpr. 1·0	Itwari; 3·0	Nagpur; 1·0; Wed.	.. 1·0	W.	Sl (Pr); 4tl; mg; 7dg; dh.
Boragāṅv—Ngp.—बोरगांव ..	NW; 17·0	698·86; 13; 4; 8	Takalghat; 3·0	Takalghat; 8·0	Takalghat; 3·0; Sat.	Hingana; 8·0	w.	2tl.
Biḍ Bothalī—Umr.—बिडबोथली ..	N; 17·0	370·41; 35; 7; 26	Kuhi; 3·0	Kuhi; 4·0	Kuhi; 3·0; Wed.	Mauda; 10·0	w.	tl.
Biḍ Gaṇeśapūr—Ngp.—बिड गणेशपूर ..	.. ..	0·6; 155; 30; 82	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	
Bijevāḍā—Rmt.—बिजेवाडा ..	W; 2·0	.. 99; 22; 37	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Ramtek; 2·0	w.	tl.
Belāvaragondī—Ktl.—बेलावरगोंदी ..	S; 6·0	552·24; 36; 10; 23	Khursapar; 3·4	Katol; 6·0	Katol; 6·0; Tue.	Katol; 6·0	W.;w.	tl.
Binā—Snr.—बिना ..	SE; 21·0	1,485·83; 3,298; 880; 424	Local; ..	Khaparkheda; 4·0	Kamathi; 4·0; Fri.	Chincholi Khaparkheda; 5·0	rv.; w.	2Sl (pr, m); 5tl; mq; 2gym; lib; dp; Confluence of Kahnan & Pench rivers.
Biṭolī—Rmt.—बिटोली ..	W; 11·0	544·32; 306; 58; 159	Navegaon Khairi; 2·0	Mansar; 10·0	Navegaon; 2·0; Fri.	.. 7·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Boḍakhipeṭh—Umr.—बोडखीपेठ ..	N; 16·0	1,068·88; 187; 41; 99	Kuhi; 3·0	Kuhi; 4·0	Kuhi; 3·0; Wed.	Mauda; 8·0	w.	tl.
Bodal Zirā—Rmt.—बोदलझिरा ..	.. ..	.. 35; 9; 6	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	
Bodhalā—Ngp.—बोधला ..	.. ..	0·9; 52; 12; 39	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	
Bondrī—Rmt.—बोंद्री ..	W; 5·0	1,141·36 444; 98; 214	Salwa; 2·0	Salwa; 2·0	Kamathi; 7·0; Fri.	Salwa; 2·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr)., 2tl.
Bopāpūr—Ktl.—बोपापूर ..	S; 15·0	637·35; 20; 5; 9	Masod; 2·0	Katol; 17·0	Kondhali; 6-0; Wed.	Kondhali; 5	W.; w.	tl.
Bopāpūr—Ktl.—बोपापूर ..	..	694·08; 67; 14; 42	Thugaondev; 1·0	Narkhed; 6·0	Jalalkheda; 6·0; Fri.	.. ..	..	
Borḍoh—Snr.—बोरडोह ..	..	0·7; 13; 4; 9	..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	w.	
Boraban—Rmt.—बोरबन ..	W; 26·0	200·00; 111; 21; 42	Navegaon Khairi; 4·0	Mansar; 9·0	Navegaon Khairi; 4·0; Fri.	Chorbaoli; 9·0	W.; w.	
Boraḍā—Rmt.—बोर्डा ..	NW; 10·0	2,227·67; 881; 225; 375	Local; ..	Ramtek; 5·0	Mansar; 4·0; Thu.	Mansar; 4·0	w.	2tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Borḍā—Rmt.—बोर्डा ..	W; 4·4	1,542·44; 516; 100; 224	Kanhan; 4·0	Kanhan; 4·0	Kamathi; 6·0; Fri.	Kandri; 2·0	w.	Cs.; tl.
Beraḍepār—Rmt. बेडेपार ..	SE; 10·0	1,144·49; 236; 47; 132;	Aroli; 2·0	Tharsa; 1·0	Aroli; 2·0; Tue.	Ramtek; 10·0	w.	.l.; dg.; gym.
Boragāṅv—Ktl.—बोरगांव ..	..	1,341·02; 155; 40; 92	Kondhali; 1·4	Katol; 13·0	Kondhali; 1·4; Wed.	.. ..		..
Boragāṅv—Ngp.—बोरगांव ..	NW; 4·0	1,145·63; 485; 101; 261	Phatri; 1·0	Bharatwada; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 5·0; Sun.	Bharatwada; 3·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); 1ltl; M.; dh.; gym.; 2dp.
*Borgāṅv—Ngp.—बोरगांव ..	..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..		
Borgāṅv—Ngp.—बोरगांव ..	S; 22·5	1,014·45; 126; 27; 71	Mouda; 2·0	Kutti; 8·0	Mouda; 4·0; ..	.. .. ..		tl.
Borgāṅv—Ngp.—बोरगांव ..	..	.. 13; 4; 8	..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..		
Boragāṅv Kh—Ngp.—बोरगांव खुर्द.	NW; 9·0	1,014·45; 131; 27; 76	Bhugaon; 3·0	Titur; 4·0	Bhugaon; 3·0; Sun.	Titur; 4·0	w.	Sl (pr.).; 2tl.
Boragāṅv—Rmt.—बोरगांव ..	S; 22·0	506·00; 169; 32; 146	Dhanala; 3·0	Rewarala; 8·0	Dhanala; 3·0; Sun.	Dhanala; 5·0	w.	
Boragāṅv—Snr.—बोरगांव ..	W; 8·0	1,496·00; 79; 18; 45	Umari; 2·0	Saoner; 9·0	Nanda Gomukh; 4·0; Sun.	Umari; 2·0	W.; w.	tl.
Boragāṅv Bk.—Snr.—बोरगांव बु. ..	S; 2·4	1,544·79; 606; 133; 319	Adasa; 2·0	Saoner; 3·0	Saoner; 3·0; Fri.	Saoner; 2·4	n.;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (cr); Shankar Fr. Mg. Vad. 5; 3 tl; dg; 2 gym.
Boragāṅv Kh.—Snr.—बोरगांव खुर्द ..	S; 6·0	871·79; 832; 178; 468	Local; ..	Patansawangi; 5·0	Dhapewada Bk.; 4·0; ..	Saoner; 6·0	W.;w.	3 Sl (pr; 2m); Cs (cr); tl.
Boragāṅv—Umr.—बोरगांव ..	SE; 16·0	1,865·89; 257; 90; 148	Bela; 3·0	Borkhedi; 10·0	Bela; 3·0; Sat.	.. 6·0	w.	tl.
Boragāṅv—Umr.—बोरगांव ..	NW; 2·0	467·10; 174; 33; 141	Medha; 0·4	Bhiwapur; 6·0	Bhiwapur; 6·0; Fri.	Umrer; 2·0	w.	Deserted.
Boragāṅv—Umr.—बोरगांव ..	SE; 18·0	556·62; 72; 15; 41	Medha; 0·4	Bhiwapur; 6·0	Bhiwapur; 6·0; Fri.	Soneganv; 8·0	rv.	tl.
Boragāṅv (Kaji)—Umr.—बोरगांव ..	N; 10·0	866·96; 296; 66; 186	Local; ..	Brahmani; 5·0	Brahmani; 5·0; Thu.	Buti Bori; 7·0	w.; n.	2 tl.
Boragāṅv (Mokāsā)—Umr.—बोरगांव मोकासा. ..	SW; 13·0	556·62; 126; 31; 67	Medha; 1·0	Bhiwapur; 6·0	Bhiwapur; 6·0 Fri.	.. 6·0	W.	
Boragondī—Ktl.—बोरगोंदी ..	W; 4·0	1,013·94; 36; 11; 25	Katol; 3·0	Katol; 3·0	Katol; 3·0; Tue.	Katol; 4·0	W.; w.	tl.
Borakhedī—Ngp.—बोरखेडी ..	S; 14·6	1,466·39; 198; 47; 80	Bori; 3·0	Bori; 3·0	Bori; 3·0; Tue.	Mohgaon; 0·6	w.	tl.
Borakhedi—Ngp.—बोरखेडी ..	..	.. 728; 171; 235	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..	
Borakhedī (Thekedārī)—Ktl.—बोरखेडी ठेकेदारी.	NE; 13·0	.. 23; 2; 11	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..	
Bōrḍkalā—Umr.—बोर्डकला ..	SE; 14·0	714·68; 203; 53; 146	Medha; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 7·0	Bhiwapur; 7·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 7·0	..	
Borī—Ktl.—बोरी ..	NE; 8·1	2,691·48; 394; 86; 240	Zilya; 1·0	Katol; 8·0	Zilya; 1·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Borī—Ngp.—बोरी ..	S; 18·0	2,076·85; 3,696; 793; 1,157	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Tue.	.. ..	rv.; w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; 2 M; mq; 2 dh; 2 gym.; 2 Ch; 2 lib.
Borī—Rmt.—बोरी ..	S; 14·0	1,613·60; 474; 99; 252	Kodamendhi; ..	Rewarala; ..	Kadamendhi; .. Thu.	Kanhan; 5·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl; dg.
Borī—Rmt.—बोरी ..	E; 6·0	1,163·95; 478; 111; 293	Kachurwahi; 2·0	Ramtek; 8·0	Panchala; 2·0; Wed.	Ramtek; 6·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); 5 tl; 2 mq; Ch.
Borī—Umr.—बोरी ..	S; 24·0	625·29; 476; 97; 337	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Umrer; 24·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Borī Baḍhārī—Umr.—बोरी बढारी ..	.. ..	.. 9; 2; 6	.. ..	.. ..	..	.. ..	..	
Borī Ghivārī—Rmt.—बोरी घिवारी ..	E; 15·0	1,613·60; 219; 47; 119	Kodamendhi; 2·0	Rewarala; 6·0	Kodamendhi; 2·0; Thu.	Ramtek; 15·0	w.	tl.
Borī Mājarā—Umr.—बोरी माजरा ..	SE; 20·0	1,038·30; 105; 25; 68	Pipara; 4·0	Borkhedi; 15·0	Pipra; .. 4·0; Thu.	Sonegaon 10·0	rv;	tl.
Borī Mājarā—Umr.—बोरी माजरा ..	NE; 15·0	.. 352; 66; 208	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Umrer; 15·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Borī Rāṇī—Rmt.—बोरी राणी ..	S; 9·0	1141·36; 308; 50; 167	Kanhan; 4·0	Kanhan; 4·0	Kamathi; 6·0; Fri.	Kanhan; 6,0	n.	2tl.
Borī Saḍā—Umr.—बोरी सडा ..	NE; 13·0	864·65; 352; 91; 307	Dongar Mauda; 1·0	Brahmni; 10·0	Panchkhedi; 0·2; Mon.	Dongar Maunda; 1·0	W.;w.	Cs; 2tl.
Borujavāḍā—Snr.—बोरूजवाडा ..	NE; 2·0	882·63; 483; 102; 228	Maiegaon; 1·4	Malegaon; 1·4	Saoner; 2·4; Fri.	Saoner; 2·0	rv.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Boṭezarī—Umr.—बोटेझरी ..	S; 10·0	780·00; 329; 77; 60	Khuntala; 2·0	Umrer; 10·0	Umrer; 10·0; Mon.	.. ..	t.;W.	Sl(Pr) 2 tl.
Bothalī—Ngp.—बोथली ..	S; 13·2	1162·50; 173; 40; 91	Gumgaon; 2·0	Gumgaon; 2·0	Gumgaon; 2·0; Sun.	Mohaganv; 0·6	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Bothalī—Umr.—बोथली ..	..	718·83; 377; 59; 169	Weltur; 0·4	Kuhi; 16·0	Weltur; 0·4; Fri.	Weltur; 0·4	W.;w.	tl.
Bothalī—Umr.—बोथली ..	NW; 16·0	718·83; 163; 25; 99	Weltur; 0·4	Kuhi; 16·0	Weltur; 0·4; Thu.	Umrer; 16·0	w.	tl.
Bothalī—Umr.—बोथली ..	W; 22·0	1621·02; 321; 75; 212	Thana; 1·0	Bori; 8·0	Thana; 1·0; Mon.	.. .	w.	Cs; 3tl.
Bothiyā Pālorā—Rmt.—बोथीया पालोरा ..	N; 17·0	798·18; 497; 88; 182	Pauni; 2·0	Ramtek; 15·0	Pauni; 2·0; Wed.	Pauni; 2·0	w.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; lib.
Brāhmaṇavāḍā—Ngp.—ब्राम्हणवाडा ..	N; 10·0	1214·33; 417; 92; 205	Mahurzari; 3·0	Bharatwada; 3·0	Kalamesh-war; 6·0; .	Kalamesh-war; 7·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Brahmaṇī—Ngp.—ब्राम्हणी ..	S; 23·0	1219·00; 723; 159; 347	Borkhedi; 1·4	Borkhedi; 1·4	. . ..	Local; ..	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; dh.
Bāhmaṇī—Snr.—बाम्हणी ..	S; 10·0	1696·12; 1292; 284; 267	Kalamesh-war; 1·4	Kalamesh-war; 1·4	Kalamesh-war; 1·4; Sun.	Kalamesh-war; 1·4	pl.;W.	Sl (pr); 2tl; 2gym.
Brahmapūrī—Snr.—ब्रम्हपूरी ..	SE; 6·0	507·57; 655; 150; 367	Adasa; 2·0	Saoner; ..	Dhapewada; 3·0; Tue.	Saoner; 6·0	n.; w.	Sl (pr); 4tl.
Budhaḷā—Snr.—बुधळा ..	S; 14·0	2967·37; 274; 64; 173	Mohpa; 4·0	Kohli; 6·0	Mohapa; 4·0; .	Mohapa; 4·0	W.;w.	Cs (c); tl.
Bihālagondī—Ktl.—बिहालगोंदी ..	S; 13·0	.. 215; 45; 142	..	Navegaon ..	.. .. ..	Kondhali; ..	W.;w.	tl.
Cācer—Rmt.—चाचेर ..	S; 10·0	7100·36; 1863; 395; 985	Local; ..	.. ..	Nagardhan; 4·0; Sat.	Ramtek; 10·0	W.;w.	3Sl (Pr,; m); Cs (cr); 13tl.
Cāḍā—Umr.—चाडा ..	NE; 9·0	826·63; 231; 50; 137	Musalgao ı; 6·0	Brahmani; 2·0	Umrer; 6·0; Mon.	Umrer; 9·0	w.; n.	3tl.
Cākaḍoho—Snr.—चाकडोहो ..	Sw; 13·0	528·26; 55; 20; 29	Kohli; 6·0	Kohli; 6·0	Kohli; 6·0; Fri.	Mohapa; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr).
Cākorḍā—Rmt.—चाकोरडा ..	S; 2·0	2661·17; 15; 5; 7	Musewadi; 4·0	Ramtek; 12·0	Panchala; 3·0; Wed.	Ramtek; 2·0	w.	3tl.
Cāmpā—Umr.—चांपा ..	NE; 18·0	1469·47; 465; 94; 216	Local; ..	Umrer; 13·0	Local; Sat.	Local; ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 3tl.
Cāmpā—Rmt.—चांपा ..	S; 14·0	634·98; 22; 4; 7	Gondegaon; 2·0	Dumari; 3·0	Kandhan; Kamthi; 4·0; Fri.	.. 5·0	t.	tl.
Cānapā—Snr.—चानपा ..	NE; 12·0	1184·72; 604; 135; 352	Patan-savangi; 3·0	Patansavangi; 4·0	Anarav; 3·0; Tue.	Patan-savangi 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Canakāpūr—Snr.—चनकापूर ..	E; 14·3	1273·46; 4; 1; 2	Khaper-kheda; 1·0	Khaparkheda; 1·0	Nagpur; 7·0; Sun.	Khaper-kheda; 1·0	W.;w.	tl.
Candanapārḍī—Ktl.—चंदनपार्डी ..	SW; 8·0	2375·74; 729; 163; 445	Murti; 2·0	Katol; 8·0	Gondali; 6·0; Wed.	Khapri; 1·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Canaki—Ngp.—चानकी ..	W; 9·0	700·39; 109; 23; 42	Mahadula; 3·0	Bharatwada; 3·0	Nagpur; 7·0; Tue.	Bharatwada; 2·0	W.;w.	2tl.
Cannā;—Umr.—चन्ना ..	1·8	655; 139; 350	Local;	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Canoḍā;—Umr.—चनोडा ..	N.; 16·0	1490·54; 275; 50; 154	Malani; 2·0	Mahuli; 1·0	Kuni; 4·0; Wed.	.. ..	w.	2tl.
Canoḍā;—Umr.—चनोडा ..	S; 16·0	1382·54; 698; 152; 454	Local; ..	Umrer; 18·0	Sirsi; 2·0; Wed.	Girad; 5·0	w.	2tl.
Cāpegaḍi—Umr.—चापेगडी ..	NE; 22·0	729·01; 981; 193, 388	Salwa, 2·0	Kuhi; 8·0	Salwa; 2·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 4tl; gym.
Cārabhā—Rmt.—चारभा ..	SE; 17·0	747·62; 92; 16; 57	Rewarala; 2·0	Rewarala; 2·0	Dhanala; 3·0; Sun.	Borgaon .. 5·0	w.	tl.
Cāragāṅv—Ktl.—चारगांव ..	E; 12·0	2519·28; 275; 63; 165	Dorli; 3·0	Kohli; 3·4	Dorli; 3·0; Thu.	Dorli; 3·0	W.; w.	tl.
Cāragāṅv—Rmt.—चारगांव ..	N; 15·4	636·60; 1318; 370; 33	Navegaon-Khairi; 2·0	Khapa; 12·0	Navegaon Khairi; 2·0; Fri.	.. 4·0	w.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office; Distance (4)		Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Cāragāṅv—Rmt.—चारगांव ..	..	..	1305·46;	259;	56;	144	Navegaon Khairi;	..	Khapa;	10·0	Navegaon Khairi;	5·0; Fri.	Navegaon Khairi;	5·0	W.; w.	tl.
Cārgaṅv—Rmt.—चारगांव ..	W;	14·0	219·95;	58;	13;	36	Pauni	2·0	Ramtek;	13·0	Pauni;	2·0; Wed.	Pauni;	2·0	w.	tl.
Cāragāṅv—Snr.—चारगांव ..	..	13·0	1111·33;	81;	19;	39	Wadegaon;	2·0	Khapa;	7·0	Khapa;	7·0; Sun. & Wed.	Khapa;	6·0	W.; w.	tl.
Cāragāṅv—Umr.—चारगांव ..	S;	8·0	3676·29;	217;	48;	138	Butibori;	9·0	Butibori;	9·0	Thana;	3·0; Mon.	..	..	w.	tl.
Cāragaṅv—Umr.—चारगांव ..	S;	6·0	1359·41;	149;	31;	91	Mangrul;	2·0	Umrer;	8·0	Umrer;	8·0; Mon.	Umrer;	8·0	W.; w.	tl.
Cāragāṅv—Umr.—चारगांव ..	W;	2·0	..	104;	27;	66	..	..	Umrer;	..	Umrer;	.. ..	Umrer;	2·0	w.	tl.
Caugān—Rmt.—चौगान ..	N;	2·0	571·85;	163;	33;	69	Ramtek;	1·4	Ramtek;	2·4	Ramtek;	1·4; Sun.	Ramtek;	2·0	rv.	tl.
Cāvarepathār—Ktl.—चावरेपठार ..	W;	9·0	1256·54;	89;	17;	60	Bhorgad;	2·0	Katol;	10·0	Katol;	10·0; Tue.	..	5·0	rv.; w.	..
Chavārī—Rmt.—छवारी ..	N;	29·0	540·56;	104;	29;	61	Karavahi;	2·0	Mansar;	32·0	Khawasa;	4·0; Wed.	Khawasa:	4·0	w.	tl.
Cehadi—Ngp.—चेहडी ..	E;	19·0	778·04;	264;	55;	169	Gumthala;	5·0	Tharsa;	9·0	Gumthala;	4·0; Thu.	..	3·0	W.	tl.
Ceṇḍakāpūr—Ktl.—चेंडकापूर ..	SE;	10·0	1052·71;	163;	39;	107	Zilya;	2·0	Metpanjra;	5·4	Zilya;	2·4; Fri.	Metpanjra;	5·0	W.; w.	..
Chatrāpūr—Rmt.—छत्रापूर	SW;	9·0	1337·09;	172;	42;	76	Mahuli;	6·0	Mansar;	10·0	Navegaon Khairi;	6·0; Fri.	..	4·0	w.	tl.
Chatrāpūr—Snr.—छत्रापूर ..	W;	11·0	1236·81;	148;	35;	90	Nanda;	2·0	Saoner;	11·0	Nanda;	2·0; Sun.	Nanda;	2·0	W.;w.	Cs (c); tl.
Cicabhuvan—Ngp.—चिचभुवन ..	S;	6·0	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	Khapri;	1·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl; M; dg.
Cicabhuvan—Rmt.—चिचभुवन ..	SE;	10·0	1222·01;	202;	47;	124	Mahuli;	2·0	Dumari;	5·0	Parshivni;	.. Mon.	..	6·0	w.	Cs; 2tl.
Cicāḷā—Rmt.—चिचाळा ..	NE;	8·0	214·51;	770;	140;	422	Deolapar;	3·0	Mansar;	20·0	Deolapar;	3·0; Tue.	Ramtek;	8·0	w.	tl.
Cicaghāṭ—Umr.—चिचघाट ..	NE;	22·0	492·00;	276;	56;	125	Pipri;	1·0	Kuhi;	16·0	Local;	.. Mon.	..	2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Cicaghāṭ—Umr.—चिचघाट ..	NE;	22·0	1075·15;	361;	65;	200	Salwa;	4·0	Kuhi;	10·0	Salwa;	4·0; Mon.	Mauda;	4·0	rv.	Cs; 2tl.
Cicakoṭhā—Ngp.—चिचकोठा ..	S;	26·0	439·11;	82;	13;	55	Borkhedi;	4·0	Borkhedi;	4·0	Sindi;	4·0; Thu.	Sonegaon;	1·0	w.	tl.
Cicāḷā—Ktl.—चिचाळा ..	W;	2·0	549·29;	321;	66;	186	Katol;	3·0	Katol;	3·0	Katol;	3·0; Tue.	..	1·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Cicāḷā—Rmt.—चिचाळा ..	SE;	5·0	1212·77;	770;	140;	322	Nagardhan;	1·4	Ramtek;	4·0	Nagardhan;	1·4; Sat.	Ramtek;	5·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Cicāḷā—Umr.—चिचाळा ..	S;	8·0	848·73;	239;	41;	138	Channa; ..	2·0	Kuhi;	10·0	Kujba;	2·0; Wed.	..	4·0	W.;w.	Cs; tl.
Cicāḷā—Umr.—चिचाळा ..	NE;	17·0	1232·29;	643;	124;	358	Mangrul;	3·0	Thana;	5·0	Umrer;	8·0; ..	Umrer;	17·0	W.	2 tl.
Cikhalī Khurd—Ngp.—चिखली खुर्द. ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cicoḷī—Ktl.—चिचोळी ..	S;	10·0	500·79;	165;	37;	101	Khursapar;	3·0	Katol;	8·0	Kandoli;	6·0; Wed.	..	2·0	W.;w.	tl.
Cicolī—Ngp.—चिचोली ..	W;	25·0	1579·71;	534;	128;	270	Umari;	2·0	Nagpur;	24·0	Bajargaon;	3·0; Mon.	..	4·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Cicolī—Ngp.—चिचोली ..	S;	25·0	657·71;	43;	11;	22	Borkhedi;	3·0	Borkhedi;	3·0	Sindi;	3·0; Thu.	Brahmani;	2·0	W.	tl.
Cicolī—Ngp.—चिचोली ..	W;	9·0	755·09;	349;	65;	218	Phetri;	1·0	Bharatwada;	3·4	Kalameshwar;	5·0; Sun.	Angara;	1·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Cicolī—Ngp.—चिचोली ..	NW;	11·0	680·75;	93;	18;	200	Lonkhairi;	1·4	Patansaongi;	5·0	Patansaongi;	5·0; ..	Lonkhairi;	1·4	w.	2 tl.
Cicolī—Rmt.—चिचोली ..	E;	18·0	1007·47;	353;	72;	207	Dhanala;	1·0	Rewarala;	6·0	Dhanala;	1·0; Sun.	Rewarala;	6·0	w.; rv.	tl.
Cicolī—Rmt.—चिचोली ..	..	..	563·16;	194;	46;	125	Dahegaon;	3·0	Khapa;	6·0	Dahegaon;	3·0; Thu.	Dahegaon;	3·0	W.; w.	tl.
Cicolī—Snr.—चिचोळी ..	..	..	815·36;	1922;	460;	64	Local;	..	Local;	..	Local;	.. Sun.	Local;	..	W.; w.	2 Sl (pr, h); 2 tl; Ch; lib; dp.
Cicolī—Umr.—चिचोली ..	E;	5·0	570·21;	34;	7;	18	Umrer;	4·0	Umrer;	4·0	Umrer;	4·0; Mon.	Umrer;	5·0	w.; rv.	2 tl.
Cikanā—Ngp.—चिकना ..	E;	23·0	900·28;	325;	63;	178	Bhugaon;	2·0	Titur;	2·0	Titur;	2·0; Mon.	Mauda;	3·0	W.;rv.	tl.
Cikanā—Ngp.—चिकना ..	..	..	..	670;	132;	337	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cikaṇāpūr—Rmt.—चिकणापूर ..	NE;	17·0	205·19,	75;	9;	67	Hiwara;	5·0	Mansar;	24·0	Hiwara;	5·0; Mon.	Pauni;	10·0	n.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Cikanā Tukum—Umr.—चिकना तुकुम	E; 10·0	1914·99; 528; 103; 303	Dongar Munda; 2·0	Brahmani; 8·0	Dongar Mauda; 2·0; Sat.	.. 7·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Cikhalābodī—Rmt.—चिखला बोडी	N; 22·0	792·94; 185; 42; 185	Dhanala; 3·4	Khat; 4·4	Shahapur; 4·0; Tue.	.. 5·0	rv.; w.	2 tl.
Cikhalābodī—Umr.—चिखला बोडी	NE; 22·0	561·57; 146; 26; 86	Adam; 2·0	Kuhi; 6·0	Salwa; 2·0; Mon.	Mauda; 7·0	w.	tl.
Cikhal Dhokadā—Umr.—चिखल धोकडा	NW; 14·0	846·93; 165; 37; 109	Pipara; 5·0	Umrer; 14·0	Pipara; 5·0; Thu.	Umrer; 14·0	w.; n.	tl.
Cikhalā—Ngp.—चिखला	E; 18·0	986·10; 321; 58; 186	Bhugaon; 2·0	Titur; 4·0	Bhugaon; 2·0; Sun.	Vadoda; 4·0	w.	tl.
Cikhalagad—Ktl.—चिखलगड	SW; 9·0	1345·62; 283; 62; 113	Murti; 2·0	Katol; 8·0	Katol; 8·0; Tue.	Katol; 9·0	rv.; w.	tl.
Cikhalāpār—Umr.—चिखलापार	S; 15·0	1532·92; 300; 68; 177	Besur; 1·0	Umrer; 14·0	Nand; 5·0; Sun.	Umrer; 15·0	W.; w. ; rv.	tl.
Cikhalī—Ktl.—चिखली	S; 14·0	582·92; 414; 110; 228	Met-panjra; 4·0	Metpanjra; 6·0	Mendhepathar; 4·0; Thu.	Kondhali; 4·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Cikhalī*—Ngp.—चिखली	E; 4·0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Itwari; 1·0	w.	tl.
Cikhalī—Umr.—चिखली	NE; 24·0	1032·64; 334; 70; 197	Nakshi; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 2·0; Fri.	Adyal; 8·0	w.	2 tl.
Cikhalī—Umr.—चिखली	SE; 17·0	1088·88; 211; 49; 107	Ambhora; 2·0	Kuhi; 18·0	Weltur; 2·0; Fri.	Weltur; 3·0	w.	tl; dg.
Cikhalī—Rmt.—चिखली	NW; 22·0	1187·88; 479; 101; 258	Dhanala; 3·0	Khat; 7·0	Dhanala; 3·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	w.	4 tl.; gym.
Cikhalī Bk.—Ktl.—चिखली बु.	N; 5·0	.. 272; 59; 164	.. ..	.. ..	Mendhepathar; 2·0; Thu.	Local; ..	W.	tl.
Cikhalī (Malode)—Ktl.—चिखली	SE; 8·0	1194·70; 479; 99; 310	Masod; 1·4	Katol; ..	Kondhali; 2·0; Wed.	Ajanagaon; 3·0	O.	Sl (pr); Cs
Cimaṇājharī—Ngp.—चिमणाझरी	S; 24·4	1442·14; 153; 36; 86	Borkhedi; 3·0	Borkhedi; 3·0	Sindi; 4·0; Thu.	Sonegaon; 2·0	W;	tl.
Cimaṇājharī—Umr.—चिमणाझरी	NW; 16·0	1088·55; 297; 69; 165	Pachagaon; 3·0	Nagpur; 15·0	Pachagaon; 3·0; ..	Pachagaon; 3·0	W;	Cs.; tl.
Cica Bhuvan—Snr.—चिचभुवन	S; 20·0	610·36; 5; 2; 4	Byahad; 0·4	Kalameshwar; 8·0	Peth; 0·4; Tue.	.. 1·0	W.; w.	tl.
Cipadī—Umr.—चिपडी	NE; 11·0	1784·47; 412; 81; 229	Kuhi; 3·0	Kuhi; 4·0	Kuhi; 3·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.	2 tl; gym.
Ciravhā—Rmt.—चिरव्हा	S; 21·0	3562·54; 1259; 246; 561	Local; ..	Rewarala; 10·0	Local; .. Wed.	Mauda; 3·4	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Citāpur—Umr.—चितापूर	N; 16·0	1274·41; 360; 81; 189	Titur; 2·0	Titur; 0·2	Titur; 2·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	W.	2 tl.
Cokhāḷā—Rmt.—चोखाळा	SE; 10·0	979·36; 316; 65; 164	Aroli; 1·0	Tharsa; 6·0	Aroli; 1·0; Tue.	Ramtek; 10·0	W.	tl.
Corabāvalī—Rmt.—चोरबावली	W; 12·0	300·00; 201; 50; 40	Mansar; 6·0	Mansar; 6·0	Pauni; 4·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.; w.	Sl (pr); tl. gym.
Corabavāli—Rmt.—चोरबावली	.. ..	.. 1016; 350; 22	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..	..
Cor Khairī—Ktl.—चोरखैरी	N; 13·3	910·06; 195; 50; 105	Sindi; 2·0	Narkhed; 12·0	Sawargaon; 3·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	W.; w.	tl; mg; dg.
Corakhumārī—Rmt.—चोरखुमारी	N; 4·4	512·43; 161; 36; 65	Ramtek; 4·0	Ramtek; 6·0	Ramtek; 4·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 4·4	W.	tl.
Coravihirā—Umr.—चोर विहिरा	S; 13·0	911·47; 93; 18; 58	Umrer; 12·0	Umred; 12·0	Bhishi; 5·0; Sat.	Umrer; 13·0	W.	tl.
Dābhā—Ngp.—दाभा	W; 5·0	1063·57; 309; 64; 166	Umari; 2·4	Nagpur; 22·0	Sukali; 1·4; Sun.	Wacli; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
*Dābhā—Ngp.—दाभा	.. 20·0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dāḍherā—Snr.—दाढेरा	SW; 13·0	673·79; 84; 19; 58	Nanda; 2·0	Saoner; 13·0	Mohpa; 9·0; Wed.	.. 5·0	W.; w.	Cs (c); 2 tl.
Dahelī—Ngp.—दहेली	N; 28·0	1277·77; 400; 101; 243	Ashta; 2·0	Borkhedi; 6·0	Bela; 0·6; Sat.	Soneganv; 3·0	W.	Sl. (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Dahegāṅv—Ngp.—दहेगांव	S; 9·0	1·8; 216; 48; 110	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	Khapri; 2·0	W.;w.	3 tl.
Dahegāṅv—Rmt.—दहेगांव	S; 22·0	2299·68; 942; 177; 479	Dhanla; 2·4	Khat; 4·4	Dhanala; 2·4; Sun.	.. 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl. dg.
Dahegāṅv—Snr.—दहेगांव	S; 13·5	.. 532; 107; 268	Pipla; 2·0	Pipla; 2·0	Nagpur; 10·0; Sun.	Pipla; 0·2	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Dahegāṅv—Umr.—दहेगांव	W; 10·0	807·67; 406; 71; 224	Dongarmounda; 2·0	Brahmni; 2·0	Dangarmounda; 2·0; ..	Umrer; 10·0	w.	tl.
Dahegāṅv—Umr.—दहेगांव	SE; 14·0	1552·05; 78; 16; 45	Makar Dhokda; 4·0	Umrer; 10·0	Makar Dhokda; 4·0; Fri.	Umrer; 14·0	w.	2 tl.
Dahegāṅv (Raṅgārī)—Snr.—दहेगांव (रंगारी)	E; 13·0	.. 908; 217; 441	Pipla; 1·4	Khaperkheda; 3·4	Patan Sawangi; 5·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c; mis); 6 tl; 2 gym; 2 lib.
Dahegāṅv Joshi—Rmt.—दहेगांव जोशी	.. ..	3·6; 1450; 269; 628	Local; ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W; t.	Sl (pr).

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Dāhodā—Rmt.—दाहोदा ..	SW; 20·0	1146·46; 332; 66; 199	Deolapar; 10·0	Ramtek; 16·0	Pauni; 5·0; Wed.	Pauni; 5·0	W.	2 tl.
Dāhāḷī—Rmt.—डाहाळी ..	S; 15·2	795·06; 119; 25; 66	Mauda; 3·0	Salwa; 9·0	Mauda; 3·0; Fri.	Mauda; 2·0	W.;w.	tl.
Dāṭāḷā—Ngp. दाताळा ..	NW; 17·4	467·44; 173; 37; 99	Amgaon; 3·0	Gumgaon; 5·0	Gumgaon; 3·0; Sun.	Dongargaon; 10·0	W.	tl.
Dātevāḍī—Ktl. दातेवाडी ..	W; 14·0	911·73; 432; 96; 241	Bharshingi; 3·0	Katol; 15·0	Jalalkheda; 5·0; Fri.	Bharsingi; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr).
Davalīmeṭī—Ngp.—डवलीमेटी ..	W; 9·0	1060·19; 157; 32; 61	Wadi; 2·0	Nagpur; 8·0	Nagpur; 8·0; ..	..	4·0	W.;w.	3 tl.
Dāvasā—Ktl.—दावसा ..	E; 20·0	512·61; 754; 178; 367	Local; ..	Katol; 20·0	Thadipauni; 2·0; Tue.	..	6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Davhā—Umr.—डव्हा ..	W; 12·0	1631·79; 525; 129; 314	Local; ..	Umrer; 13·0	Makar Dhokda; 4·0; Fri.	..	6·0	W.	tl.
Ḍegamā Bk.—Ngp.—डेगमा ..	NW; 22·0	1977·20; 382; 86; 226	Kanholibara; 4·0	Buti; 15·0	Kanholibata; 4·0; Sun.	Savangi; 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ḍegamā Kh.—Ngp.—डेगमा खुर्द ..	W; 20·0	2017·27; 603; 138; 290	Kavadas; 2·0	Nagpur; 23·0	Kavadas; 2·0; Thu.	Hingna; 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Delavāḍī—Ktl.—देलवाडी ..	NW; 3·0	179·79; 5; 3; 5	Katol; 4·0	Katol; 4·0	Katol; 4·0; Tue.	Katol; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Denī—Umr.—देनी ..	.. ..	.. 216; 49; 104	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Devalāpār—Rmt.—देवलापार ..	N; 20·0	1384·92; 733; 151; 175	Local; ..	Mansar; 16·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	w.	mq. dp.
Devaḷī—Ktl.—देवळी ..	NE; 18·0	993·35; 293; 58; 168	Khairgaon; 0·4	Narkhed; 7·4	Mowad; 1·4; Wed.	Mowad; 2·6	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (cr; gr); 2tl; dg.
Devaḷī—Ngp.—देवळी ..	NW; 35·0	1501·72; 568; 134; 241	Local; ..	Nagpur; 28·0	Adegaon; 5·0; Sat.	..	..	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Devaḷī—Ngp.—देवळी ..	NW; 25·0	765·85; 70; 15; 45	Salaidhaba; 2·0	Bori; 3·0	Bori; 3·0; Tue.	Bori; 7·0	w.	Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15. tl.
Devaḷī—Ngp.—देवळी ..	S; 22·0	1885·17; 544; 127; 308	Kanholibara; 5·0	Sindhi; 15·0	Local; .. Sat.	..	5·4	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Devaḷī—Ngp.—देवळी ..	NW; 29·0	885·00; 517; 118; 244	Amgaon; 0·4	Gumgaon; 7·0	Gumgaon; 0·4; Thu.	..	..	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Devaḷī—Ngp.—देवळी ..	NW; 17·0	882·80; 585; 135; 291	Bori; 4·0	Bori; 4·0	Bori; 4·0; ..	Hingana;	5·0	W.	2 Sl (pr; m); 2 tl.
Devaḷī—Rmt.—देवळी ..	.. ..	307·39; 24; 5; 7	Borda; 0·4	Ramtek; 6·0	Mansar; 4·0; Thu.	Ramtek;	6·0	W.;w.	tl.
Devaḷī—Rmt.—देवळी ..	SW; 10·0	1518·00; 209; 41; 102	Nave g a o n Khairi; 2·0	Mansar; 8·0	Maveg a o n Khairi. 2·0; Fri.	..	5·0	w.; n.	tl.
Devaḷī—Umr.—देवळी ..	W; 10·0	985·27; 191; 42; 114	Salwa; 2·0	Kuhi; 8·0	Salwa; 2·0; Mon.	Umrer;	10·0	w.	tl.
Devaḷī Kalā—Umr.—देवळी कला ..	N; 16·0	985·27; 551; 113; 337	Salwa; 2·0	Kuhi; 8·0	Salwa; 2·0; Mon.	..	..	..	..
Devaḷī Kh.—Umr.—देवळी खुर्द ..	NE; 20·0	1275·28; 482; 92; 271	Salwa; 3·0	Kuhi; 8·0	Salwa; 3·0; Mon.	..	9·0	w.	Cs; tl; gym.
Devaḷī Peṭh—Ngp.—देवळी पेठ ..	S; 16·0	457·86; 58; 13; 30	Takalghat; 3·0	Buti Bori; 7·0	Takalghat; 3·0; Sat.	Dongargaon;	6·0	W.	tl.
Devamuṇḍharī—Rmt.—देवमुंढरी ..	NE; 21·0	1025·78; 375; 85; 174	Khat; 1·0	Khat; 1·0	.. .. ..	..	1·0	w.	tl.
Ḍhavalpeṭh Ngp.—ढवळपेठ ..	W; 22·4	1119·13; 11; 4; 8	Bamhni; 4·0	Borkhedi 3·0	Sindi; 3·0; Thu.	Junapani;	3·0	w.	tl.
Ḍhagā—Ngp.—ढगा ..	SE; 25·0	621·15; 15; 3; 11	Bajargaon; 2·0	Nagpur; 22·0	Bajargaon; 2·0; Mon.	Bajargaon;	3·0	w.	tl.
Ḍhakārā—Snr.—ढकारा ..	NE; 9·0	657·90; 120; 24; 68	Kothulna; 1·0	Khapa; 3·4	Kothulna; 1·0; Sat.	Khapa;	3·0	W.;w.	tl.
Dhāmaṇā—Ngp.—धामना ..	S; 19·0	247·57; 930; 220; 485	Local; ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	..	..	..	..
Dhāmaṇā—Ngp.—धामणा ..	W; 16·0	1·7; 236; 55; 128	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	..	..	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; M; dh; Cch.
Dhāmaṇā—Umr.—धामणा ..	E; 11·0	1796·14; 245; 48; 147	Dongarmauda; 2·0	Brahmani; 10·0	Dongarmaunda; 2·0; Sat.	..	8·0	w.	tl.
Dhāmaṇagāṅv—Ktl.—धामणगांव ..	S; 11·0	1573·70; 166; 34; 93	Khursapar; 3·0	Katol; 16·0	Kondhali; 5·4; Wed.	..	2·0	W.; w.	tl.
Dhāmaṇgāṅv—Rmt.—धामणगांव ..	S; 18·2	1425·20; 383; 85; 232	Mauda; 4·0	Rewarala; 5·0	Mauda; 4·0; Fri.	Mauda;	3·2	W.; w.	Cs; 2 tl.
Dhāmaṇagāṅv—Umr.—धामणगांव ..	W; 5·0	1747·42; 641; 143; 312	Medha; 4·0	Bhiwapur; 11·0	Bhiwapur; 11·0; Fri.	Medha;	4·0	..	..
Dhāmaṇagāṅv—Umr.—धामणगांव ..	S; 20·0	768·42; 291; 64; 167	Nand; 4·0	Umrer; 20·0	Nand; 4·0; Sun.	Umrer;	20·0	w.	tl; gym.
Dhāmaṇī—Umr.—धामणी ..	NE; 26·0	797·00; 234; 37; 121	Ambhora Kh; 3·0	Kuhi; 17·0	Naveganv; 2·0; Mon.	Navegaon;	2·0	W.;w.	5tl.
Dhanakuḍav—Ktl.—धनकुडव ..	E; 18·0	579·42; 72; 14; 34	Dorli; 7·4	Koholi; 9·0	Dorli; 7·4; Thu.	Bajaragaon;	4·0	W.;w.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Dhānalā—Rmt.—धानला ..	NE; 20·0	1209·36; 1623; 331; 743	Kodamendhi 4·0	Rewarala; 9·0	Kodamendhi; 4·0; Thu.	Borgaon; 3·0	w.	2 Sl. (pr. m.); Cs; 3tl.
Dhānalā—Umr.—धानला ..	NE; 22·0	.. 504; 87; 272	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhanī—Rmt.—धनी ..	S; 12·0	1401·47; 313; 69; 170	Nimkheda; 0·6	Tarsa; 0·6	Nimkheda; 0·6; Sun.	Mauda; 10·0	W.	Cs (cr); 3 tl.
Dhānolī—Ngp.—धानोली ..	S; 12·0	1316·28; 276; 57; 147	Raipur Hingna; 2·0	Khapri; 8·0	Raipur; Hingna; 2·0; Mon.	Nagpur; 12·0	W.	tl.
Dhānolī—Ngp.—धानोली ..	.. 24·0	.. 368; 81; 199	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 0·4	W.	Sl. (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Dhānolī—Ngp.—धानोली ..	NW; 26·0	2308·00; 300; 72; 155	Kavadas; 2·0	Nagpur; 25·0	Kavadas; 2·0; Thu.	Bajargaon; 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhānolī—Umr.—धानोली ..	N; 15·0	691·98; 209; 42; 133	Titur; 2·0	Titur; 2·0	Titur; 2·0; Mon.	Pachgaon; 6·0	w.	tl.
Dhānolī—Rmt.—धानोली ..	E; 15·0	.. 541; 105; 253	Kodmendhi; 2·0	Khat; 7·0	Kodmendhi; 2·0; ..	Ramtek 15·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Dhāparalā—Umr.—धापरला ..	E; 12·0	.. 217; 67; 126	Chargaon ; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 5·0	Bhiwapur; 5·0; Fri.	.. 1·0;	w.	tl.
Dhāparalā—Umr.—धापरला ..	.. ..	.. 408; 88; 242	Bhargaon; 3·0	Bhargaon; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 5·0; Fri.	.. ..	..	..
Dhāpevāḍā Bk.—Snr.—धापेवाडा बु.	S; 6·5	2142·42; 3687; 775; 1026	Local; ..	Kalameshwar; 6·0	Local; .. Tue	Kalmeshwar; 6·0	rv;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 7 Cs (7 mis); Vithal Fr. Asd. Sud. 11 to 15; 6 tl; M; mq, dg; lib; dp;
Dhāpevāḍā Kh.—Snr.—धापेवाडा खु.	S; 6·0	1447·49; 709; 165; 374	Dhapewada Bk. 0·1	Kalmeshwar; 6·0	Dhapewada Bk.; 0·1; Tue.	Local; ..	rv.;w;.	3 Sl (2 pr m); 3 Cs (Misc); 4 tl; M; 2dg; gym; Sud. 1; Vithal Fr. Asd Sud. 1; Krt. Sud. 11.
Dhāragāṅv—Ngp.—धारगांव ..	E; 8·0	1004·46; 228; 42; 110	Paradi; 1·4	Kamathi; 6·0	Kamathi; 6·0; Fri.	.. 1·0	w.	tl.
Dharmāpurī—Rmt.—धर्मापुरी ..	E; 13·0	911·36; 565; 113; 279	Rewarala; 3·0	Rewarala; 3·0	Kodamendhi; 3·0; Thu.	Rewrala; 2·0;	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; gym.
Ḍhavaḷāpūr—Ktl.—ढवळापूर ..	E; 6·4	1435·54; 1449; 332; 765	Local; ..	Metpanjra; 2·0	Local;	Hatala; 1·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr. m); Cs (c).
Ḍhavaḷāpūr—Rmt.—ढवळापूर ..	SW; 22·0	791·09; 105; 24; 69	Navegaon-khairi. 15·0	Mansar; 15·0	Navegaon Khair; 15·0; Fri.	Pauni; 12·0	w.	tl.
Dahegāṅv—Ngp.—दहेगांव ..	.. ..	1172·23; 216; 48; 110	Khapri; 1·0	Khapri; 2·0	Gumgaon; 2·0; Sun.	.. ..	..	tl.
Dhivaravāḍī—Ktl.—धिवरवाडी ..	NW; 2·0	421·76; 43; 12; 23	Katol ; 1·4	Katol; 2·0	Katol; 2·0; Tue.	Khangaon; 1·0	W;w.	tl.
Ḍhokaraḍā—Ngp.—ढोकरडा ..	NW; 30·0	959·97; 240; 57; 151	Kanholibara; 3·0	Sindhi; 7·0	Kanholibara; 3·0; Sun.	Sawangi; 5·0	W.	Cs; 2 tl.
Ḍholamārā—Rmt.—ढोलमारा ..	SE; 19·0	766·46; 141; 30; 91	Khat; 3·0	Rewarala; 2·0	Khat; 3·0; Wed.	.. 6·0	w.	tl.
Dholyā Mohagāṅv—Ngp.—ढोल्या मोहगांव ..	.. ..	.. 193 48 119	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Dhoṭīvāḍā—Ktl.—धोटीवाडा ..	SE; 20·0	1441·67; 559; 123; 350	Masod; 3·0	Katol; 19·0	Kondhali; 8·0; Wed.	.. 9·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 2 tl.
Dhotrā—Ktl.—धोत्रा ..	N; 14·0	743·99; 92; 20; 44	Narkhed; 2·0	Narkhed; 2·0	Narkhed; 2·0; Sun.	Narkhed; 3·0	W;w.	..
Dhūrakheḍā—Ktl.—धूरखेडा ..	S; 12·0	944·27; 376; 86; 225	Kondhali; 3·0	Kondhali; 4·0	Kondhali; 3·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Dhūrakheḍā—Snr.—धूरखेडा ..	S; 6·0	467·03; 247; 60; 138	Dhapewada; 2·0	Kalmeshwar; 6·0	Dhapewada; 2·0; Tue.	Saoner; 6·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhūrakheḍā—Umr.—धूरखेडा ..	NW; 3·0	1944·58; 534; 102; 277	Mangrul; 2·0	Umrer; 3·0	Umrer; 3·0; Mon.	Umrer ; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhuṭṭī—Ngp.—धुट्टी ..	S; 12·0	977·96; 117; 26; 64	Bori; 4·0	Gumgaon; 1·4	Gumgaon; 4·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	W.;w.	2 tl.
Ḍigaḍoh—Ngp.—डिगडोह ..	NW; 27·0	1083·36; 264; 50; 112	Raipur .. 4·0 Hingna;	Nagpur; 6·0	Raipur; Hingna and Nagpur; 4·0; Mon.	..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Offices; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (6)
Ḍigaḍoh—Ngp.—डिगडोह ..	W; 6·0	1561·00; 616; 128; 286	Local; ..	Nagpur; 27·0	Nadegaon; 6·0; ..	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Devi fr. ct sud 15; tl; dg.
Digalavāḍī—Rmt.—दिगलवाडी ..	SW; 1·0	1044·28; 371; 85; 189;	Parshivni; 1·4	Khaparkheda; 4·4	Parshivni; 1·4; Mon.	Khaparkheda 6·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Dighorī Bk.—Ngp.—दिघोरी बु. ..	E; 11·0	1290·49; 879; 259; 535	Local; ..	Local; ..	Itwari; 9·0; Sun.	.. 1·4	W.	2Sl (pr; m); tl; dg.; dp;
Dighorī Kh.—Ngp.—दिघोरी खुर्द ..	N; 6·0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr; m); 2 tl; dh.
Ḍigras Bk.—Ktl.—डिग्रस ..	W; 6·0	1322·59; 1188; 259; 614	Local; ..	Kalambha; 2·0	Local; .. Mon.	Kalambha; 2·0	W;rv.	Sl (m); Cs (cr); 4 tl; M; 2 dg; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Dindaragāṅv—Ktl.—दिंदरगांव ..	.. 14·0	848·84; 439; 89; 250	Kharkholi; 3·0	Narkhed; 6·0	Narkhed; 6·0; Sun.	.. ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (C); tl.
Dipālā—Umr.—दिपाला ..	N; 14·0	674·31; 181; 31; 109	Titur; 2·0	Titur; 3·0	Titur; 2·0; Mon.	Titur; 2·0	W;w.	tl.
Doḍakī—Ktl.—दोडकी ..	S; 14·0	1236·98; 601; 148; 329	Kondhali; 4·0	Katol; 14·0	Kondhali; 4·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 3·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Doḍamā—Umr.—दोडमा ..	.. ..	1190·23; 370; 62; 192	Local; ..	Titur; 4·0	Titur; 4·0; Mon.	Titur; 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ḍohaṇaghāṭ—Snr.—डोहणघाट ..	E; 10·0	1013·85; 69; 14; 36	Waki; 2·0	Patansawangi; 6·0	Wakodi; 2·0; Mon.	.. ..	rv;w.	tl.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Ktl.—डोंगरगांव ..	S; 4·0	1933·84; 169; 40; 102	Katol; 2·0	Katol; 2·0	Katol; 2·0; Tue.	Katol; 2·0	W;w.	tl.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Ngp.—डोंगरगांव ..	S; 11·6	1059·39; 283; 69; 95	Gumgaon; 2·0	Gumgaon; 0·4	Gumgaon; 2·0; Sun.	Local ..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Umr.—डोंगरगांव ..	SE; 12·0	425·59; 42; 9; ..	Umrer; 11·0	Umrer; 11·0	Umrer; 11·0; Mon.	.. ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; 2 M; Ch.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Umr.—डोंगरगांव ..	.. ..	503·09; 19; 5; 13	Adyal; 1·4	Bhiwapur; 2·4	Bhiwapur; 2·4; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 2·4	W.	tl.
Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Umr.—डोंगरगांव ..	N; 12·0	825·62; 370; 70; 231	Dodma; 2·0	Titur; 5·0	Chanpa; .. Sat.	Titur; 5·0	w.	tl.
Ḍoṅgaratāl—Rmt.—डोंगरताल ..	W; 23·0	1064·10; 251; 50; 83	Deolapar; 1·4	Mansar; 17·0	Deolapar; 1·4; ..	Deolapar; 1·4	W;w.	Cs (c); tl; dp; fort.
Ḍoṅgarmaudā—Umr.—डोंगरमौदा ..	N; 22·0	1039·32; 637; 134; 316	Local; ..	Brahmani; 8·0	Local; .. Sat.	Deolapar; 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl; M; dg; Lal Divan Fort and tank.
Ḍoṅgari—Rmt.—डोंगरी ..	E; 4·0	696·00; 400; 85; 194	Ramtek; 4·0	Ramtek; 6·0	Ramtek; 4·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ḍoralī—Rmt.—डोरली ..	NE; 16·0	1033·99; 776; 170; 397	Hingna; 1·0	Khaparkheda; 3·0	Kamathi; 8·0; Fri.	Kamathi; 6·0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg.
Dorali—Snr.—डोरली ..	S; 15·0	629·68;	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Ḍoralī—Ktl.—डोरली ..	N; 7·0	1127·17; 641; 147; 361	Local; ..	Kalambha; 3·0	Katol; 8·0; Tue.	Kalambha; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Ḍoralī Bk.—Ktl.—डोरली बु. ..	E; 14·0	1460·80; 1152; 282; 586	Local; ..	Kohali; 2·4	Local;	Local; ..	W;w.	2 sl (pr, m); 2 Cs (c; mis); 2 tl; M; lib; dp.
Ḍoralī Gaṅgājī—Snr.—डोरली गंगाजी. ..	1·0	4; 2; 4 ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Ḍoralī Maṇī—Snr.—डोरली मणी ..	.. 0·5	3; 1; 2 ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Dudhā—Ngp.—दुधा ..	NW; 26·0	1288·00; 357; 82; 189	Borkhedi; 1·4	Borkhedi; 1·4	Sindi; 6·0; Thu.	Hinganghat; 1·4	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Dudhā—Umr.—दुधा ..	W; 6·4	242·31; 91; 22; 57	Thana; 2·0	Bori; 9·0	Thana; 3·0; Mon.	.. 5·0	w.	tl.
Dūdhabarḍī—Snr.—दूधबर्डी ..	N; 3·4	294·21; 26; 5; 5	Saoner; 4·2	Saoner; 4·2	Saoner; 4·2; Fri.	Saoner; 4·2	w.	tl.
Dūdhabarḍī—Snr.—दूधबर्डी ..	.. ..	313·99; 34; 6; 18	Khangaon; 1·0	Khapa; 3·0	Saoner; 4·0; Wed.	Khangaon; 1·0	..	..
Dudhāḷā Bk.—Ktl.—दुधाळा बु. ..	SE; 12·0	1092·97; 898; 194; 378	Kondhali; 0·2	Katol; 12·0	Kondhali; 0·2; Wed.	Kondhali; 0·5	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Dudhāḷā—Ngp.—दुधाळा ..	SE; 20·0	708·25; 230; 57; 136	Bori; 3·0	Bori; 3·0	Bori; 3·0; Tue.	Bori; 3·0	w.	tl.
Dudhāḷā—Rmt.—दुधाळा ..	.. ..	.. 514; 101; 268	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Dulārā—Rmt.—दुलारा ..	N; 26·0	1045·35; 248; 36; 152	Karvahi; 2·0	Mansar; 31·0	Khawasa; 4·0; Wed.	.. 3·0	w.	tl.
Ḍumarī Kalā—Rmt.—डुमरी कला ..	NE; 7·0	825·99; 457; 99; 194	Khandala; 2·0	Dumari Kh.; 1·0	Mansar; 4·0; Thu.	Mandgaon; 1·0	w.	tl.
Ḍumarī Kh.—Rmt.—डुमरी खुर्द ..	NE; 9·0	.. 240; 56; 143	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Nandgaon; 1·0	w.	tl.
Drugadhamaṇā—Ngp.—द्रुगधमणा ..	W; 10·0	1214·50; 266; 64; 143	Waddhamana; 2·0	Nagpur; 9·0	Nagpur; 9·0; Thu.	.. 3·0	W.	2tl.
Gāda—Ngp.—गाद ..	.. 5·0	.. 885; 184; 432	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	rv; Sl (pr).

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Offices; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Gadāmī—Snr.—गदामी ..	SW; 12·0	386·05; 161; 83; 130	Kothulna; 2·0	Khapa; 6·0	Kothulna; 2·0; Sat.	Khapa; 6·0	W;w.	tl.
Gaḍapāyalī—Umr.—गडपायली ..	NE; 26·0	999·0; 125; 28; 61	Ambhora Kh.; 1·0	Kuhi; 18·0	Ambhora Kh.; 1·0; Tue.	Pohar; 7·0	W.	2tl.
Gaḍegāṅv—Snr.—गडेगांव ..	N; 4·0	640·36; 528; 145; 490	Khangaon; 1·0	Khapa; 3·0	Khapa; 3·0; Sun.; Wed.	Sgoner; 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Gaṇapāvalī—Umr.—गणपावली ..	NW; 4·0	378·50; 1; 1; 1	Umrer; 3·0	Umrer; 3·0	Umrer; 3·0; Mon.	Umrer; 3·0	W;	tl.
Gaṇeśapūr—Ktl.—गणेशपूर ..	.. 10·0	.. 126; 8; 15	Kachari Sawanga; 2·0	Katol; 10·0	Kachari Sawanga; 2·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.; Str.	Forest village.
Gaṇeśapūr—Ngp.—गणेशपूर ..	NW; 20·0	401·50; 155; 31 120	Bori; 2·0	Bori; 2·0	Bori; 2·0; ..	Bori; 2·0	w.	tl; M.
Gaṅgāḷaḍoh—Ktl.—गंगाळडोह ..	NW; 18·0	2190·43; 147; 50; 147	Belota; 2·0	Narkhed; 5·0	Belota; 2·0; Mon.	.. 1·0	W.;w.	4tl.
Gaṅgāḷaḍoho—Ktl.—गंगाळडोहो ..	E; 4·0	1671·00; 162; 13; 92	Dhawlapur; 2·0	Katol; 4·0	Dhawlapur; 2·0; Sat.	Dhawlapur; 2·0	rv;W.;	2tl.
Gāṅgner—Rmt.—गांगनेर ..	S; 13·0	1477·75; 549; 100; 100	Salwa; 3·0	Salwa; 4·0	Kanhan; 7·0; Fri.	Kanhan; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; 2gym.
Gāṅgāpūr—Umr.—गांगापूर ..	N; 1·4	604·15; 887; 174; 379	Umrer; 1·0	Umrer; 1·0	Umrer; 1·0; Mon.	Umrer; 1·4	W.	Sl (pr); tl; 2gym.
Gāralā—Ngp.—गारला ..	E; 12·0	1148·25; 264; 28; 84	Dighori; 1·0	Dighori; 1·0	Itwara; 10·0; Sun.	Nagpur; 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs(cr); Shri Ukoba Fr. Phg. Vad. 5; 3tl.
Garamasūr—Ktl.—गरमसूर ..	SE; 14·0	1761·31; 337; 69; 239	Shiwasawanga; 3·4	Metpanjra; 9·4	Kondhali; 8·0; Wed.	Chakdoh; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Garāṇḍa—Rmt.—गरांडा ..	NW; 13·0	999·14; 368; 49; 89	Hingna; 3·0	Dumari; 4·0	Parshivni; 4·0; Mon.	.. 5·4	W.	Cs; tl.
Gārdāpār—Umr.—गार्दापार ..	.. 2·5	.. 47; 19; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	Rv.	Sl (pr).
Gāḍeghāṭ—Umr.—गाडेघाट ..	E; 25·0	539·00; 316; 48; 48	Ghutanbori; 2·0	Bhivapur; 11·0	Jiwanapur; 4·0; Sat.	.. 10·0	W.	3tl.
Garrā—Rmt.—गर्रा ..	N; 28·0	941·78; 145; 27; 27	Karvahi; 5·0	Ramtek; 28·0	Khavasa; 6·0; Wed.	Deolapar; 6·0	W.	tl.
Gaulakheḍā—Ktl.—गौलखेडा. ..	W; 14·0	55·18; 1183; 272; 350	Local; ..	Katol; 14·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 0·1	W;w.	2Sl (2pr); 3tl; M; included in Jalalkheda.
Gaurāḷā—Ngp.—गौराळा ..	NW; 31·0	1591·55; 452; 88; 311	Deoli; 2·0	Nagpur; 30·0	Adegaon; 3·0; Sat.	.. ..	W; rv.	Sl(pr); tl.
Gavanā—Rmt.—गवना ..	NW; 12·2	729·62; 160; 32; 69	Hingna; 3·4	Dumari; 4·0	Parshivni; 4·0; Mon.	.. 5·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Gavaśi—Ngp.—गवशी ..	.. ..	.. 86; 14; 68	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Gāvasūt—Umr.—गांवसूत ..	N; 6·0	1816·82; 437; 89; 249	Brahmani; 2·0	Brahmani; 2·0	Brahmani; 2·0; Thu.	Brahmani; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Gāyamukh—Ktl.—गायमुख ..	NW; 19·0	648·07; 247; 56; 168	Mowad; 2·0	Narkhed; 6·0	Mowad; 2·0; Wed.	.. 1·0	W;w.	3tl.
Gharātavāḍā—Ktl.—घरातवाडा ..	E; 3·0	626·20; 803; 168; 524	Ridhora; 1·4	Katol; 6·0	Ridhora; 1·4; Sun.	Ridhora; 0·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ghāṭa Rohaṇā—Rmt.—घाट रोहणा ..	SE; 23·0	1985·11; 908; 128; 211	Gondegaon; 2·0	Kamathi; 5·0	Kamathi; 5·0; Fri.	.. 5·0	W.	Sl (pr), Cs; tl.
Ghāṭkhairī—Rmt.—घाटखैरी ..	W; 11·0	714·00; 297; 69; 152	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl. dp.
Ghāṭ Kukaḍā—Rmt.—घाट कुकडा ..	SW; 29·0	607·61; 160; 36; 101	Navegaon khairi; 20·0	Mansar; 20·0	Nagalwadi; 6·0; Fri.	Pauni; 20·0	W.	tl.
Ghoṭurlī—Umr.—घोटुरली ..	NW; 1·4	943·33; 1; 1; 1	Umrer; 3·0	Umrer; 3·0	Umrer; 3·0; Mon.	.. ..	w.	2tl.
Ghāṭ Peṇḍharī—Rmt.—घाट पेंढरी ..	SW; 34·0	936·42; 378; 77; 233	Navegaon Khairi; 20·0	Khapa; 35·0	Nagalwadi; 8·0; Fri.	Pauni; 23·0	W.	tl.
Ghāṭumarī—Umr.—घाटउमरी ..	E; 23·0	517·70; 257; 41; 73	Thutanbori; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 12·0	Jiwanapur; 4·0; Sat.	.. 1·0	w.;rv.	2tl.; 2 Cch.
Ghoḍeghāṭ—Ngp.—घोडेघाट ..	NW; 26·0	1277·83; 287; 66; 159	Sindhi; 3·0	Sindhi; 4·0	Sindhi; 3·0; Thu.	Sawangi; 1·0	w.	Cs; 2tl.
Ghogalī—Ngp.—घोगली ..	W; 26·0	0·7; 2; 1; 2	Sindi; 2·0	Sindhi; 2·0	Sindhi; 2·0; Thu.	Sawangi; 2·0	W.	..
Ghogalī—Snr.—घोगली ..	S; 12·0	704·57; 273; 78; 167	Ghorod; 1·0	Kalmeshwar; 3·0	Kalmeshwar; 3·0; Sun.	Local;	W.;w.	Sl (pr).
Ghogalī—Ngp.—घोगली ..	.. ..	914·92; 400; 78; 204	Mahadula; 1·0	Khaperkheda; 7·0	Nagpur; 7·0; Tue.	.. ..	..	..
Ghogarā—Ktl.—घोगरा ..	.. ..	1021·58; 427; 102; 244	Khapa; 2·0	Katol; 19·0	Lohari Sawanga; 2·0; Sat.	.. ..	..	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Offices; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Ghogalī Bk.—Ngp.—घोगली बु. ..	W; 8·0	504·93; 94; 19; 53	Pipala; 1·0	Nagpur; 6·0	Nagpur; 6·0; Mon.	.. 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Ghorāḍ—Snr.—घोराड ..	S; 11·0	1005·36; 1513; 320; 753	Local; ..	Kalmeshwar; 3·0	Kalmeshwar; 3·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	W.;w.	2Sl (pr; m); 3tl; gym.
Ghorapaḍ—Ngp.—घोरपड ..	E; 12·0	1696·16; 522; 108; 253	Kamathi; 2·0	Kamathi; 2·0	Kamathi; 2·0; Fri.	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl; dg.
Ghotmundhanī—Rmt.—घाटमुंढरी ..	SE; 19·0	814·02; 446; 83; 170	Khat; 2·0	Khat; 2·0	Khat; 2·0; Wed.	.. 6·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ghoṭī—Ngp.—घोटी ..	S; 21·0	1267·73; 257; 57; 148	Bori; 5·0	Bori; 5·0	Bori; 5·0; Tue.	.. 4·0	W.	tl.
Ghoṭī—Rmt.—घोटी	SW; 22·0	799·58; 324; 60; 254	Deolapar; 7·0	Ramtek; 17·0	Pauni; 5·0; Wed.	Pauni; 5·0	w.	2tl.
Ghoṭī—Rmt.—घोटी	E; 8·0	1052·88; 286; 50; 144	Hiwara; 4·4	Mansar; 20·0	Hiwara; 4·0; Mon.	Ramtek; 8·0	w.	tl.
Ghoṭī—Rmt.—घोटी	N; 10·0	274·61; 203; 45; 126	Mahadula; 4·0	Mansar Tharsa; 8·0	Panchala; 2·0; Wed.	Pauni; 7·0	w.	tl.
Ghubaḍī—Ktl.—घुबडी	.. ..	3·5; 379; 81; 213	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr).
Ghukasī—Rmt.—घुकसी	W; 9·0	1018·86; 137; 27; 79	Mahuli; 2·0	Mansar; 3·0	Mansar; 3·0; Thu.	Mansar; 5·0	W.	Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2tl.
Gidamagaḍ—Ngp.—गिदमगड ..	.. ..	.. 385; 85; 172	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Bajargaon; 10·0	rv.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Girolā—Ngp.—गिरोला ..	W; 14·0	964·48; 262; 63; 147	Mohogaon; 3·0	Kalmeshwar; 10·0	Mohogaon; 3·0; Fri.	Hingana; 4·0	W.	tl.
Godhani—Ktl.—गोधनी ..	.. ..	.. 348; 93; 209	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Godhanī—Umr.—गोधनी ..	E; 8·0	795·00; 154; 31; 86	Umrer; 7·0	Umrer; 7·0	Umrer; 7·0; Mon. Thu.	Umrer; 6·0	W.	..
Gohaḍalī—Umr.—गोहडली ..	NE; 24·0	610·59; 307; 64; 154	Thutanbori; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 11·0	Gothangaon; 2·0; Wed.	Bhivapur; 11·0	w.;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs(c); tl; dg; Cch.
Golārakhāpā—Ktl.—गोलारखापा ..	N; 8·2	853·95; 132; 29; 100	Sawargaon; 2·0	Katol; 11·0	Sawargaon; 2·0; Mon.	Sonoli; 1·2	W.;w.	2tl.
Goṇḍborī—Umr.—गोंडबोरी ..	SE; 12·0	600·77; 461; 110; 291	Kargaon; 2·0	Kargaon; 3·0	Bhiwras; 6·0; Fri.	Kargaon; 2·0	rv; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Goṇḍegāṅv—Ktl.—गोंडेगांव ..	N; 18·0	1241·98; 121; 28; 72	Narkhed; 2·0	Narkhed; 2·0	Narkhed; 2·0; Sun.	Narkhed; 2·0	W.;w.	..
Goṇḍegāṅv—Rmt.—गोंडेगांव ..	SE.; 20·0	1706·98; 1272; 270; 610	Local; ..	Kanhan; 4·0	Kamathi; 4·0; Fri.	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl; dg.
Gondhanī—Ktl.—गोंधनी ..	N; 19·0	848·00; 188; 39; 92;	Yenwa; 1·4	Katol; 6·0	Katol; 6·0; Tue.	Yenwa; 1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Ram Fr. Ct; Sud. 9.
Gonhā—Umr.—गोन्हा	NE; 24·0	795·12; 715; 139; 415	Umrer; 4·0	Umrer; 4·0	Umrer; 4·0; Mon.	Umrer; 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Goṇḍpimparī—Umr.—गोंडपिंपरी ..	NE; 28·0	624·00; 275; 51; 134	Pipari; 2·0	Kuhi; 18·0	Navegaon Chinchghar 2·0; Mon.	Shahapur; 8·0	rv.	tl.
Gonhī—Ngp.—गोन्ही	SE; 6·0	.. 1,359; 300; 629	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	2 tl.
Gonhī Kh.—Ngp.—गोन्ही	W; 8·3	302·48; 230; 59; 124	Dhetri; 0·4	Bharatwada; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 5·0; Sun.	.. 0·3	w.	tl.
Gonhī Sīm—Ngp.—गोन्ही सीम ..	SE; 6·0	0·5; 73; 20; 33	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	2 tl.
Gondī Ḍigras—Ktl.—गोंदी डिग्रस ..	N; 7·0	1000·00; 744; 178; 448	Yenwa; 1·0	Kalambha; 3·0	Katol; 7·0; Tue.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; dp.
Gondī Khāpā—Ktl.—गोंदीखापा ..	E; 10·0	1,102·61; 187; 43; 117	Zilya; 2·0	Katol; 8·0	Katol; 8·0; Tue.	Ghubadmet; 7·0	W.	tl.
Gondī Mohagāṅv—Ktl.—गोंदी मोहगांव ..	SE; 11·0	1,842·58; 698; 162; 413	Zilya; 2·0	Katol; 11·0	Katol; 11·0; Tue.	Sawaragaon; 6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl;
Goṇḍ Khairī—Snr.—गोंड खैरी ..	S; 18·0	3,445·42; 1,621; 310; 859	Local; ..	Nagpur; 12·0	Local; .. Mon.	Local ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (2cr); tl; lib; dp.
Gorakhpūr—Rmt.—गोरखपूर ..	SW; 11·0	327·22; 119; 28; 74	Nawegaon Khairi; 5·0	Mansar; 10·0	Nawegaon Khairi 4·0; Fri.	.. 6·0	w.	tl.
Goreghāṭ—Rmt.—गोरेघाट ..	.. 21·0	619·22; 98; 20; 57	Deolapar; 6·0	Ramtek; 21·0	Deolapar; 6·0 ..	Deolapar; 6·0	n.	..
Gorevāḍā—Ngp.—गोरेवाडा ..	N; 5·0	1,842·81;	Bormala; 2·0	Sitabardi; 4·0	Chavani; .. Tue.	Nagpur; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); 5 tl; gym.
Gosevāḍī—Snr.—गोसेवाडी ..	E; 12·0	1,786·81; 366; 84; 214	Waki; 2·0	Patansawangi; 4·0	Patansawangi; 4·0; Tue .	Patansawangi; 4·0	rv;W.	Sl (pr); Cs. (c); tl.
Goṭepāñjarī—Ngp.—गोटे पांजरी ..	.. ..	.. 156; 29; 92	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Govarī—Umr.—गोवरी	.. ..	0·5; 35; 6; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Offices; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Goṭhaṇgāṅv—Umr.—गोठणगांव ..	E; 18·0	1485·68; 1115; 282; 510	Local; ..	Bhiwapur; 13·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	w.	2 Sl (pr; h); tl.
Govarī—Rmt.—गोवरी ..	S; 20·0	2123·00; 1382; 269; 465	Local; ..	Bhandara; 8·0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 2·4	w.	2 Sl. (pr; m); 4 tl; gym; Ch; lib.
Govārī—Snr.—गोवारी	SE; 10·0	1013·55; 206; 51; 121	Bramhapuri; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 5·0	Kalameshwar; 5·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	W;w.	tl.
Goṭhaṇagāṅv—Ngp.—गोठणगांव ..	.. ..	2·7; 118; 31; 60	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;o.	..
Gavasī Mānāpūr—Ngp.—गवसी मानापूर ..	S; 10·0	.. 86; 14; 68	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Parsodi; 8·0	..	..
Guḍhegāṅv—Rmt.—गुढेगांव ..	NE; 6·0	611·56; 212; 43; 124	Musewadi; 0·2	Ramtek; 8·0	Ramtek; 6·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 6·0	w.	2 tl.
Guguladoha (Ghogarā)—Rmt.—गुगुलडोह	NE; 10·0	2172·30; 503; 107; 230	Musewadi; 3·0	Ramtek; 12·0	Panchala; 3·0; Wed.	Ramtek; 10·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Gujarakheḍī—Ktl.—गुजरखेडी ..	S; 1·4	442·80; 10; 3; 5	Katol; 4·0	Katol; 4·0	Katol; 4·0; Tue.	Katol; 1·4	W;w.	..
Gujarakheḍī—Snr.—गुजरखेडी ..	NE; 2·0	819·11; 245; 58; 87	Saoner; 2·0	Saoner; 2·0	Saoner; 2·0; Fri.	Saoner; 1·0	W;w.	Cs (cr); tl.
Gumagāṅv—Ktl.—गुमगांव ..	W; 25·0	601·96; 286; 60; 134	Sawanga; 3·0	Katol; 21·0	Sawanga; 3·0; Sat.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); mq; dg.
Gumagāṅv—Ngp.—गुमगांव ..	S; 10·0	647·77; 4,760; 933; 1,424	Local; ..	Gumgaon; 3·0	Gumgaon; 3·0; Sun.	Dongargaon; 3·0	W;rv.	6 Sl (2 pr; 2 m; 2 h); 6 Cs; Ramnavmi Fr; Ct;, Sud 9; 16 tl; 3 M; 2 mq; dg; 3 gym; dp.
Gumagāṅv—Snr.—गुमगांव ..	E; 7·0	815·24; 982; 134; 145	Khapa; 2·0	Khapa; 2·0	Khapa; 2·0; Sun.	Saoner; 7·0	n;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Gumathaḷā—Ngp.—गुमथळा ..	E; 14·0	1,005·17; 481; 112; 239	Lonkhari 2·0	Bharatvada; 3·0	Nagpur; 8·0; Tue.	.. 1·4	w.	2 Sl (pr; h); Cs; 4 tl; dg; gym; dp.
Gumathaḷā—Ngp.—गुमथळा ..	N; 7·0	2,848·96; 1350; 295; 697	Local; ..	Dighori; 5·0	Local; .. Thu.	Nagpur; 7·0	W.	2 Sl (pr; m); tl; gym.
Gumathaḷā—Snr.—गुमथळा ..	S; 14·0	956·95; 357; 79; 215	Uparvahi; 1·0	Kalameshwar; 4·0	Kalameshwar; 4·0; Fri.	.. ..	W;w.	Cs (c); 3 tl.
Gumathī—Ngp.—गुमथी	W; 9·0	1,616·71; 540; 118; 218	Koradi; 5·0	Koradi; 5·0	Nagpur; 6·0; All days.	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; gym; dp.
Guṇḍharī—Rmt.—गुंढरी	W; 8·0	475·11; 187; 40; 109	Mahuli; 2·0	Mansar; 4·4	Mansar; 4·0; Thu.	Mansar; 4·0	W.	2tl.
Guṇḍharī Pāṇḍe—Rmt.—गुंढरी पांडे	.. ..	897·69; 410; 86; 165	Hingana; 3·0	Khaperkheda; 5·0	Parshivni; 4·0; Mon.	Mansar; 4·0	W;w.	tl.
*Hajārī Pahāḍ—Ngp.—हजारी पहाड	W; 3·3	983·87; .. 100; 59	Borgaon (Gittikhadan); 2·0	Nagpur; 3·4	.. .. ..	Local; ..	w.	tl; M.
Haḷadagāṅv—Ngp.—हळदगांव ..	NW; 28·0	1,436·82; 293; 66; 146	Sindhi; 2·0	Sindhi; 2·0	Sindhi; 2·0; Thu.	Sawangi; 2·0	w.	Sl.(pr.) Cs; gym; lib; dp.
Haḷadagāṅv—Umr.—हळदगांव ..	NW; 12·0	1,866·84; 332; 75; 196	Chanpa; 2·0	Umrer; 11·0	Chanpa; 2·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.	2 tl.
Hamalāpurī—Rmt.—हमलापुरी ..	E; 4·0	559·66; 336; 56; 180	Nagardhan; 1·0	Ramtek; 4·0	Nagardhan; 1·0; Sat.	Nagardhan; 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Haradolī—Ktl.—हरदोली ..	S; 14·0	585·23; 100; 21; 65	Kondhali; 5·0	Katol; 17·0	Kondhali; 5·0; Wed.	.. ..	W;w.	tl; dg.
Haradolī—Snr.—हरदोली ..	S; 6·0	711·72; 124; 28; 77	Brahmapuri; 4·0	Saoner; 7·0	Dhapewada; 3·0; Tue.	Saoner; 6·0	rv;w.	Cs (c); tl.
Haradolī—Umr.—हरदोली ..	NW; 26·0	1,372·57; 681; 117; 345;	Weltur; 2·0	Kuhi; 18·0	Chichghat; 1·0; ..	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Haradolī—Umr.—हरदोली ..	NE; 10·0	1,740·18; 517; 104; 329	Dongar Mauda; 1·0	Brahmani; 8·0	Mandhal; 2·0; Tue.	Umrer; 10·0	w.	tl.
Haraṇakhurī—Ktl.—हरणखुरी ..	NW; 4·0	325·23; 295; 64; 150	Katol; 2·0	Kalambha; 2·0	Katol; 2·0; Tue.	Katol; 2·0	W;w.	tl.
*Harapūr—Ngp.—हरपूर ..	E; 4·0	366·10;	Raghojinagar; 0·4	Itwari; 2·0	Mahal; 1·0; ..	Sakardara; 0·1	W;	2 tl; dp.
Hasāpūr—Rmt.—हसापूर ..	E; 11·2	384·23; 74; 15; 36	Mahadula; 3·0	Ramtek; 13·0	Bhandarbodi; 1·0; Tue.	Ramtek; 11·2	t.	tl.
Hātalā—Ktl.—हातला ..	E; 6·0	1312·39; 551; 117; 237	Dhawlapur; 0·4	Metpanjra; 2·0	Katol; 6·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Hātoḍī—Rmt.—हातोडी ..	SE; 6·0	1,635·17; 299; 62; 140	Kachurwahi; 2·0	Ramtek; 7·0	Kachurwahi; 2·0; Mon.	Ramtek; 6·0	w.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)				Post Offices ; Distance (4)		Railway Station ; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Hattīboḍī—Umr.—हत्तीबोडी ..	SE;	16·0	448·32,	120;	20;	81	Medha;	2·0	Bhiwapur;	9·0	Bhiwapur;	8·4; Fri.	Bhiwapur;	8·0	w.	2 tl.
Hattīsarrā—Snr. हत्तीसर्रा ..	N;	6·0	732·00;	393;	91;	226	Khairi;	1·4	Kelwad;	2·0	Kelwad;	2·0; Thu.	Kelwad;	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Heṭīsuralā—Snr. हेटीसुरला ..	..	..	732·44;	192;	43;	93	Khairi	2·0	Kelwad;	3·0	Kelwad;	.. Thu.	Kelwad;	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; Ch.
Heṭīkheḍā—Snr.—हेटीखेडा ..	SW;	15·0	860·12;	107;	27;	71	Dhalgaon; Kothulna;	4·4	Khapa;	9·0	Kothulna;	4·4; Sat.	Khapa;	9·0	W;w.	..
Hevaṭī—Umr.—हेवटी	NW;	7·0	1289·32;	842;	194;	491	Udasa;	2·0	Umrer;	7·0	Makar Dhokda;	3·0; Fri.	Umrer;	7·0	W.	Sl (pr); *Co-operative Credit Bank; 6 tl.
Hiṅgaṇā—Ngp.—हिंगणा ..	W;	9·0	1846·92;	1802;	358;	477	Local;	..	Khapri;	6·0	Raipur;	0·4; Mon.	Local;	0·4	w;W; rv.	Sl (pr); Co-operative Wool Weaving Centre;5tl; dg;lib.
Hiṅgaṇā—Rmt.—हिंगणा ..	SE;	12·0	1153·82;	431;	103;	217	Local;	..	Khaperkheda;	3·0	Parshivani;	7·0; Mon.	Mauda;	10·0	W;w.	2 tl; gym.
Hiṅgaṇā—Rmt.—हिंगणा ..	NE;	15·0	544·68;	224;	36;	128	Deolapar;	4·0	Mansar;	20·0	Deolapar;	4·0; ..	Khaperkheda;	4·0	w.	2 Sl (pr; m); Cs; tl.
Hiṅgaṇā—Snr.—हिंगणा ..	SW;	10·0	552·54;	141;	31;	85	Khapa;	4·0	Khapa;	4·0	Khapa;	4·0; Sun.	Khapa;	4·0	W;w.	tl; mq.
Hivarā—Ktl.—हिवरा	W;	19·0	1103·83;	520;	110;	327	..	1·0	Katol;	20·0	Sawanga;	3·0; Sat.	Sawanga Lohari;	4·0	W;w.	4 Sl (pr); Cs (2c); tl.
Hivarā—Rmt.—हिवरा	N;	18·0	812·90;	1120;	223;	348	Local;	..	Mansar;	22·0	Local;	.. Mon.	..	2·0	w;W.	Sl (m); Cs (misc); 3 tl; 3 lib; dp.
Hivarā—Rmt.—हिवरा	NW;	11·0	1136·40;	503;	95;	254	..	2·0	..	2·0	Kamathi;	4·0; Fri.	Kanhan;	..	w.	3 tl.
Hivarā—Rmt.—हिवरा	NE;	14·0	664·83;	436;	91;	232	Mansar;	2·0	Mansar;	2·0	Mansar;	2·0; Thu.	Devlapar;	5·0	w.	2 Sl (pr; m); tl; 2 gym; dp.
Hivarā—Rmt.—हिवरा	..	16·0	881·27;	262;	55;	160	Pauni;	3·0	Mansar;	15·0	Pauni;	3·0; Wed.	Pauni;	3·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Ch; tl.
Hivarā—Rmt.—हिवरा	W;	3·0	468·42;	391;	176;	95	Kandri;	1·0	Mansar;	3·0	Mansar;	3·0; Thu.	Ramtek;	3·0	w.	tl.
Hivarā—Umr.—हिवरा	S;	12·0	1356·86;	950;	206;	537	Local;	..	Umrer;	17·0	Sirsi;	3·0; Wed.	..	..	W.	Sl. (pr); Cs; 5 tl.
Hivarā (Kalā)—Rmt.—हिवरा कला	W;	3·0	964·88;	178;	36;	106	Khat;	2·0	Khat;	2·0	Khat;	2·0; Wed.	..	..	W.; w.	Cs; tl.
Hivarā (Valhe)—Rmt.—हिवरा वल्हे	N;	25·0	812·90;	214;	39;	106	Local;	..	Mansar;	18·0	Local;	1·0; Mon.	..	3·0	w.	2 tl.
*Hivarī—Ngp.—हिवरी	E;	5·0	250·36,	..	20;	..	Nagpur;	1·0	Itwari;	3·0	Itwara;	1·0; Wed.	..	2·0	w.	tl; mq.
Hivarī—Rmt.—हिवरी	S;	4·0	772·16;	137;	28;	59	Mansar;	1·4	Mansar;	1·4	Mansar;	1·4; Thu.	Ramtek;	4·0	w.	tl.
Huḍakeśvar—Ngp.—हुडकेश्वर ..	SE;	7·0	1220·43;	313;	64;	153	Pipala;	4·0	Nagpur;	5·0	Nagpur;	3·0; Wed.	Nagpur;	7·0	W.	2 tl.
Huḍakeśvar Kh.—Ngp.—हुडकेश्वर खुर्द	SE;	8·0	625·12;	294;	61;	165	Pipala;	2·0	Sitabardi;	6·0	Salai Godhani;	3·0; Fri.	Nagpur;	8·0	W.;w.	2 Sl. (pr; h); tl.
Huḍapā—Umr.—हुडपा	NE;	21·0	763·47;	187;	35;	108	Adam;	1·0	Kuhi;	7·0	Salwa;	2·0; Mon.	Mauda;	7·0	W.	tl.
Ijanī—Rmt.—इजनी	E;	14·0	425·07;	113;	19;	70	Indora;	2·0	Rewarala;	4·0	Kodamendhi	3·0; Thu.	Rewarala;	3·0	w.	tl.
Indāpūr—Umr.—इंदापूर ..	NW;	12·0	..	349;	83;	191	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	w.	Sl. (pr); tl; gym.
Indorā—Ktl.—इंदोरा	NW;	18·0	303·67;	108;	23;	52	Narkhed;	4·0	Narkhed;	4·0	Naikhed;	4·0; Sun.	..	1·0	W.;w.	3 tl.
Indorā—Rmt.—इंदोरा	SE;	14·0	928·22;	799;	168;	364	Local;	..	Rewarala;	..	Kodamendhi;	3·0; Thu.	Ramtek;	14·0	w.	Sl. (pr); 2 tl; gym.
*Indorā Maktā—Ngp.—इंदोरा मक्ता	SE;	2·0	870·64;	..	..	..	..	1·0	Nagpur;	2·0	Nagpur;	1·0; Tue.	Local;	..	Pl.w.	8 tl; 4 gym; 3 lib; 11 dp.
Isāpūr—Rmt.—इसापूर	S;	17·2	1262·56;	207;	43;	122	Tharsa;	2·0	Tharsa;	2·0	Mauda;	4·0; Fri.	Mauda;	4·0	w.	tl; gym.
Isāpūr—Snr.—इसापूर	E;	10·4	1382·00;	863;	126;	411	Pipala;	2·0	Pipala;	2·0	Patansavangi;	4·0; Tue.	Pipala;	2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; (cr); 2 tl.
Isāpūr—Umr.—इसापूर	N;	9·0	1057·40;	479;	93;	215	Local;	..	Kuhi;	4·0	Kuhi;	5·0; Wed.	..	9·0	w.	tl.
Isāpūr Bk.—Ktl.—इसापूर बु. ..	NE;	6·0	738·00;	393;	90;	218	Zilya;	1·4	Katol;	9·0	Katol;	9·0; Tue.	Chikhali;	1·4	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); tl.
Isāpūr Kh.—Ktl.—इसापूर खुर्द. ..	NE;	5·1	1092·00;	563;	144;	341	Zilya;	1·0	Katol;	8·0	Katol;	8·0; Tue.	Zilya;	1·4	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Holipaurnima Fr, Phg. Sud. 15; tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Offices; Distance (4)		Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Iṭagāṅv—Rmt.—इटगांव ..	SW;	20·0	1791·32;	680;	141;	340	Parshivni;	3·0	Khaperkheda;	3·0	Parshivani;	3·0; Mon.	Khaperkheda;	5·0	w.	Sl. (pr); Cs; tl.
Iṭanagoṭī—Snr.—इटनगोटी ..	E;	9·0	1·8;	47;	100;	279	Patansawangi;	1·0	Patansawangi;	2·0	Patansawangi;	1·0; Tue.	..	2·0	W.; w.	Sl. (pr); tl.
*Jaytāḷā—Ngp.—जयताळा ..	W;	4·0	914·16;	1622;	560;	208	Gokulpeth;	3·0	Nagpur;	4·0	Gokulpeth;	3·0; Fri.	Ambhyankar-nagar;	2·0	w.	2 Sl. (pr; m); tl. Cch.
Jaitagaḍ—Snr.—जैतगड ..	..	..	1853·61;	2;	1;	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Jaitāpūr—Snr.—जैतापूर ..	W;	12·0	1201·75;	174;	43;	112	Nanda;	2·0	Saoner;	12·0	Nanda;	2·0; Sun.	Nanda;	2·0	W.;w.	Cs (c); tl.
Jaitāpūr—Umr.—जैतापूर ..	W;	25·0	718·66;	146;	28;	92	Bela;	2·0	Borkhedi;	7·0	Bela;	2·0; Sat.	..	4·0	w.	tl.
Jākhegāṅv—Ngp.—जाखेगांव ..	E;	20·0	1238·68;	535;	107;	286	Bhugaon;	3·0	Titur;	5·0	Bhugaon;	3·0; Sun.	Mauda;	5·0	W.	Sl. (pr); tl.
Jalālkheḍā—Ktl.—जलालखेडा ..	W;	14·0	567·55;	975;	209;	285	Local;	..	Katol;	14·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	W.	2 Sl. (m, h); Cs(c); Shiv Fr; mg. Vad. 13; 6 tl.; mq; 2 dg; gym; lib; dp; Fort; Shiv Temple.
Jalālkheḍa—Snr.—जलालखेडा ..	W;	6·4	2252·84;	364;	83;	238	Umari;	3·0	Kelwad;	6·0	Kelwad;	6·0; Thu.	Mohpa;	2·0	W.;w.	tl.
Jāmagaḍ—Ktl.—जामगड ..	..	..	..	263;	63;	148;	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W. o.	Sl. (pr).
Jāmagaḍ—Umr.—जामगड ..	W;	12·0	..	85;	16;	52	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	3·0	W.; n.	tl.
Jāmagāṅv Bk.—Ktl.—जामगांव बु...	W;	13·5	1739·64;	693;	147;	337	Khapa;	2·0	Katol;	14·0	Rohna;	3·0 Sat.	Local;	..	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Jāmagāṅv Kh.—Ktl.—जामगांव खुर्द	W;	10·0	2·35;	215;	51;	118	Bharshingi;	1·0	Kalambha;	7·0	Rohna;	2·0; Sat.	..	3·0	W.; n.	tl.
Jāmbhaḷāpāṇī—Umr.—जांभळापाणी	W;	12·0	..	113;	24;	81	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	4·0	W.;w.	tl.
Jāmaṭhā—Ngp.—जामठा ..	N;	11·0	..	714;	146;	359	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	Ashokvan;	2·0	W;	Sl. (pr); tl.
Jāmburdā—Umr.—जांम्बुर्डा ..	E;	16·0	407·89;	34;	8;	18	Adyal;	1·0	Bhiwapur;	3·0	Bhiwapur;	3·0; Fri.	..	4·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Jamuniā—Rmt.—जमुनिया ..	SW;	22·0	385·04;	80;	15;	48	Deolapar;	10·0	Ramtek;	17·0	Pauni;	6·0; Wed.	Pauni;	6·0	W.;w.	tl.
Jaṅgeśvar—Ngp.—जंगेश्वर ..	S;	21·0	998·33;	71;	13;	35	Borkhedi;	1·0	Borkhedi;	1·0	Bori;	4·0; Tue.	Borkhedi;	0·2	w.	tl.
Jasapur—Ngp.—जसपूर ..	..	..	..	261;	55;	133	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	..
Jāṭalāpūr—Ktl.—जाटलापूर ..	SE;	14·0	1665·32;	85;	19;	42	Sawanga;	0·4	Katol;	21·0	Sawanga;	0·4; Sat.	..	3·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Jāṭalāpūr—Ktl.—जाटलापूर ..	W;	21·0	574·86;	307;	71;	174	Masod;	2·0	Katol;	17·0	Kondhali;	6·4; Wed.	Sawanga;	1·0	rv.Ww	Cs. (gr); tl.
Jaṭāmakhorā—Snr.—जटामखोरा ..	W;	10·0	1441·21;	333;	84;	201	Kelwad;	5·0	Kelwad;	5·0	Kelwad;	5·0; Thu.	Kelwad;	5·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); 2 tl.
Jaṭāmazarī—Ktl.—जटामझरी ..	..	..	..	136;	35;	91	..	..	..	..	..	7·0; ..	..	..	W.	..
Javaḷaboḍi—Umr.—जवळाबोडी ..	E;	12·0	784·57;	336;	72;	219	Bhiwapur;	3·0	Bhiwapur;	3·0	Bhiwapur;	3·0; Fri.	Lodhan;	1·0	w.	4 tl.
Javaḷī—Umr.—जवळी ..	SE;	12·0	1432·00;	927;	186;	447	Local;	..	Kargaon;	6·0	Bhishi;	5·0; Sat.	Karagaon;	7·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs.; 4 tl; gym; dp.
Jayapūr—Ngp.—जयपूर ..	S;	22·0	..	232;	48;	156	Buti Bori;	4·0	Buti Bori;	4·0	Buti Bori;	4·0; Tue.	Bori;	4·2	rv.	Cs; tl.
Jivanāpūr—Umr.—जिवनापूर ..	NE;	24·0	2990·10;	1344;	257;	555	Local;	..	Bhiwapur;	14·0	Local;	.. Sat.	..	8·0	rv.	Sl. (pr); 4 tl; dg; dp.
Jogā—Snr.—जोगा ..	SW;	13·0	2653·12;	360;	85;	328	Nanda-Gomukh;	3·0	Saoner;	13·0	Nanda-Gomukh.	3·0; Sun.	Nanda-Gomukh.	2·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (cr); tl. mq.
Jāḷevāḍī—Ktl.—जाळेवाडी ..	W;	12·0	373·89;	354;	74;	218	Barshingi;	0·4	Katol;	12·0	Jalalkheda;	3·4; Fri.	..	1·0	W.;w.	..
Junāpāṇī—Ktl.—जुनापाणी ..	S;	11·0	826·21;	339;	74;	184	Khursapar;	2·0	Katol;	10·0	Kondhali;	6·0; Wed.	..	1·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Junāpāṇī—Umr.—जुनापाणी ..	W;	21·0	1415·49;	84;	17;	49	Thana;	1·0	Bori;	10·0	Thana;	1·0; Mon.	..	9·0	n.	3 tl.
Junevāṇī—Ngp.—जुनेवाणी ..	SE;	13·0	1089·43;	469;	110;	265	Raipur Hingna;	4·0	Khapri;	9·0	Raipur Hingna;	4·0; Mon.	..	..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Junevāṇī—Ktl.—जुनेवाणी ..	..	..	1085·00;	31;	7;	28	Khapa;	2·0	Katol;	17·0	Lohari Sawanga;	4·4; ..	..	..	..	5 tl.
Junevāṇī—Ktl.—जुनेवाणी ..	W;	3·0	1963·00;	274;	74;	186	Paradshinga;	2·0	Katol;	5·0	Paradshinga;	2·0; Wed.	Kotal;	3·0	W.;w.	tl.

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Junevāṇī—Rmt.—जुनेवाणी ..	N;	24·0	214·51;	160;	34;	80	Deolapar;	3·0	Mansar;	20·0	Deolapar;	3·0;	Tue.	Deolapar;	2·0	w.;	tl.
Junevāṇī—Snr.—जुनेवाणी ..	SW;	9·0	829·10;	215;	53;	120	Umari;	1·0	Saoner;	9·0	Nanda;	4·0;	Sun.	Umari;	2·0	W.;w.	2 tl.
Junī-Kāmaṭī—Rmt.—जुनी-कामटी ..	..	21·0	1727·03;	1356;	264;	505	Kamathi;	1·0	Kamathi;	3·0	Kamathi;	3·0;	Fri.	Kamathi;	3·0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 5 tli; gym.
Junonā—Ktl.—जुनोना ..	N;	10·5	941·88;	424;	92;	189	Sawargaon;	2·0	Narkhed;	11·0	Sawargaon;	2·0;	Mon.	Sawargaon;	1·5	W.;w.	Sl. (pr).; tl.
Junonā—Ktl.—जुनोना ..	NE;	16·0	727·70;	206;	43;	106	Mowad;	1·0	Narkhed;	6·0	Mowad;	1·0;	Sun.	..	..	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (gt); tl.
Junonī—Umr.—जुनोनी ..	N;	6·0	621·15;	91;	20;	59	Umrer;	6·0	Umrer;	6·0	Umrer;	6·0;	Mon.	Umrer;	6·0	W.;w.	..
Kācalkuhī—Umr.—काचलकुही ..	NW;	16·0	389·37;	98;	23;	63	Pipra;	2·0	Umrer;	17·0	Pipra;	2·0;	Thu.	Sonegaav;	12·0	w.	tl.
Kācūravāhī—Rmt.—काचूरवाही ..	E;	6·0	1427·47;	1287;	273;	523	Local;	..	Ramtek;	7·0	Local	..	Mon.	Ramtek;	6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl; gym.
Kaḍabīkheḍa—Rmt.—कडबीखेडा ..	N;	25·0	646·81;	181;	32;	59	Deolapar;	3·0	Deolapar;	3·0	Deolapar;	3·0;	Tue.	..	..	W.	tl.
Kaṭholī—Ngp.—कठोली ..	E;	11·0	1290·49;	518;	108;	351	Dighori;	2·0	Dighori;	2·0	Wadoda;	4·0;	Tue.	Dighori;	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Kājalī—Ngp.—काजळी ..	NW;	34·0	969·05;	105;	27;	63	Kanholibara;	3·0	Butibori;	15·0	Kanholibara;	3·0;	Sun.	..	..	W.	tl.
Kākaḍadarā—Ktl.—काकडदरा ..	W;	17·0	144·27;	20;	8;	16	Ridhora;	1·0	Katol;	4·0	Katol;	4·0;	Tue.	Ridhora;	2·0	W.	tl.
Kāḷabhairava—Rmt.—काळभैरव ..	W;	12·0	1340·19;	144;	36;	71	Navegaon Khairi.	2·0	Mansar;	10·0	..	..	..	..	8·0	W.	3tl.
Kālakuhī—Ngp.—कालकुही ..	S;	7·0	1213·38;	384;	82;	189	Shiwangaon;	3·0	Nagpur;	5·0	Navegaon Khairi;	2·0;	Fri.	..	..	..	..
*Kaḷamanā—Ngp.—कळमना ..	SE;	10·0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	Mahal;	5·0;	Wed.	..	1·4	W.	2tl.
Kaḷamanā—Ngp.—कळमना ..	E;	6·0	769·01;	417;	79;	212	Local;	..	Nagpur;	10·0	Nagpur;	10·0;	Wed.	Nagpur;	10·0	W.;W.	..
Kaḷamaṇā—Umr.—कळमणा ..	W;	4·0	934·84;	318;	63;	199	Bela;	3·0	Borkhedi;	10·0	Bela;	3·0;	Sat. and Sun.	..	..	..	Sl (pr); 5tl.
Kaḷamaṇā—Umr.—कळमणा ..	W;	24·0	934·84;	761;	208;	335	Bela;	3·0	Borkhedi;	10·0	Bela;	3·0;	Sat.	Umrer;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kaḷambhā—Ktl.—कळंभा ..	N;	6·0	1190·44;	786;	188;	380	Yeval;	1·4	Kalambha;	1·4	Katol;	7·0;	Tue.	..	5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kaḷameśvar—Snr.—कळमेश्वर ..	S;	11·5	2915·92;	6744;	1488;	1630	Local;	..	Local;	..	Local	..	Sun.	..	..	rv.; W.	2Sl (2pr); Cs (c); tl; gym; dp.
Kaḷamuṇḍhā—Ktl.—काळमुंडा ..	SE;	12·0	496·25;	77;	19;	52	Metpanjra;	8·0	Metpanjra;	9·4	Mendhepathar;	9·0;	Thu.	Chakdoh;	60	W.	7sl (3pr; 2m; 2h); 10Cs (2Wea; 8 mis), Rath Fr. Ct. Vad. 2,; 12 tl, 4M; mq, 3dg, 5 dp;gym.
Kalāndrī—Umr.—कलांद्री ..	SE;	4·0	1221·40;	160;	32;	92	Borgaon;	1·0	Brahmani;	5·0	Brahmani;	5-0;	Thu.	..	..	W.	tl; 4gym.
																W.	tl.
Kālāpāṭhā—Rmt.—कालापाठा ..	..	..	962·99;	311;	62;	184	Mahati;	1·4	Dumari Kh;	6·0	Parshivai;	..	Mon.	Mahati;	1·4	W.	tl.
Kāḷḍoṅgarī—Ngp.—काळडोंगरी ..	SE;	12·0	1403·60;	252;	53;	169	Salai Godhani;	2·0	Khapri;	5·0	Nagpur;	7·0;	Wed.	Khapri;	5·0	W.	2tl; gym.
Kolār—Ngp.—कोलार ..	S;	20·0	1355·33;	427;	92;	239	Bori;	2·0	Bori;	2·0	Bori;	2·0;	..	..	3·4	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Kāmaṭhī—Ktl.—कामठी ..	S;	16·0	825·31;	302;	72;	175	Masod;	0·4	Katol;	18·0	Kondhali;	6·4;	Wed.	Kondhali;	5·0	W.	Sl, (pr); Cs, (cr); tl.
Kāmaṭhī—Rmt.—कामठी ..	N;	22·0	546·31;	47;	11;	27	Navegaon Khairi;	0·4	Khapa;	10·0	Navegaon Khairi;	0·4;	Fri.	Navegaon Khairi;	0·4	W.	2tl.
Kāmaṭhī—Rmt.—कामठी ..	W;	11·0	641·90;	64;	15;	29	Deolapar;	2·0	..	..	Deolapar;	2·0;	Tue.	..	6·0	W.	tl.
Kāmaṭhī—Snr.—कामठी ..	W;	6·0	3385·08;	2518;	603;	1303	Local;	..	Saoner;	6·0	Local;		Mon.	Saoner;	6·0	W.	3sl, (pr, 2m); 2Cs. (c,mis); 7tl; dg; 2gym; ch; lib.

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Kāmaṭhī—Ngp.—कामठी	.. ..	.. 40859; 7889; 332	Local; ..	.. ..	Local;	Local; ..	..	Mun.
Kāmpṭee Cantonment—Ngp.—कामठी.	.. ..	.. 5784; 990; 81	..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Kucāḷī—Umr.—कुचाळी ..	N; 17·0	1304·13; 517; 92; 306	Titur; 2·0	Titur; 4·0	Titur; 2·0; Mon.	Pachgaon; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl.
Kāndrī—Rmt.—कांद्री	.. ..	1823·01; 3613; 835; 301;	Local; ..	Mansar; 3·0	Mansar; 3·0; Thu.	Mansar; 3·0	W.	5Sl (2pr, 2m, h) 2Cs (2cr); 6tl; ch.
Kāndri—Rmt.—कांद्री ..	S; 15·0	1823·28; 1479; 350; 427	Kanhan; 1·0	Kanhan; 1·0	Kamathi; 4·0; Fri.	Kanhan; 1·0	W.	Sl(pr), 3tl; gym.
Kaṇerī Ḍoṅgar Moh—Umr.—कणेरी डोंगर मोह.	E; 20·0	291·14; 40; 6; 19	Rajola; 1·6	Kuhi; 35·0	Salwa; 4·0; Mon.	Salwa; 4·0	W.	tl.
Kanhāḷagāṅv—Ngp.—कन्हाळगांव ..	.. ..	.. 706; 141; 364	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Kānhādevī—Rmt.—कान्हादेवी ..	S; 14·0	526·91; 97; 18; 71	Kothurna; 3·0	Khapa; 5·0	Kothulna; 3·0; Sat.	Mauda; 4·0	W.;rv.	tl.
Kanhāḷgāṅv—Ngp.—कन्हाळगांव ..	S; 24·0	485·96; 66; 15; 41	Salaigodhani; 2·0	Nagpur; 8·0	Salaigodhani; 2·0; Fri.	Bori; 6·0	W.	2Sl (Pr; m); Cs; tl.
Kanhān—Rmt.—कन्हान ..	.. ..	.. 4003; 905; 285	Local; ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	rv; sl; m.
Kānhavā—Umr.—कान्हवा ..	W; 4·0	1289·62; 377; 77; 224	Shirapur; 1·0	Umrer; 4·0	Umrer; 4·0; Mon.	Umrer; 4·0	W.	2tl.
Kānholī—Ngp.—कान्होली ..	S; 13·0	1089·46; 2998; 662; 1509	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Dongargaon; 4·4	W;	tl.
Kānholī—Ngp.—कान्होली ..	.. ..	432·81; 91; 20; 67	Gumgaon; 2·0	Gumgaon; 2.0	Gumgaon; 2·0; Sun.	.. ..	..	..
Kanyāḍhoḷ—Snr.—कन्याढोळ ..	S; 66·0	1047·27; 550; 118; 312	Pipala; 1·0	Kohali; 6·0	Mohpa; 4·0; Wed.	Mohpa; 3·0	W.	tl.
Kāpasī Kh—Ngp.—कापसी खुर्द ..	E; 8·0	718·30; 542; 122; 235	Pardi; 1·0	Bhandewadi; 1·4	Pardi; 1·0; Sun.	Pardi; 0·4	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Kāpasī Bk—Ngp.—कापसी बु. ..	E; 6·5	.. 778; 180; 323	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4tl,
Kāragāṅv—Umr.—कारगांव ..	SE; 8·0	2564·18; 1314; 304; 635	Local; ..	Bhiwapur; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 2·0; Fri.	Local; 1·4	rv.	3Sl (2pr; m); Cs; 3tl; gym.
Karañjāghāṭ—Snr.—करंजाघाट ..	N; 4·6	671·32; 139; 31; 67	Khapa; 2·0	Khapa; 2·0	Khapa; 2·0; Sun. and Wed.	Khapa; 1·4	W.	tl.
Karambhāṇḍ—Rmt.—करंभांड ..	E; 14·0	3265·07; 1084; 228; 560	Parshivni; 1·4	Khaperkheda; 5·0	Parshivni; 1·4; Mon.	Pipala; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl; lib.
Karāṇḍalā—Umr.—करांडला ..	S; 17·0	2415·83; 305; 67; 193	Umrer; 6·0	Umrer; 6·0	Umrer; 6.0; ..	.. 1·0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Karañjoḷi—Ktl.—करंजोळी ..	W; 12·6	1073·89; 241; 50; 129	Bharsingi; 2·0	Katol; 12·0	Jalalkheda 2·0; Fri.	Jalalkheda; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Kāravāhī—Rmt.—कारवाही ..	.. ..	.. 1061; 209; 573	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Karhāṇḍalā—Umr.—कऱ्हांडला ..	E; 6·0	1527·31; 643; 135; 325	Gothangaon; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 13·0	Gothangaon; 2·0; Wed.	Umrer; 6·0	W.	tl; gym.
Kārlā—Ktl.—कारला ..	N; 4·0	1038·47; 159; 35; 81	Yenwa; ..	Kalambha; 2·0	Katol; 3·6; Tues.	.. ..	W.	Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 2tl.
Kārlī—Snr.—कारली ..	S; 16·0	2289·55; 25; 6; 15	Gondkhairi; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 6·0	Kalameshwar; 6·0; Sun.	Gondkhairi; 1·0	W.	tl.
Khasaramārī—Ngp.—खसरमारी ..	SE; 10·0	684·68 97; 20; 60	Broi 6·0	Gumgaon; 4·0	Gumgaon; 6·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W.	3tl.
Kasorī—Umr.—कसोरी ..	E; 10·0	1746·46; 42; 7; 17	Dongar Mauda; 3·0	Brahmani; 10·0	Dongar Mauda; 3·0; Sat.	Umrer; 10·0	W.	tl.
Kaṭaṅgadarā—Ngp.—कटंगदरा ..	NW; 17·0	166·95; 194; 46; 115	Amgaon; 3·0	Gumgaon; 10·0	Amgaon; 3·0; Thu.	Hingana; 8·0	W.	tl.
Kāṭārā—Umr.—कटारा ..	NE; 11·0	1244·84; 366; 65; 206	Adam; 1·0	Kuhi; 6·0	Mandhal; 3·0; Tue.	.. ..	W.	2tl.
Kāṭalābodī—Ktl.—काटलाबोडी ..	E; 16·0	428·38; 246; 57; 140	Bajargaon; 4·0	Kohali; 9·4	Kondhali; 6·0; Wed.	Bajaragaon; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kathalābodī—Rmt.—कथलाबोडी ..	E; 15·0	643·68; 31; 7; 22	Kojamendhi; 4·0	Rewarala; ..	Kodamendhi; 4·0; Thu.	Ramtek; 15·0	W.	tl.
Kāṭol—Ktl.—काटोल ..	HQ; ..	4173·12; 14581; 3274; 3112	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Tues.	Local; ..	W.;rv.	7Sl (2 pr; M; 4h); Mun; mq; dg; dh; gym; lib; 9dp.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Kaṭol (Heṭī)—Ktl.—काटोल (हेटी)	.. ..	.. 1222; 31; 77	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W.;rv.	10Sl (5pr, 2m, 3h); 4Cs (c, m, 2mis); 20tl; Gal. Fr. Phg. Sud. 11; mq; 10 dg, dh, gym,. lib, 2 dp. tl.
Kaṭṭā—Rmt.—कट्टा ..	N; 19·0	679·01; 285; 53; 67	Deolapar; 1·0	Mansar; 15·0	Deolapar; 1·0; Tue.	Deolapar; 1·0	W.	..
Kavaḍak—Rmt.—कवडक ..	N; 0·2	699·15; 183; 33; 84	Ramtek; .. 1·4	Ramtek; 2·0	Ramtek; 1·4; Sun.	Ramtek; 0·2	W.	tl.
Kavaḍāpar—Umr.—कवडापार ..	NW; 18·0	615·42; 172; 41; 115	Bela; 4·0	Borkhedi; 11·0	Bela; 4·0; Sat.	Butibori; 9·0	W.	2 tl.
Kavaḍas—Ngp.—कवडस ..	NW; 24·0	4013·06; 766; 165; 396	Local; ..	Nagpur; 23·0	Local; .. Thu.	Bajargaon; 8·0	N.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kavaḍasī—Umr.—कवडसी ..	S; 7·0	1604·66; 189; 37; 113	.. ..	Mangrud; 4·0	Umrer; 7·0; ..	Umrer; 6·0	W.	tl.
Kāvadīmeṭ.—Ktl.—कावडीमेट ..	.. ..	.. 85; 16; 55	Kondhali; 5·0	Katol; 18·0	Katol; 6·0; Wed.	Katol; 6·0	W.;w.	tl.
Kavaṭhā—Ngp.—कवठा ..	S; 30·0	841·82; 291; 57; 141	Kamathi; 6·0	Koradi; 3·0	Kamathi; 6·0; Fri.	Koradi; 3·0	W.	tl.
Kavaṭhā—Ngp.—कवठा ..	.. 6·0	1398·03; 146; 30; 84	Sindi; 3·0	Sindi; 3·0	Sindi 3·0; Thu.	.. 3·0	N.	2 tl.
Kavaṭhā—Snr.—कवठा ..	NW; 17·0	1948·48; 217; 52; 132	Kelwad; 2·0	Kelwad; 2·0	Kelwad; 2·0; Thu.	Kelwad; 2·0	W.;w.	tl.
Kedārpūr—Ktl.—केदारपूर ..	S; 6·0	1440·66; 138; 30; 77	Ladgaon; 1·0	Katol; 5·0	Katol; 5·0; Tue.	Katol; 6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kelod—Snr.—केलोद ..	N; 5·4	1666·63; 5080; 1186; 1804	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Thu.	Local, ..	W.;w.	4 Sl (2 pr; m, h); pyt; 2 Cs (cr, mp); Laxmi Fr. Krt. Sud. 5; 7 tl; M; mq; 5 dg; dh; 4 gym; lib; 3 dp; Kapileshwar temple; old fort.
Kem.—Ngp.—केम ..	E; 14·0	1256·88; 440; 115; 317	Dighori; 1·4	Dighori; 1·4	Nagpur; 10·0; All days.	Dighori; 3·4	W.	Cs; 5 tl.
Keraḍī—Rmt.—केरडी ..	S; 0·9	1522·74; 532; 117; 287	Nagardhan; 4·0	Dumari; 1·0	Ramtek; 8·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Keragondī—Ngp.—केरगोंदी ..	NW; 35·0	779·97; 91; 28; 43	Adegaon; 3·0	Nagpur; 38·0	Adegaon; 3·0; Sat.	.. 15·0	W.;n.	tl.
Kesalāpūr—Umr.—केसलापूर ..	SE; 17·0	788·80; 214; 42; 125	Sirsi; 2·0	Borkhedi; 18·0	Sirsi; 2·0 Wed.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kesorī—Ngp.—केसोरी ..	E; 20·0	.. 447; 98; 271	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kesorī—Umr.—केसोरी ..	NW; 16·0	1132·47; 218 44; 125	Channa; 2·0	Kuhi; 12·0	Weltur; 4·0; Fri.	Brahamani; 1·0	W.;w.	tl.
Ketāpār—Snr.—केतापार ..	SW; 18·0	921·23; 232; 44; 121	Kalameshwar; 4·0	Kalameshwar; 4·0	Kalameshwar; 4·0;	Kalameshwar; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khaḍagāṅv—Ngp.—खडगांव ..	W; 11·0	1241·31; 548; 112; 304	Kalameshwar; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0; ..	Kalameshwar; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khaḍakā—Ngp.—खडका ..	S; 11·0	.. 308; 64; 194	Buti Bori; 16·0	Gumgaon; 5·0	Gumgaon; 2·0; Sun.	.. ..	W.;rv.	tl.
Khaḍakī—Ngp.—खडकी ..	W; 25·0	.. 163; 42; 109	Raipur Hingna; 3·0	Khapri; 3·0	Raipur Hingna; 3·0; Mon.	Sawangi; 5·0	W.	tl.
Khaḍakī—Ktl.—खडकी ..	W; 16·0	918·17; 158; 42; 94	Jalalkheda; 1·0	Katol; 16·0	Jalalkheda; 1·0; Mon. Fri.	Jalalkheda; 1·0	W.	2 tl; dg.
Khadakī—खडकी ..	.. ..	.. 107; 22; 70	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Khairagāṅv—Ktl.—खैरगांव ..	NE; 18·0	1078·66; 3033; 665; 517	Local; ..	Narkhed; 7·0	Mowad; 1·0 Wed.	Mowad; 2·0	W. w.;	4 Sl (2 pr, 2 m); Cs (cr); 6 tl. M; mq; dg; Ch; lib; dp.
Khairalāñjī—Umr.—खैरलांजी ..	NE; 18·0	839·41; 408; 77; 243	Channa; 3·0	Brahmani; 12·0	Weltur; 4·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	tl.
Khairagāṅv—Umr.—खैरगांव ..	SE; 9·0	803·02; 316; 73; 208	Kargaon; 2·0	Local; ..	Bhiwapur; 10·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.;rv.	tl; dg.
Khairī—Ktl.—खैरी ..	S; 14·0	885·71; 146; 33; 83	Zilya; 2·0	Katol; 7·0	Zilya; 2·0; Fri.	Kondhali; 5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khairī—Ngp.—खैरी ..	NW; 31·0	1551·39; 203; 45; 128	Takalghat; 3·0	Bori; 7·0	Takalghat; 3·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.	tl.
Khairī—Rmt.—खैरी ..	NW; 3·0	.. 1339· 332; 65	Local; ..	Khapa; 10·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khairī—Snr.—खैरी ..	SE; 11·0	1251·39; 40; 11; 28	Kohali; 2·0	Kohali; 2·0	Kohali; 2·0; Fri.	Kohali 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khairī—Umr. खैरी ..	N; 11·0	436·53; 2; 1; 2	Medha; 0·4	Bhiwapur; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 3·4; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 5·0	W.	gym.
Khairī—Umr. खैरी ..	E; 14·0	412·77; 28; 10; 19	Thana; 1·0	Buti Bori; 7·0	Thana; 1·0; Mon.	Buti Bori; 7·0	W.	tl.
Khairī—Umr. खैरी ..	.. ..	3·3; 146; 30; 90	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Khairī—Umr. खैरी ..	W; 23·0	436·53; 140; 25; 80	Medha; 0·4	Bhiwapur; 3·4	Bhiwapur; 3·4; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 5·0	W.	tl.
Khairī Bk.—Ktl.—खैरी बु. ..	NE; 7·5	754·67; 387; 85; 238	Kondhali; 3·0	Katol; 7·4	Kondhali; 3·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 3·5	W.; w.	tl.
Khairī (Pannāse)—Ngp.—खैरी पन्नासे ..	NW; 12·0	.. 310; 63; 192	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.; rv.	Sl (pı); 2 Cs.; tl.
Khairī Bk.—Ngp.—खैरी बु. ..	NW; 13·0	1550·21; 880; 199; 476	Waddhamana; 2·0	Khapri; 9·0	Raipur Hingna; 3·0; Mon.	.. ..	W.; w.	tl.
Khairī Bk.—Ngp.—खैरी बु. ..	SE; 22·0	813·30; 64; 22; 47	Dhamna; 3·0	Nagpur; 21·0	Bajargaon; 3·0; Mon.	Satanavari; 2·0	W.	tl.
Khairī Dhālagāṅv—Snr.—खैरी ढाळगांव	N; 6·0	1880·00; 1053; 248; 597	Local; ..	Kelwad; 5·0	Kelwad; 5·0; Thu.	Kelwad; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 2 tl.
Khairī Hārajī—Snr.—खैरी हारजी ..	S; 14·0	1331·72; 407; 100; 229	Uparvahi; 0·4	Kalameshwar; 5·0	Uparvahi; 0·4; Thu.	.. ..	rv.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Khairī Kh.—Ngp.—खैरी खुर्द ..	S; 22·0	1275·25; 16; 5; 12	Salaidabha; 2·0	Bori; 5·0	Bori; 4·0; ..	Sawangi; 3·0	rv.; w.	Co-operative Bank; 2 tl.
Khairī—Ngp.—खैरी ..	N; 7·0	1199·14; 90; 108; 209	Kamathi; 3·0	Kamathi; 3·0	Kamathi; 3·0; Fri.	.. 1·0	W.;n.	Sl (pı); tl.
Khairī Lakbamājī—Snr. खैरी लखमाजी	S; 12·0	839·13; 321; 68; 171	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 4·0	Kalameshwar; 4·0; Sun.	Kalameshwar; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 2 tl; M.
Khairī (Puñjābarāv)—Snr. खैरी पंजाबराव ..	NE; 8·0	564·11; 404; 410; 170	Kothulna; 2·0	Khapa; 3·0	Khapa; 3·0; Sun.& Wed.	Khapa; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pı); tl.
Khalānagondrī—Ktl.—खलानगोन्द्री ..	W; 29·0	827·76; 98; 21; 67	Ambada; 4·0	Narkhed; 25·0	Tara Sawanga; 2·0; ..	.. ..	W.; w.	3 tl.
Khalāsanā—Umr.—खलासना ..	N; 20·0	2342·00; 309; 59; 175	Kalamna; 2·0	Dighori; 3·0	Nagpur; 10·0; ..	Kalamna; 2·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
*Khāmalī—Ngp.—खामली ..	..	.. ..	Local; ..	Ajani; 2·0	Sitabardi; 3·0; ..	Local ..	W.	6 Sl (3 pr; 2 m; h); 3 tl; 4dp.
Khāmalī—Ktl.—खामली ..	N; 7·5	1176·38; 349; 86; 228	Sonoli; 1·0	Katol; 8·0	Sawargaon; 2·0; Mon.	Sawargaon; 2·0	W.; w.	Sl (pı); tl.
Khānagāṅv—Ktl.—खानगांव ..	W; 3·0	1110·67; 697; 163; 378	Katol; 2·0	Katol; 2·0	Katol; 2·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Khānagaṅv—Snr.—खानगांव ..	N; 2·5	995·64; 112; 26; 58	Dhapewada; 3·0	Kalmeshwar; 9·0	Dhapewada; 3·0; Tue.	Saoner; 2·5	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; 3 M.
Khānagāṅv—Snr.—खानगांव ..	S; 6·0	1196·35; 721; 211; 404	Local; ..	Saoner; 3·0	Saoner; 3·0; Fri.	Saoner; 6·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Khānavāḍī—Ktl.—खानवाडी ..	S; 3·4	153·05; 14; 3; ..	Katol; 2·4	Katol; 2·4	Katol; 2·4; Tue.	Katol; 2·4	..	..
Khaṅḍālā—Ngp.—खंडाला ..	NW; 10·0	1150·45; 427; 95; 248	Walani; 0·4	Bharatwada; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 4·0; ..	Bharatwada; 3·0	W.	Sl (pı); 2 tl.
Khaṇḍalā—Ktl.—खंडाला ..	.. ..	.. 722; 166; 400	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Khaṅḍālā—Rmt.—खंडाला ..	S; 12·0	1730·86; 532; 109; 289	Local; ..	Dumari Kh.; 1·4	Mansar; 5·0; Thu.	Kanhan; 6·0	W.	Cs; tl; gym.
Khaṇḍālā—Rmt.—खंडाला ..	SW; 19·0	1379·00; 248; 52; 141	Rewarala; 2·0	Rewarala; 2·0	Dhanala; 3·0; Sun.	.. 5·0	W.	3 tl.; ch.
Khaṇḍālā—Rmt.—खंडाला ..	SE; 9·0	1217·59; 574; 127; 281	Dahegaon; 2·0	Khaperkheda; 4·0	Dahegaon; 2·0; Thu.	Ramtek; 9·0	W.	tl.
Khaṇḍālā—Rmt.—खंडाला ..	S; 14·0	1680·66, 693; 144; 310	Kanhan; 2·0	Kanhan; 2·0	Kamathi; 4·0; Fri.	Kanhan; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 6 tl.
Khaṇḍāla—Rmt.—खंडाला ..	SE; 17·0	1034·00; 322; 69; 209	Areli; 1·4	Tharsa; 7·4	Aroli; 1·4; Tue.	Rewarala; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Khaṇḍālā—Ktl.—खंडाला ..	SW; 2·0	1405·37; 444; 95; 269	Dorli; 1·4	Kalambha; 4·0	Narkhed; 5·0; Sat.	Katol; 2·0	W.; w.	Sl (pı); Cs (cr); tl.
Khaṇḍālā—Bk.—Rmt.—खंडाला बु. ..	E; 7·0	.. 128; 31; 77	Kachurwahi; 0·4	Ramtek; 6·0	Kachurwahi; 0·4; Mon.	.. 2·0	W.	Cs (cr); tl; mq.
Khaṇḍāla Kh.—Rmt.—खंडाळा खुर्द ..	SE; 6·0	.. 222; 53; 108	Kachurwahi; 1·0	Tharsa; 6·0	Panchala; 4·0; Wed.	Ramtek; 6·0	W.	2 tl.
Khaṇḍājharī—Umr.—खंडाळझरी ..	S; 12·0	2282·71; 112; 26; 72	Besur; 2·0	Umrer; 12·0	Besur; 2·0; Fri.	Besur; 2·0	W.	tl.
Khānorā—Rmt.—खानोरा ..	N; 25·0	1505·80; 365; 62; 186	Hiwara; 1·0	Ramtek; 20·0	Hiwara; 1·0; Mon.	Deolapar; 6·0	W.	tl.; ch.
Khāpā—Ngp.—खापा ..	.. ..	.. 603; 132; 334	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl. (pr).
Khāpā—Ngp.—खापा ..	NW; 34·0	582·62; 91; 16; 40	Adegaon; 2·0	Nagpur; 31·0	Adegaon; 2·0; Sat.	.. 14·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khāpā—Ngp.—खापा ..	NW; 11·0	529·48; 37; 7; 19	Adegaon; 3·0	Nagpur; 30·0	Adegaon; 3·0; Sat.	.. 0·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Jhadbaji buva Fr. Ct. Vad. 4, 5; 4tl; ch.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office ; Distance (4)	Railway Station ; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khāpā—Rmt.—खापा ..	N; 21·0	687·37; 166, 29; 73	Deolapar; 6·0	Ramtek; 20·0	Deolapar; 6·0; Tue.	Deolapar; 6·0	W.	2tl.
Khāpā—Snr.—खापा ..	SW; 15·0	650·32; 485; 112; 249	Mangsa; 2·0	Saoner; 6·0	Saoner; 6·0; Fri.	Saoner; 6·0	W.;w.	tl.
Khāpā (Peṭh)—Snr.—खापा (पेठ)	NE; 5·4	1405·93; 9536; 1883; 1044	Local;	Local; ..	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	rv.;W.	10Sl. (6pr., 2m., 2h); Cs. (cr); 16tl; 7M.,mq.,6gym. 2lib, 6dp.
Khāpā—Ktl.—खापा ..	SE; 21·0	1562·66; 129; 28; 76	Masod; 4·4	Katol; 20·0	Kondhali; 9·0; Wed.	Kondhali, 10·0	rv.;W.	tl.
Khāpā—Ktl.—खापा ..	S; 7·0	1146·74; 973; 218; 572	Local; ..	Katol; 15·0	Lohgaon Sawanga; 4·0; Sat.	Kondhali; 3·0	W.;w.	Cs. (gr.); tl.
Khāpā Bk—Ktl.—खापा बु. ..	W; 15·0	1176·06; 89; 23; 55	Khursapar; 4·0	Katol; 8·0	Katol; 8·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.;w.	Sl. (m); Cs (c); 2tl.
Khāparakheḍā—Ngp.—खापरखेडा	N; 10·0	513·56; 169; 35; 75	Koradi; 1·0	Koradi; 1·0	Nagpur; 5·0; All days.	.. 2·0	W.;rv.	2tl.
Khāparakheḍā—Rmt.—खापरखेडा	SE; 13·0	1013·32; 34; 8; 19	Kodamendhi; 4·0	Rewarala; ..	Kodamendhi; 4·0; Thu.	Ramtek; 13·0	W.	tl.
Khāparkheḍā—Rmt.—खापरखेडा	S; 11·0	474·25; 96; 24; 65	Nimkheda; 1·4	Tharsa; 1·4	Nimkheda; 1·4; Sun.	Ramtek; 11·0	W.;w.	tl.
Khāparkheḍā—Rmt.—खापरखेडा	E; 14·0	1787·92; 138; 40; 78	Aroli; 3·0	Tharsa; 3·0	Aroli; 3·0; ..	Ramtek; 14·0	W.	tl.
Khāparī—Ktl.—खापरी ..	W; 6·0	.. 797; 172; 447	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Paradsinga; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr.); tl.; dg.
Khāparī—Ktl.—खापरी ..	NE; 14·0	1415·45; 517; 130; 298	Khursapar; 3·0	Katol; 17·0	Kondhali; 6·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 6·0	W.;w.	Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 2tl; white clay-mines.
Khāparī—Ktl.—खापरी ..	S; 9·4	9085·19; 94; 24; 57	Pipala; 2·0	Narkhed; 2·0	Pipala; 2·0; ..	Local; ..	W.;w.	2tl.; dg.
Khāparī—Ngp.—खापरी ..	NW; 22·0	987·00; 421; 92; 259	Takalghat; 2·0	Buti Bori; 4·0	Takalghat; 2·0; Sat.	Takalghat; 4·0	rv.;w.	Cs.; tl.
Khāparī—Ngp.—खापरी ..	W; 24·0	637·26; 48; 12; 25	Adgaon; 2·0	Nagpur; 33·0	Adgaon; 2·0; Sat.	Junapani; 2·0	W.	Sl. (pr.); Cs.; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl.
Khāparī—Ngp.—खापरी ..	S; 8·0	807·47; 158; 34; 96	Buti Bori; 3·0	Buti Bori; 3·0	Buti Bori; 3·0; Tue.	Parsodi; 3·0	W.	Sl. (pr.); 5tl.; 2dg.; 2gym.
Khāparī—Ngp.—खापरी ..	NW; 33·0	1228·33; 771; 152; 312	Local; ..	Local; ..	Nagpur; 7·0; Mon.	.. 15·0	W.	3tl.
Khāparī—Ngp.—खापरी ..	S; 21·0	503·70; 324; 76; 184	Bajargaon; 1·0	Nagpur; 22·0	Bajargaon; 1·0; ..	Bori; 4·0	W.	Cs.; tl.
Khāparī—Snr.—खापरी ..	S; 19·0	1002·68; 274; 60; 165	Uparvahi; 2·0	Kalmeshwar; 7·0	Kalmeshwar; 7·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W.; w.	tl.
Khāparī—Snr.—खापरी ..	S; 13·0	808·87; 77; 19; 59	Gondkhairi; 2·4	Kalameshwar; 5·0	Kalameshwar; 5·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Cs. (c.); tl.
Khāparī—Umr.—खापरी ..	NW; 13·0	857·70; 133; 24; 82	Pachagaon; 2·0	Pachagaon; 2·0	Chanpa; 3·0; Sat.	Chanpa; 3·0	W.	tl.
Khāparī—Umr.—खापरी ..	.. ..	1165·47; 252; 61; 157	Nand; 2·4	Umrer; 16·0	Nand; 2·4; Sun.	Nand; 2·4	W.;w.	tl.
Khāparī—Umr.—खापरी ..	S; 18·0	869·00; 277; 62; 159	Chanpa; 3·0	Nagpur; 15·0	Chanpa; 3·0; Sat.	Umrer; 18·0	W.	tl.
Khāparī—Umr.—खापरी ..	W; 14·0	231·05; 71; 15; 43	.. 1·0	Umrer; 14·0	Makardhokda; 5·0; Fri.	.. 6·0	W.	tl.
Khāparī Kh.—Ktl.—खापरी खुर्द	SW; 5·0	724·24; 48; 12; 29	Ridhora; 0·4	Katol; 6·0	Katol; 6·0; Tue.	Linga; 1·0	rv.;W.	
Khāraboḍī—Ktl.—खारबोडी ..	E; 17·0	958·88; 497; 107; 300	Local; ..	Katol; 18·0	Jalalkheda; 3·0; Fri.	Jalalkheda; 3·0	rv.;W.	Sl. (pr.); Cs.(c); tl.; lib.
Kharabī—Ngp.—खरबी ..	.. ..	.. 255; 55; 154	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Dighori Kh.; 0·6	W.	..
Kharabī—Rmt.—खरबी ..	NW; 24·0	1531·76; 888; 166, 345	Shahapur; 3·0	Khat; 8·0	Shahapur; 3·0; Tue.	Local; ..	w.	Sl. (pr.); 5tl.; gym.
Kharabī—Umr.—खरबी ..	NE; 20·0	1299·21; 513; 102; 287	Salwa; 2·0	Kuhi; 6·0	Salwa; 2·0; Mon.	Kuhi; 5·0	w.; t.	2tl.; gym.
Kharaḍā—Rmt.—खरडा ..	SE; 12·0	949·57; 326, 56, 195	Indora; 2·0	Rewarala; 2·0	Kodamendhi; 5·0; Thu.	Ramtek; 12·0	w.	Sl. (pr.); 2tl.
Kharāḍā—Umr.—खराडा ..	NE; 25·0	978·45; 762; 149; 442	Jiwanapur; 1·4	Bhivapur; 15·4	Jiwanapur; 1·4; Sat.	.. ..	..	Sl. (pr.); 2tl.
Kharāḍī—Rmt.—खराडी ..	S; 24·0	.. 309; 55; 160	Govari; 2·0	Khat; 10·0	Govari; 2·0; Sat.	Khasbi; 1·0	w.; t.	2tl.
Kharaḍukā—Snr.—खरडुका ..	.. ..	285·16; 270; 59; 153	Wadegaon; 7·0	Kelwad; 5·0	Kelwad; 5·0; Thu.	Kelwad; 5·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr.); tl.; Ch.

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Khārakaḍā—Umr.—खारकडा ..	..	.. 96; 24; 68;	.. ..	.. ..		.. ..	w.	tl.
Kharāḷā—Ktl.—खराळा ..	W; 23·0	1038·47; 544; 109; 291	Katol; 1·0	Katol; 1·0	Katol; 1·0; Tue.	Sawanga; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr.); Cs. (c.); tl.
Kharapāḍā—Rmt.—खरपाडा ..	N; 13·0	611·60; 239; 53; 158	Pauni; 2·0	Mansar; 13·0	Pauni; 2·0; ..	Pauni; 2·0	w.	tl.
Kharāśī—Ktl.—खराशी ..	W; 25·0	898·76; 155; 33; 79	Sawanga; 3·0	Katol; 21·0	Sawanga; 3·0; Sat.	.. 2·0	W.;w.	..
Kharasolī—Ktl.—खरसोली ..	NW; 15·0	2517·15; 1629; 356; 841	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Sat.	Narkhed; 3·0	W.;w.	2Sl (pr., m.); 3Cs. (c., 2mis); 6tl; 2dg; gym; Shankar Temple.
Kharasolī—Ngp.—खरसोली ..	S; 10·0	.. 304; 58; 198	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 5·0	W.	Sl. (pr.); Cs. (cr.); tl.
Kharaḍā—Ngp.—खरडा ..	S; 25·0	.. 31; 8; 24	Indora; 3·0	Koradi; 3·0	.. .. ..	Sonegaon; 2·0	W.	..
Khasāḷā—Ngp.—खसाळा ..	NW; 6·0	732·36; 413; 80; 224	.. .	Local; ..	Nagpur; 4·0; Sun. & Wed.	.. 2·0	W.;w.	2tl.; 2dg.
Khāt—Rmt.—खात ..	E; 18·0	1990·73; 1954; 432; 620	Local; ..	.. ..	Local; .. Wed.	Khairbi; 8·0	W.	3Sl. (pr., m., h.); Cs (c); 4tl; 2 lib; dp.
Khātakheḍā—Umr.—खातखेडा ..	NW; 16·0	1150·10; 204; 54; 128	Nand; 1·0	Umrer; 17·0	Nand; 1·0; Sun.	Umrer; 16·0	W.;w.	tl.
Khasāramārī—Ngp.—खसारमारी	S; 14·0	.. 97; 20; 60	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Dhongargaon; 4·0	W.	..
Khātamārī—Ngp.—खातमारी ..	SE; 10·4	868·24; 7; 2; 5	Bori; 6·0	Gumgaon; 4·0	Gumgaon; 6·0; Sun.	.. 3·0	w.	2tl.
Kheḍī—Ngp.—खेडी ..	SE; 10·0	1692·87; 383; 91; 247	Dighori; 4·0	Dighori; 4·0	Nagpur; 7·0; All days.	Pardi; 3·4	w.	2tl.
Kheḍī—Rmt.—खेडी ..	S; 9·0	2538·93; 620; 136; 352	Salwa; 2·0	Salwa; 2·0	Kamathi; 6·0; Fri.	Ramtek; 9·0	w.	Sl. (pr.); Cs.; 3tl.; 2gym.
Kheḍī—Snr.—खेडी ..	NE; 4·4	490·18; 101; 24; 29	Kodegavhan; 1·4	Khapa; 2·0	Khapa; 2·0; Sun. & Wed.	Khapa; 1·4	rv.; n; w.	tl.
Kheḍī Govāragondī—Ktl.—खेडी गोवारगोंदी.	N; 12·0	2998·95; 680; 168; 392	Sawargaon; 3·0	Narkhed; 12·0	Sawargaon; 3·0; Mon.	.. 4·0	w.	Sl. (pr.); Cs. (c.); tl.
Kheḍī Khurd—Ktl.—खेडी खुर्द ..	E; 18·0	972·89; 272; 51; 157	Kharvadi; 1·0	Katol; 21·0	Thadipauni; 2·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	rv.;w.	Sl. (pr.); Cs.(c.); tl.
Kheḍī Kuryāt—Ktl.—खेडी कुर्यात	N; 10·0	1073·34; 492; 109; 208	Narkhed; 3·0	Narkhed; 3·0	Narkhed; 3·0; ..	Narkhed; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr.); Cs. (cr.); tl.
Kheṇḍā—Umr.—खेंडा ..	E; 1·0	.. 380; 81; 209	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Umrer; 1·0	w.	tl.
Kheṇḍī—Umr.—खेंडी ..	E; 18·0	1391·70; 6; 3; 6	Umrer; 2·0	Umrer; 2·0	Umrer; 2·0; ..	.. 10·0	w.; n.	tl.
Khetapūr—Umr.—खेतपूर ..	NW; 10·0	.. 154; 33; 121	Dodma; 4·0	Malani; 5·0	Borgaon; 3·0; Tue.	Sasegaon; 4·0	W.;w.	tl; M.
Khiḍakī—Rmt.—खिडकी ..	N; 22·0	672·42; 116; 21; 71	Indora; 3·0	Rewarala; 7·0	Kodamendhi; 5·0; Thu.	Deolapar; 2·0	W.	tl.
Khiḍakī—Rmt.—खिडकी ..	E; 18·0	481·39; 232; 42; 110	Deolapur; 2·0	Mansar; 17·0	Deolapar; 2·0; Tue.	Ramtek; 18·0	w.	tl.
Khobnā—Umr.—खोबना ..	NE; 18·0	1318·33; 317; 60; 175	Salwa; 3·0	Kuhi; 6·0	Kuhi; 5·0; Wed.	Mauda; 11·0	w.	tl.
Khoḍagāṅv—Rmt.—खोडगांव ..	SE; 7·0	843·82; 317; 65; 175	Dadhachur-vahi; 0·4	Ramtek; 7·0	Dudhachur-vahi; 0·4; Mon.	Ramtek; 7·0	w.	Cs; 2 tl.
Khokarālā—Umr.—खोकराला ..	NE; 23·0	.. 525; 99; 333	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 9·0	W.;w.	tl.
Kholdodā—Umr.—खोलदोदा ..	.. ..	.. 258; 48; 147	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Khopaḍī—Rmt.—खोपडी ..	S; 9·0	.. 228; 50; 124	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Ramtek; 9·0	W.	gym.
Khubāḷā—Snr.—खुबाळा ..	NE; 10·0	2761·55; 1104; 287; 675	Local; ..	Khapa; 4·0	Khapa; 4·0; Sun. & Wed.	Khapa; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; dp (vet.).
Khumārī—Rmt.—खुमारी ..	.. 5·0	2067·67; 723; 187; 246	Borda; 2·0	Ramtek; 5·0	Mansar; 3·0; Thu.	Mansar; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.

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Khumārī—Snr.—खुमारी ..	S; 8·0	1587·02; 1061; 250; 639	Mohpa; 1·4	Kohli; 5·4	Mohpa; 1·4; Wed.	Mohpa; 1·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 3 Cs (3 mis); 2 tl; M; Ch.
Khurajagāṅv—Snr. खुरजगांव ..	N; 2·0	1275·55; 770; 202; 299	Mangsa; 2·0	Saoner; 3·0	Saoner; 3·0; Fri.	Saoner; 2·0	n.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; M.
Khurasāpār—Ktl. खुरसापार ..	S; 9·0	1610·09; 1012; 235; 577	Local; ..	Katol; 8·0	Kondhali; 4·0; Wed.	.. 0·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Khursāpār—Rmt. खुर्सापार ..	N; 30·0	203·05; 100; 17; 51	Karvahi; 6·0	.. ..	Khawasa; 6·0; Wed.	.. 8·0	w.	tl.
Khursāpāi—Snr.—खुर्सापार ..	.. 14·0	1659·00; 340; 78; 184	Nand; 5·0	Saoner; 14·0	Nand; 5·0; Sun.	Nand; 5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Khurasāpār—Snr.—खुर्सापार ..	W; 14·0	1671·46; 10; 5; 2	Katol; ..	Kohli; 6·0	Mohpa; .. Wed.	Mohpa; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; mq.
Khurasāpār—Umr.—खुर्सापार ..	.. ..	.. 198; 47; 121	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Khursāpār—Umr.—खुर्सापार ..	NE; 26·0	1087·39; 192; 42; 126	Bela; 4·0	Borkhedi; 11·0	Bela; 4·0; Sat.	.. 10·0	w.	tl.; gym.
Khursāpār—Umr.—खुर्सापार ..	NW; 18·0	830·60; 405, 91; 245	Shirpur; 2·0	Umrer; 7·0	Umrer; 7·0; Mon.	Butibori; 9·0	w.	2 tl.
Khuśālāpūr—Ktl. खुशालापूर ..	W; 11·0	309·00; 95; 11; 52	Bhisnur; 0·3	Katambha; 4·0	Rohna; 2·0; Sat.	Bela; 3·0	W.;w.	tl.
Khuṭakhairī—Ktl. खुटखैरी ..	N; 15·0	670·44; 28; 5; 24	Sindi; 3·0	Narkhed; 13·0	Sawargaon; 3·0; Mon.	.. 7·0	..	tl.
Khuṭāmbā—Ktl.—खुटांबा ..	S; 3·0	1188·17; 417; 113; 237	Ladgaon; 1·4	Katol; 4·0	Katol; 4·0; Tue.	Ridhora; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kinakīdhoḍā—Ktl.—किनकीघोडा ..	.. ..	484·09; 73; 19; 50	Masodi; 3·4	Katol; 21·0	Kondhali; 7·0; Wed.	Masod; 3·4	..	..
Kinhāḷā—Umr.—किन्हाळा ..	.. ..	.. 627; 145; 399	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Kinhāḷā—Umr.—किन्हाळा ..	SW; 15·0	622·58; 92; 20; 41	Ridhora; 3·0	Butibori; 5·0	Butibori; 5·0; ..	Umrer; 15·0	rv.	Sl (pr); 4 tl.
Kinhāḷā—Umr.—किन्हाळा ..	E; 12·0	622·43; 350; 84; 227	Ridhora; 4·0	Bori; 11·0	Bela; 8·0 ..	.. 1·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kinhāḷā—Umr.—किन्हाळा ..	NW; 23·0	413·50; 226; 78; 129	Chargaon; 3·0	Chargaon; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 5·0; Fri.	Borkhedi; 6·0	w.	2 tl.
Kinhāḷamākaḍī—Ngp.—किन्हाळ-माकडी	S; 23·0	1696·76; 377; 86; 227	Ridhora; 2·0	Borkhedi; 3·0	Butibori; 5·0; Tue.	Bori; 5·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kinhī—Ngp.—किन्ही ..	S; 20·0	938·42; 481; 96; 272	Raipur Hingna; 2·0	Khapri; 8·0	Raipur Hingna 2·0; Mon.	Bori; 1·4	w.;rv.	tl.
Kinhī—Ngp.—किन्ही ..	NW; 23·0	775·68; 84; 15; 31	Vyahad; 1·0	Kalmeshwar; 8·0	Vyahad; 1·0; Tue.	Sawangi; 7·0	w.	tl.
Kinhī—Ngp.—किन्ही ..	W; 16·0	607·45; 74; 20; 49	Bori; 3·0	Bori; 3·0	Bori; 3·0; Tue.	Kinhi; 2·0	w.	2 tl.
Kinhī—Ngp.—किन्ही ..	W; 17·0	560·86; 92; 18; 55	Kanholiwara; 3·0	Borkhedi; 8·0	Kanholiwara; 3·0; ..	.. 8·0	W.	tl.
Kinhī—Umr.—किन्ही ..	NE; 14·0	1475·88; 510; 92; 291	Pachkhedi; 2·0	Brahmani; 10·0	Mandhal; 3·0; Tue.	Umrer; 14·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kinhikalā—Umr.—किन्हिकला ..	N; 16·0	656·00; 384; 74; 237	Adyal; 1·4	Bhiwapur; 6·0	Bhiwapur; 6·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 6·0	w.;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kinhī—Ngp.—किन्ही ..	S; 12·0	.. 44; 10; 25	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Kinhī Kh.—Umr.—किन्ही खुर्द ..	E; 16·0	372·14; 332; 65; 188	Adyal; 1·0	Bhiwapur; 5·0	Bhiwapur; 5·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 5·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Kiramiṭī—Ngp.—किरमिटी ..	NW; 12·0	1048·54; 71; 12; 40	Gumgaon; 2·0	Gumgaon; 4·0	Gumgaon; 2·0; Sun.	Dongargaon; 5·0	w.	tl.
Kiramiṭī—Ngp.—किरमिटी ..	S; 18·0	764·38; 306; 73; 166	Bori; 4·0	Bori; 4·0	Bori; 4·0; ..	Bori; 3·0	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kiraṇāpūr—Ngp.—किरणापूर ..	.. ..	.. 186; 36; 105	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 3·0	W.	Cs (c); tl.
Kiraṇāpūr—Rmt.—किरणापूर ..	E; 13·0	.. 518; 108; 228	.. 5·0	Rewarala; 10·0	Kodamendhi; 5·0; Thu.	Ramtek; 13·0	w.	tl.
Kiraṇāpūr—Rmt.—किरणापूर ..	S; 19·0	1016·52; 423; 98; 219	Dadhachur-wahi; 1·0	Ramtek; 8·0	Dadhachur-wahi; 1·0; Mon.	Mauda; 5·0	w.;rv.	tl; dg; gym.
Kiraṇāpūr[2]—Rmt.—किरणापूर ..	SE; 8·0	.. 160; 30; 84	.. 5·0	Rewarala; 10·0	Kodamendhi; 5·0; Thu.	Ramtek; 8·0	w.	3 tl.
Kiraṇāpūr—Snr.—किरणापूर ..	W; 11·0	619·45; 964; 213; 153	Kothulna; 2·0	Khapa; 4·0	Kothulna; 2·0; Sat.	Khapa; 4·0	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kiraṅgī Sarrā—Rmt.—किरंगी सर्रा ..	.. ..	.. 41; 11; 21	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Kitāḍī—Umr.—किटाडी ..	.. ..	.. 57; 9; 37	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.;n.	..
Kocī—Snr.—कोची ..	S; 10·0	1342·74; 833; 190; 315	Wadegaon; 2·0	Khapa; 4·0	Khapa; 4·0; Sun. and Wed.	Khapa; 3·0	rv.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; gym.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Kodādoṅgarī—Snr.—कोदाडोंगरी ..	.. ..	.. 4; 1; 3	.. ..	Brahmani; 3·0	Brahmani; 3·0; ..	.. 5·0	w.;t.	2 tl.
Kodāmeṇḍhī—Rmt.—कोदामेंढी ..	SE; 12·0	1842·26; 1917; 391; 442	Local; ..	Rewarala; 5·0	Local; .. Thu.	Ramtek; 12·0	w.	2Sl (pr; m); mq; 3 gym; dp.
Kodegavhāṇ—Snr.—कोदेगव्हाण ..	NE; 4·4	1971·13; 719; 164; 311	Local; ..	Khapa; 2·0	Khapa; 2·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Kohaḷā—Ktl.—कोहळा ..	E; 7·4	898·78; 372; 94; 181	Metpanjra; 2·0	Metpanjra; 1·0	Katol; 7·0; Tue.	Mendhe-pathar; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kohaḷā—Umr.—कोहळा ..	NW; 20·0	1173·70; 115; 23; 69	Bela; 4·0	Borkhedi; 11·0	Bela; 4·0; Sat.	Sonegaon; 7·0	rv.	2 tl.
Kohaḷī—Snr.—कोहळी ..	S; 14·0	1304·43; 1,529; 236; 669	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr; m); 2 Cs (mis); 2 tl; dp.
Kokaraḍā—Ktl.—कोकरडा ..	.. ..	1041·27; 11; 4; 4	Ridhora; 2·0	Katol; 6·0	Katol; 6·0; Tue.	.. ..	..	..
Kokaraḍā—Snr.—कोकरडा ..	S; 6·0	.. 158; 38; 95	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 3·0	W.;w.	Cs (c); tl.
Kokaraḍī—Ngp.—कोकरडी ..	NW; 23·0	687·77; 122; 23; 73	Kanholiwara; 4·0	Borkhedi; 15·0	Kanholiwara; 4·0; Sun.	.. 9·0	W.	tl.
Kolambī—Ktl.—कोळंबी ..	NW; 4·0	602·61; 261; 77; 175	Paradsinga; 2·0	Katol; 4·0	Paradsinga; 2·0; Wed.	Khanagaon; 1·0	W.;w.	2 tl.
Kolārameṭ—Umr.—कोलारमेट ..	N; 9·0	1712·68; 121; 28; 67	Borgaon; 1·0	Brahmani; 7·0	Chanpa; 5·0; Sat.	Uti; 2·4	w.	tl.
Kolārī—Umr.—कोलारी ..	E; 15·0	1314·27; 319; 69; 168	Adyal; 1·0	Bhiwapur; 4·0	Bhiwapur; 4·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 4·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Kolhu—Ktl.—कोल्हु ..	W; 10·0	769·18; 245; 47; 136	Murti; 3·0	Katol; 9·0	Katol; 9·0; Tue.	Katol; 10·0	W;w.	..
Kolītamārā—Rmt.—कोलीतमारा ..	SW; 20·0	775·40; 165; 37; 87	Khairi; 8·0	Ramtek; 13·0	Khairi; 8·0; Fri.	Pauni; 10·0	w.	tl.
Koḍhāsāvalī—Rmt.—कोढासावली ..	SE; 13·0	1085·59; 194; 42; 111	Navegaon Khairi; 5·0	Khapa; 10·0	Navegaon Khairi; 5·0; Fri.	.. ..	w.	tl; gym.
Koṇḍhāḷī—Ktl.—कोंढाळी ..	S; 11·0	678·20; 6242; 1339; 1988	Local; ..	Katol; 11·4	Local;	Local; ..	W.;w.	7 Sl. (3 pr, 3 m, h); 3 Cs. (3 mis); 7 tl; mq; dg; dh; gym; 3 dp.
Koṇḍasāvaḷī—Ktl.—कोंडसावळी ..	SW; 7·0	1151·32; 719; 166; 398	Ridhora; 4·0	Katol; 8·0	Katol; 8·0; Tue.	Hatala; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (cr); 2 tl.
Koṇḍhī—Rmt.—कोंढी ..	SE; 27·0	1235·21; 421; 79; 181	Govari; 3·0	Khat; 9·0	Govari; 3·0; Sat.	Mauje Khasbi; 3·0	w.;rv.	Sl. (pr); Hirbaji Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl.
Koṇī—Ktl.—कोणी ..	N; 12·0	973·70; 217; 40; 98	Local; ..	Narkhed; 4·0	Narkhed; 4·0; Sun.	.. 0·2	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Koparā—Rmt.—कोपरा ..	S; 17·0	398·95; 172; 39; 105	Mauda; 7·0	Salwa; 6·0	Mauda; 7·0; Fri.	Mauda; 6·0	w.	tl.
Korāḍ—Rmt.—कोराड ..	S; 19·0	638·20; 220; 45; 114	Mauda; 3·0	Rewarala; 7·0	Mauda; 3·0; Fri.	Mauda; 2·0	w.	tl.
Korāḍī—Ngp.—कोराडी ..	N; 9·0	2260·48; 2034; 440; 788	Local; ..	Local; ..	Nagpur; 8·0; All days.	Mahadula; 1·0	w.	Sl. (pr); Cs; Jagdamba Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 8 tl; M; dh.; gym.
Korameṭā—Snr.—कोरमेटा ..	N; 16·4	714·06; 259; 62; 162	Bichwa; 1·0	Kelwad; 11·0	Nagalwadi; 2·0; Fri.	Kelwad; 12·0	W.;w.	..
Koṭagāṅv—Rmt.—कोटगांव ..	.. ..	.. 526; 97; 252	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Koṭagāṅv—Umr.—कोटगांव ..	.. ..	.. 322; 60; 188	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Kotavālībarḍī—Ktl.—कोतवाली बर्डी	E; 15·5	1212·43; 471; 115; 268	Dorli; 3·4	Kohali; 4·0	Dorli; 3·4; Thu.	Dorli; 3·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kotevāḍā—Ngp.—कोतेवाडा ..	S; 14·0	904·69; 1033; 171; 289	Gumgaon; 0·2	Gumgaon; 3·0	Gumgaon; 2·0; Sun.	Dongargaon; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (Co-operative Bank); 2 tl; dg; lib.
Kothuḷaṇā—Snr.—कोथुळणा ..	SW; 12·0	1468·32; 948; 252; 471	Local; ..	Khapa; 1·0	Local; .. Sat.	Khapa; 6·0	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr; m); 2 tl; dp.
Kotoḍī—Snr.—कोतोडी ..	S; 1·0	933·92; 357; 87; 159	Adasa; 2·0	Saoner; 6·0	Saoner; 6·0; Fri.	Saoner; 6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kuhī—Umr.—कुही ..	NE; 14·0	2008·11; 4163; 903; 1484	Local; ..	Bhojapur; 1·0	Local; .. Wed. & Sat.	.. ..	W.;w.	3 Sl (pr; 2 m); Ram Navmi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 15 tl; M; mq; 3 dg; 4 gym; Ch; lib; dp.

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Kujbā—Umr.—कुजबा ..	NE; 20·0	.. 923; 172; 479	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl.
Kukaḍā—Rmt.—कुकडा ..	W; 20·0	1049·48; 141; 30; 90	Khairi; 14·0	Khapa; 25·0	Khairi; 14·0; Fri.	Pauni; 11·0	rv.	tl.
Kukaḍ-Umarī—Umr.—कुकड-अुमरी	E; 24·0	595·66; 176; 28; 100	Jiwanapur; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 12·0	Jiwanapur; 2·0; Sat.	.. 8·0	w.	tl.
Kaḷambī—Snr.—कळंबी ..	S; 8·5	1267·60; 845; 202; 463	Kalameshwar; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0; Sun.	Kalameshwar; 3·0	w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; gym; lib.
Kumbhāpūr—Rmt.—कुंभापूर ..	S; 18·0	964·57; 325; 72; 140	Kodamendhi; ..	Salwa; 4·0	Kamathi; 8·0; Fri	Mauda; 0·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Kumbhāpūr—Umr.—कुंभापूर ..	.. ..	.. 6; 1; 3	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Kumbhārī—Rmt.—कुंभारी ..	S; 18·4	1109·96; 335; 70; 172	Mauda; 3·0	Chacher; 5·0	Mauda;	Mauda; 3·4	w.;rv.	Cs; 2 tl.
Kumbhārī—Umr.—कुंभारी ..	NW; 8·0	731·08; 106; 25; 60	Umrer; 3·0	Umrer; 3·0	Umrer; 3·0; Mon.	Umrer; 3·0	w.	2 tl.
Kuṇḍī—Ktl.—कुंडी ..	S; 15·0	501·71; 94; 26; 64	Kondhali; 5·4	Katol; 16·0	Kondhali; 5·4; Wed.	Hardoli; 1·0	W.;w.	tl.
Kusumbī—Ngp.—कुसुंबी ..	E; 8·0	472·80; 100; 22; 51	Dighori; 3·0	Dighori; 3·0	Nagpur; 10·0; All days.	Nagpur; 8·0	W.	2 tl.
Kusumadharā—Rmt.—कुसुमधरा ..	E; 18·0	1381·12; 93; 20; 52	Dahegaon Jashi; 4·4	Khapa; 6·4	Parshivni; 4·0; Mon.	.. 8·0	w.	tl.
Kusumbī—Snr.—कुसुंबी ..	SE; 6·0	1022·22; 417; 92; 178	Takli; 1·0	Patansawangi; 3·0	Patansawangi; 3·0; Tue.	Patansawangi; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); tl.
Kusumbī—Snr.—कुसुंबी ..	SW; 12·0	533·20; 34; 8; 27	Kothulana; 1·4	Khapa; 6·0	Kothulana; 1·4; Sat.	Khapa; 6·0	W.;w.	..
Lāḍagāṅv—Ktl.—लाडगांव ..	S; 4·0	2075·02; 880; 208; 506	Local; ..	Katol; 5·0	Katol; 5·0; Tue.	Katol; 4·0	pl.	Sl. (pr); Cc (cr); 2 tl; lib.
Ladāī—Snr.—लडाई ..	S; 18·0	394·64; 165; 37; 98	Uparvahi; 4·0	Kohali; 7·0	Uparvahi; 4·0; Thu.	.. ..	W.;w.	tl.
Lodhā—Rmt.—लोधा ..	N; 28·0	1250·65; 254; 57; 130	Karvahi; 5·0	Mansar; 30·0	Khawasa; 7·0; Wed.	Khawasa; 6·0	w.	2 tl.
Lākhāpūr—Rmt.—लाखापूर ..	N; 14·0	648·91; 66; 9; 31	Hiwara; 2·0	Mansar; 21·0	Hiwara; 2·0; Mon.	Pauni; 10·0	w.	tl.
Lakhamāpūr—Ngp.—लखमापुर ..	W; 25·0	843·40; 120; 28; 73	Kanholibara; 3·0	Borkhedi; 8·0	Kanholibara; 3·0; Sun.	Bori; 10·0	w.	tl.
Lākhālī—Ktl.—लाखाली ..	SE; 6·0	2119·55; 122; 31; 61	Metpanjra; 2·4	Metpanjra; 0·4	Mendhepathar; 2·4; Thu.	Katol; 6·0	W.;w.	Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 4 tl.
Lañjāḷā—Umr.—लांजाळा ..	.. ..	.. 249; 52; 150	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Lāpakā—Rmt.—लापका ..	S; 20·0	1011·13; 223; 47; 127	Mauda; 1·0	Rewarala; 8·0	Mauda; 1·0; Fri.	Mauda; 0·6	W.	Cs; tl.
Lāvā—Ngp.—लावा ..	W; 8·0	1490·50; 725; 145; 311	Wadi; 2·0	Nagpur; 8·0	Nagpur; 8·0; Thu.	Wadi; 2·0	W.	Sl. (pr); Rangapanchami Fr. Phg. Vad. 5; tl.
Lihigāṅv—Ngp.—लिहिगांव ..	E; 11·0	1266·75; 424; 80; 242	Dighori; 4·0	Dighori; 4·0	Kamathi; 4·0; Fri.	Mahalgaon; 2·0	W.	Sl. (pr); 3 tl.
Liṅgā—Ktl.—लिंगा ..	W; 3·0	371·23; 388; 87; 188	Ridhora; 1·4	Katol; 4·0	Katol; 4·0; Tue.	.. 0·4	W.	Sl. (pr); tl; dg.
Liṅgā—Snr.—लिंगा ..	S; 15·0	2673·14; 785; 187; 414	Uparvahi; 3·0	Kohali; 4·0	Gujari; .. Thu.	.. 2·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (cr); tl; M; dg; gym.
Lohaḍoṅgarī—Rmt.—लोहडोंगरी ..	SE; 6·0	949·65; 367; 78; 169	Kachurvahi; 2·0	Chacher; 6·0	Kachurwahi; 2·0; ..	Ramtek; 6·0	w.	Sl. (pr); tl.
Lohagaḍ—Ktl.—लोहगड ..	NE; 15·0	506·67; 3; 1; 3	Pipla; 2·0	Narkhed; 13·0	Pipala; 2·0; ..	.. 6·0	..	tl.
Lohagaḍ—Snr.—लोहगड ..	SW; 18·0	2383·00; 603; 142; 354	Nanda; 3·0	Kohali; 10·0	Mohpa; 8·0; Wed.	Mohpa; 8·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Lohārā—Ktl.—लोहारा ..	W; 19·0	516·14; 302; 61; 160	Sawanga; 1·0	Katol; 19·0	Sawanga; 1·0; Sat.	Sawanga; 1·0	W.;w.	Cs. (c); tl.
Lohārā—Rmt.—लोहारा ..	E; 7·0	.. 8; 2; 3	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Ramtek; 7·0	w.	tl.
Lohārā—Rmt.—लोहारा ..	W; 10·0	642·76; 75; 16; 43	Mahadula; 1·4	Ramtek; 10·0	Panchala Bk.; 2·0; Wed.	.. 6·0	w.	tl.
Lohārā—Rmt.—लोहारा ..	SE; 23·2	488·03; 201; 35; 94	Govari; 4·0	Khat; 11·0	Govari; 4·0; Sat.	Govari; 4·0	rv.	tl.
Lohārā—Umr.—लोहारा ..	.. ..	.. 220; 48; 124	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.;w.	tl.
Lohārā—Umr.—लोहारा ..	N; 18·0	642·03; 237; 52; 130	Adam; 1·4	Kuhi; 4·4	Adam; 1·4; Sun.	Mauda; 12·0	W.	tl.
Loṇakhārī—Ngp.—लोणखारी ..	W; 10·0	722·69; 673; 147; 330	Local; ..	Koradi; 4·0	Nagpur; 10·0; ..	Nagpur; 10·0	W.;w	Sl. (pr); tl.

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Lonārā—Umr.—लोनारा ..	S; 18·0	1559·97; 181; 31; 105	Nand; 2·0	Umrer; 18·0	Nand; 2·0; Sun.	Nand; 2·0	w.	tl.
Lonhārā—Ngp.—लोन्हारा ..	N; 7·0	1353·31; 357; 82; 159	Mahadula; 4·0	Bharatwada; 4·0	Nagpur; 7·0; Tue.	Nagpur; 7·0	W.;w.	Cs; 2 tl.
Lonhārā—Snr.—लोन्हारा ..	S; 15·0	1857·36; 610; 165; 414;	Uparvahi; 1·0	Kalameshwar; 5·0	Kalameshwar; 5·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs. (c); 2 tl; mq; dp. (vet).
Madanā—Ktl.—मदना ..	SE; 14·0	901·38; 504; 111; 288	Thugaondev; 1·0	Narkhed; 9·0	Jalalkheda; 1·0; ..	Jalalkheda; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs. (gr); 4 tl.
Madanāpūr—Umr.—मदनापूर ..	NE; 15·0	765·53; 304; 62; 183	Pachkhedi; 0·2	Brahmani; 10·0	Pachkhedi; 0·2; ..	Umrer 15·0	W.;w.	tl.
Maṇḍavā—Ngp.—मांडवा ..	NW; 24·0	1235·01; 55; 11; 34	Kavadas; 4·0	Nagpur; 23·0	Kavadas; 4·0; Thu.	.. ..	w.	tl.
Maḍhā Savaṅgī—Snr.—महासावंगी	S; 7·0	1388·07; 464; 100; 286	Pipala; 1·0	Kohali; 8·0	Dhapewada; 2·0; Tue.	Kalameshwar; 7·0	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs. (cr); 2 tl.
Mahādulā—Ngp.—महादुला ..	.. 7·0	858·93; 621; 125; 249	Local; ..	Koradi; 2·0	Nagpur; 5·0; All days.	Local; ..	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Mahādulā—Rmt.—महादुला ..	NE; 22·0	928·48; 250; 55; 135	Dahegaon; 3·0	Khapa; 6·0	Dahegaon; 3·0; Thu.	Borgaon; 0·4	w.	Sl. (pr); 3 tl.
Mahādulā—Rmt.—महादुला ..	.. 11·0	1212·84; 914; 186; 580	Local; ..	Ramtek; 11·0	Panchala; 1·4; Wed.	Local; ..	W.;w.	Sl. (pr); tl.
Mahādulī—Rmt.—महादुली ..	E; 14·0	.. 205; 44; 113	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 6·0	rv.	tl.
Mahājanapūr—Ktl.—महाजनपूर ..	E; 20·0	.. 28; 4; 15	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 6·0	o.	..
Mahāḷagāṅv—Ngp.—महाळगांव ..	E.; 10·0	1862·15; 741; 176; 399	Kamathi; 7·0	Kamathi; 7·0	Kamathi; 7·0; Fri.	Local; ..	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Mahālagāṅv—Rmt.—महालगांव ..	NE; 22·0	1240·34; 454; 100; 168	Khat; 3·0	Khat; 3·0	Tanda; 1·0; Mon.	Varathi; 12·0	w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; lib.
Mahālagāṅv—Umr.—महालगांव ..	S; 16·0	1912·81; 989; 269; 530	Besur; 2·0	Umrer; 16·0	Sirshi; 4·0; Wed.	Umrer; 16·0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Mahārājpūr—Rmt.—महाराजपूर ..	NE; 5·0	339·46; 207; 39; 168	Ramtek; 5·0	Ramtek; 7·0	Ramtek; 6·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 5·0	w.	tl.
Mahārakuṇḍ—Snr.—महारकुंड ..	NE; 12·0	1290·02; 88; 18; 56	Bichwa; 4·0	Khapa; 8·0	Nagalwadi; 4·0; Fri.	Khapa; 9·0	W.; w.	tl.
Mahāra Peṭh—Rmt.—महारपेठ ..		DESERTED		.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Mahārī—Snr.—महारी ..	W; 4·0	746·35; 229; 61; 133	Mongsa; 1·0	Saoner; 4·0	Saoner; 4·0; Fri.	Local ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2tl; dp.
Mahedī—Rmt.—महेदी ..	NW; 11·4	1227·10; 573; 128; 354	Khandala; 2·0	Dumari; 3·0	Mansar; 6·0; Fri.	.. 4·4	w.; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Mahedarī—Ktl.—महेदरी ..	E; 15·0	1307·84; 702; 145; 377	Kharwadi; 1·0	Katol; 16·0	Jalalkheda; 2·0; Fri.	.. 1·0	rv.; W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2tl.
Māhulī—Rmt.—माहुली ..	.. 10·0	1657·00; 996; 221; 461	Local; ..	Mansar; 7·0	Mansar; 6·0; Thu.	Mansar; 6·0	rv.; w.	2 Sl; (pr; m); 3 Cs (Cr, 2 misc); 5 tl; lib.
Māhurajharī—Ngp.—माहुरझरी ..	NW; 9·0	2609·69; 705; 148; 252	Local; ..	Bharatwada; 0·4	Nagpur; 9·0; Tue.	.. 2·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Shri Ramnavmi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 2tl; M.
Makara Dhokaḍā—Rmt.—मकरधोकडा ..	W; 12·0	516·00; 38; 9; 25	Khairi; 2·0	Ramtek; 12·0	Khairi; 2·0; Fri.	Mansar; 9·0	W.	..
Makar Dhokaḍā—Umr.—मकरधोकडा ..	W; 9·0	4809·88; 2507; 586; 1113	Local; ..	Umrer; 9·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 4·0	w.	2 Sl. (pr, m); pyt; Cs; 8tl; 2 M; 2 lib; dp.
Mālacī—Umr.—मालची ..	NE; 8·0	999·20; 153; 39; 92	Musalgaon; 4·0	Brahmani; 3·0	Umrer; 7·0; Mon.	Umrer; 8·0	t. n.;w.	3tl; gym.
Malakāpār—Ktl.—मलकापार ..	SE; 15·0	1039·81; 86; 18; 57	Shivsawanga; 3·0	Katol; 19·0	Kondhali; 7·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.; w.	tl.
Mālaṇī—Umr.—मालणी ..	N; 14·0	.. 402; 80; 190	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.; w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Mālapūr—Ktl.—मालपूर ..	NE; 10·0	.. 691; 150; 388	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.
Mālegāṅv—Ktl.—मालेगांव ..	SE; 9·0	1586·90; 314; 83; 210	Zilya; 3·0	Metpanjra; 4·0	Katol; 9·0; Tue.	Metpanjra; 4·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Malegāṅv—Snr.—मालेगांव ..	E; 3·0	1420·70; 904; 211; 434	Local; ..	Saoner; 3·0	Saoner; 3·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.;w. rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (cr); 2tl; lib; dp.
Malegāṅv—Snr.—मालेगांव ..	SW; 14·0	1609·06; 366; 92; 196	Nanda Gomukh; 3·0	Saoner; 14·0	Nanda Gokukh; 3·0; Sun.	Nanda Gomukh; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Malegāṅv—Ngp.—मालेगांव ..	W; 18·0	604·71; 34; 9; 24	Bajargaon; 1·0	Nagpur; 22·0	Bajargaon; 1·0; Mon.	Dhamana; 3·0	W.	2tl.
Malevāḍā—Umr.—मालेवाडा ..	NW; 10·0	2673·80; 1187; 281; 716	Jawali; 2·0	Umrer; 10·0	Umrer; 10·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office ; Distance (4)		Railway Station ; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Mālodā—Umr.—मालोदा ..	NE;	24·0	669·13;	121;	25;	63	Ambhora;	1·0	Kuhi;	20·0	Ambhora;	1·0; Tue.	Adyal;	8·0	w.; rv.	tl.
Mānāpūr—Rmt.—मानापूर ..	..	..	468·40;	409;	86;	186	Ramtek;	0·4	Ramtek;	1·0	Ramtek;	0·4; Sun.	Ramtek;	0·4	W.; w.	Sl (pr) tl; ch.
Māṇḍavā—Ngp.—मांडवा ..	S;	16·0	1235·01;	217;	57;	144	Takalghat;	2·0	Bori;	4·0	Takalghat;	2·0; Sat.	Takalghat;	2·0	w.	tl.
Māṇḍavā—Umr.—मांडवा ..	SE;	9·0	1165·15;	469;	101;	273	Umrer;	8·0	Kargaon;	6·0	Umrer;	8·0; Mon.	Karaganv;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; Ramnavmi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 2tl.
Māṇḍavā—Umr.—मांडवा ..	S;	10·0	..	513;	103;	291	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.; rv.	tl.
Māṇḍavī—Snr.—मांडवी ..	S;	10·0	1674·72;	882;	200;	365	Telgaon;	3·0	Kohali;	8·0	Mohapa;	4·0; Wed.	Mohapa;	4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl;.
Maṇḍhal—Umr.—मांढळ ..	W;	4·0	3316·63;	3835;	772;	1498	Local;	..	Brahmani;	6·0	Brahmani;	6·0; Tue.	Local	..	W.;	2 Sl (pr, m.); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 4tl; ch; lib; dp.
Māṇḍoghorāḍ—Ngp.—मांडोघोराड	W;	15·0	1656·30;	536;	141;	313	Mohogaon;	1·0	Kalmeshwar;	14·0	Mohogaon;	1·0; Fri.	Hingana;	5·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3tl; gym.
Māndrī—Rmt.—मांद्री ..	NE;	8·0	1387·89;	744;	149;	288	Musewadi;	2·0	Ramtek;	11·0	Panchala;	1·0; Wed.	Ramtek;	8·0	w.	Sl (pr); 3tl; 2dg; gym.
Mānegāṅv—Rmt.—मानेगांव ..	..	..	4045·33;	341;	76;	175	Hiwara;	3·0	Mansar;	15·0	Hiwara;	3·0; Mon.	..	..	..	..
Mānegāṅv—Rmt.—मानेगांव ..	N;	15·0	404·33;	291;	52;	182	Hiwara;	3·0	Mansar;	15·0	Hiwara	3·0; ..	Pauni;	4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs(c); 3tl.
Mānegāṅv—Rmt.—मानेगांव ..	NE;	9·0	1692·30;	479;	147;	11	Musewadi;	2·0	Ramtek;	11·0	Panchala;	2·0; Wed.	Ramtek;	9·0	w.	tl; dg.
Mānegāṅv—Snr.—मानेगांव ..	E;	4·0	865·54	504;	108;	203	Takli;	2·0	Takli;	2·0	Saoner;	5·0; Fri.	Local	..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs(cr); 2tl; lib.
*Mānevāḍā—Ngp.—मानेवाडा ..	S;	4·0	990·45;	..	..	..	Babulkheda;	1·0	Ajani; ..	2·0	Mahal;	2·0; ..	..	1·0	w.	2tl.
Māṅgalī—Ngp.—मांगली ..	S;	26·0	981·09;	283;	62;	165	Mohogaon;	2·0	Khaprj;	8·0	Hingana;	3·0; Mon.	Hingana;	3·0	w.	tl.
Māṅgalī—Umr.—मांगली ..	NW;	14·0	1333·56;	447;	100;	249	Malani;	0·4	Malani;	1·0	Kuhi;	5·0; Wed. Sat.	..	3·0	w.	tl.
Māṅgalī—Umr.—मांगली ..	NW;	15·0	819·28;	281;	53;	154	Nakshi;	1·4	..	..	Kiwala;	4·0; Fri.	Kiwala;	4·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Māṅgalī—Umr.—मांगली ..	..	..	1333·56;	472;	89;	217	Malani;	0·4	Malani;	1·0	Kuhi;	5·0; Wed. and Sat.	..	..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Māṅgalī Cānde—Rmt.—मांगली चांदे	..	..	1852·35;	222;	45;	117	Dhanla;	2·0	Tharsa;	4·0	Dhanla;	2·0; Sun.	Mauda;	7·0	..	Sl (pr); tl.
Māṅgalī Gosāī—Rmt.—मांगली गोसाई.	S;	14·0	608·27;	102;	23;	54	Tharsa;	2·0	Tharsa;	2·0	Nimkheda;	2·0; Sun.	Mauda;	8·0	W.;w.	Cs (gr); 3tl.
Māṅgalī Loṇ—Rmt.—मांगलीलोण	S;	16·0	322·58;	162;	30;	101	Ramtek;	4·0	Ramtek;	6·0	Ramtek;	4·0; Sun.	Mauda;	6·0	w.	2tl.
Māṅgalī (Narhā)—Ngp.—मांगली (नन्हा).	SE;	20·0	886·02;	263;	66;	115	Borkhedi;	4·0	Sindi;	..	Sindi;	2·0; Thu.	..	5·0	w.;n.	2tl.
Māṅgalī Telī—Rmt.—मांगली तेली	SE;	16·0	1852·35;	394;	80;	220	Dhanla;	2·0	Tharsa;	4·0	Dhanala;	2·0; Sun.	Mauda;	6·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Māṅgarul—Ngp.—मांगरूळ ..	W;	14·0	647·78;	462;	104;	232	Vyahad;	2·0	Kalameshwar;	8·0	Vyahad;	2·0; Tue.	Gondkhaini;	..	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl.
Māṅgaruḍ—Umr.—मांगरुड ..	W;	27·0	1714·74;	796;	156;	457	Local;	..	Umrer;	5·0	Umrer;	5·0; Mon.	Chanpa;	8·0	w.	tl.
Māṅgaruḍ—Umr.—मांगरुड ..	S;	6·0	1245·81;	240;	57;	146	Umrer;	7·0	Umrer;	7·0	Umrer;	7·0; Mon.	Umrer;	6·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl; gym.
Maṅgasā—Snr.—मंगसा ..	NE;	3·0	1369·35;	871;	305;	498	Local;	..	Saoner;	3·0	Saoner;	3·0; Thu. & Fri.	Saoner;	3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 3tl; lib; dp.
Maṅgalī—Ngp.—मंगली ..	..	..	..	279;	61;	155	Mohgaon;	2·0	..	12·0	Mohgaon Zilpi;	3·0; Fri.	..	..	..	..
Maṇikavāḍī—Ktl.—माणिकवाडी	N;	18·0	1647·07;	579;	106;	296	Narkhed;	2·4	Narkhed;	2·4	Narkhed;	2·4; Sun.	Belona;	1·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs(c); 2tl.
Mājarī—Umr.—माजरी ..	NW;	14·0	1426·89;	481;	94;	281	Adam;	2·0	Kuhi;	8·0	Mandhal;	2·0; Tue.	Chanda;	1·0	w.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Māṇkāpūr Ngp. माणकापूर	N; 3·0	271·58;	Local; ..	Nagpur; ..	Nagpur; 3·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); 3tl.
Māṇakāpūr- Umr.- माणकापूर	.. ..	.. 6; 2; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Maūnāth - Ktl. - मौनाथ	N; 13·0	876·00; 319; 71; 189	Sindi; 2·0	Narkhed; 10·0	Sawargaon; 3·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	W.;w.	tl.
Mānorā - Umr. - मानोरा	E; 8·0	1981·06; 468; 100; 242	Kargaon; 1·0	Local; ..	Bhiwapur; 8·0; Fri.	Kargaon; 1·4	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg.
Mānorī - Umr. - मानोरी	NW; 16·0	1113·33; 191; 45; 124	Pipara; 2·0	Borkhedi; 16·0	Pipara; 2·0; Thu.	.. 11·0	w.	..
Mansar - Rmt. - मनसर	W; 4·0	1578·57; 2361; 548; 165	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W.;w.	2Sl (pr, h); Shri Krishna Fr. Ch. Sud. 15; Cs(c); 14tl; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Maragasūr - Ktl. - मरगसूर	SE; 10·0	1608·97; 372; 91; 231	Metpanjra; 5·4	Metpanjra; 5·4	Metpanjra; 5·4; Thu.	Metpanjra; 5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Marajaghāṭ - Umr. - मरजघाट	.. ..	.. 12; 4; 8	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Mārodī - Rmt. - मारोदी	NE; 20·0	1734·72; 762; 157; 409	Dhanla; 3·0	Tharsa; 19·5	Mauda; 4·0; Fri.	Mauda; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr), 2tl; 2dg.
Marupār - Umr. - मरुपार	NE; 17·0	1284·95; 509; 108; 266	Gothangaon; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 10·0	Gothangaon; 2·0; Wed.	Bhivapur; 10·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Masālā - Umr. - मसाला	NW; 16·0	1042·88; 121; 26; 81	Pipara; .. 2·0	Borkhedi; 15·0	Pipara; 2·0; Thu.	Umrer; 16·0	w.	2tl.
Māsāḷakuṇḍ - Umr. - मासाळकुण्ड	NW; 11·0	962·82; 38; 6; 22	Chanpa; 4·0	Umrer; 10·0	Chanpa; 4·0; Sat.	Chanpa; 3·0	w.	2tl.
Māsod - Ktl. - मासोद	S; 14·0	1471·60; 958; 202; 530	Local; ..	Katol; 17·0	Kondhali; 6·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Masorā - Ktl. - मसोरा	N; 12·0	2407·52; 1032; 248; 576	Sawargaon; 3·0	Narkhed; 6·0	Sawargaon; 3·0; Mon.	Sawargaon; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2tl.
Maṭakājharī - Umr. - मटकाझरी	W; 20·0	3772·65; 502; 110; 290	Thana; 4·0	Bori; 13·0	Thana; 4·0; Mon.	Chanpa; 6·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Maṭh - Ktl. - मठ	.. ..	.. 37; 13; 8	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Māthaṇī - Ngp. - माथणी	E; 20·3	1065·15; 47; 13; 27	Kanholibara; 3·0	Buti Bori; 17·0	Kanholibara; 3·0; Sun.	.. 1·6	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5tl; gym.
Māthaṇī - Ngp. - माथणी	NW; 24·0	1882·99; 893; 184; 402	Mauda; 1·0	Dharasa; 9·0	Mauda; 1·0; Fri.	Mauda; 1·0	w.	tl.
Māyavāḍī - Ktl. - मायवाडी	.. ..	.. 693; 162; 432	Bharsinghi; 1·0	Kalambha; 7·0	Rohna; 2·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.	Sl (m).
Meḍhā - Umr. - मेढा	.. ..	1569·96; 671; 135; 376	Local; ..	Bhiwapur; 7·0	Bhiwapur; 7·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Mehekepār - Rmt. - मेहेकेपार	W; 19·0	212·94; 32; 8; 21	Nawegaon Khairi; 9·0	Mansar; 12·0	Nawegaon Khaidi 9·0; Fri.	Pauni; 11·0	w.	tl.
Meḷa Umarī - Ngp. - मेळ उमरी	W; 16·0	.. 603; 136; 337	Mohogaon; 1·0	Nagpur; 16·0	Mohogaon; 1·0; Fri.	Hingana; 6·0	W.;w.	2Sl (pr, m); 2tl.
Menakhāta - Umr. - मेनखात	.. ..	.. 13; 2; 4	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	..
Meṇḍakī - Ktl. - मेंडकी	N. 6·2	1414·22; 743; 177; 457	Sawargaon; 1·0	Katol; 6·0	Sawargaon; 6·0; Mon.	.. 0·5	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Holi Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
Meṇḍhe Kalā - Umr. - मेंढेकला	SE; 14·0	196·00; 65; 10; 30	Ambhora; 1·0	Kuhi; 17·0	Ambhora; 1·0; Tue.	.. 7·0	W.;w.	2tl.
Meṇḍhalā - Ktl. - मेंढला	W; 19·0	1796·24; 1477; 367; 845	Local; ..	Katol; 16·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	..
Meṇḍhegāṅv - Umr. - मेंढेगांव	NE; 12·0	731·10; 255; 54; 173	Malani; 1·0	Mahuli; 2·0	Local; .. Tue.	Jalalkheda; 5·0	W.;w.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs (cr); 4tl; lib; 2dp.
Meṇḍhepaṭhār - Ktl. - मेंढेपठार	F; 7·2	1419·12; 221; 56; 149	Khursapar; 3·0	Katol; 7·0	Kuhi; 5·0; Sat & Wed.	.. ..	w.	2tl; gym.
Meṇḍhepaṭhār - Ktl. - मेंढेपठार	S; 8·0	1443·93; 575; 138; 349	Metpanjra; 1·4	Metpanjra; 3·4	Katol; 7·0; Tue.	.. 0·2	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 2tl; dg.
Meṇḍhepaṭhār - Umr. - मेंढेपठार	W; 14·0	1308·76; 51; 11; 25	Makar Dhokda; 5·0	Umrer; 14·0	Local; .. Thu.	Kondhali 4·0	W.;w.	Cs (gr); tl.
Meṭapāñjarā - Ktl. - मेटपांजरा	E; 8·0	722·69; 781; 165; 383	Local; ..	Local; ..	Makar Dhokda 5·0; Fri.	Umrer; 14·0	w.	tl.
Meṭa Umarī - Ngp. - मेटउमरी	W; 15·0	1428·95; 603; 136; 337	Mohogaon; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 10·0	Mendhepathar; 2·0; Thu.	Local; ..	pl.	Sl (m); 2tl; dg.
Meṭa Māṅgarūḍ - Umr. - मेट मांगरूड	.. ..	.. 48; 9; 26	.. ..	.. ..	Mohogaon; 2·0; Fri.	Hingana; 5·0	W.	..

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Meṭaśivadaulī—Rmt.—मेट शिवदौली.	.. ..	.. 185; 30; 92	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.; n.	..
Mhasāḷā—Ktl.—म्हसाळा ..	SE; 14·0	1508·70; 360; 77; 178	Kondhali; 6·0	Katol; 17·0	Kondhali; 6·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Mhasāḷā—Ngp.—म्हसाळा ..	NW; 20·0	826·92; 49; 9; 23	Butibori; .. 3·0	Butibori; 3·0	Butibori; 3·0; Tue.	Bori; 2·2	w.	tl.
Mhasalā—Ngp.—म्हसला ..	.. ..	.. 312; 75; 141	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Mhasāḷā—Rmt.—म्हसाळा ..	SE; 8·0	957·02; 308; 83; 181	Kachurvahi; 1·4	Tharsa; 6·0	Kachurvahi; 1·4; Mon.	Ramtek; 8·0	w.	2tl; dg.
Mhasalī—Ktl.—म्हसली ..	NW; 8·0	1061·21; 877; 199; 477	Bhisnur; 2·0	Kalambha; 2·0	Bhisnur; 2·0; Wed.	Paradasinga; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Mhasalī—Umr.—म्हसली ..	S; 24·0	.. 503; 91; 244	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Mhasepaṭhār—Snr.—म्हसेपठार ..	W; 11·0	947·52; 773; 184; 354	Mohapa; 0·2	Kohali; 4·0	Mohapa; 0·2; ..	Mohapa; 1·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 2tl.
Mhaskhāparā—Ktl.—म्हसखापरा	SE; 8·0	1863·71; 116; 18; 70	Zilya; 2·0	Metpanjra; 5·0	Zillya; 2·0; Fri.	Metpanjra; 4·0	W.;w.	..
Meḍhā—Umr.—मेढा ..	.. ..	.. 671; 135; 376	.. ..	.. ..	..	..	..	..
Minevāḍā—Ktl.—मिनेवाडा ..	SE; 14·0	1086·62; 339; 76; 180	Kondhali; 6·0	Katol; 17·0	Kondhali; 6·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Minsī—Rmt.—मिसी ..	.. ..	.. 5; 1; 2	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.;	..
Mirajāpūr—Ktl.—मिरजापूर ..	W; 16·0	588·07; 65; 14; 36	Jalalkeda; 2·0	Katol; 16·0	Jalalkheda; 2·0; Fri.	Katol 15·0	O.	..
Moṇḍhā—Ngp.—मोंढा ..	N; ..	805·20; 641; 137; 270	Hingna; 2·0	Khapari; 6·0	Hingna; 2·0; Mon.	.. 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg; gym; dp.
Mogarā—Ktl.—मोगरा ..	SW; 14·0	632·51; 294; 58; 138	Yeni; 0·4	Narkhed; 4·0	Narkhed; 4·0; Sun.	.. 0·2	W.;w	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 2 tl.
Mogarā Corabavali—Rmt.—मोगरा चोरबावली. ..	N; 6·0	1999·82; 117; 29; 76	Borda; 4·0	Ramtek; 7·0	Mansar; 5·0; Thu.	Local; ..	w.	tl.
Mohadarā—Umr.—मोहदरा ..	N; 8·0	925·82; 235; 47; 139	Musalgaon; 2·0	.. 1·0	Kuhi; 4·0; Wed.	.. ..	w.	2 tl.
Mohadī—Ktl.—मोहदी ..	N; 17·0	.. 838; 190; 446	Local; ..	Narkhed; 3·0	Narkhed; 3·0; Sun.	Narkhed; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; ch; lib.
Mohāḍī—Rmt.—मोहाडी ..	S; 21·0	1959·03; 828; 159; 429	Govari; 1·0	Khat; 8·0	Govari; 2·0; Sat.	Borgaon; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl; lib.
Mohāḍī (Dhotrā)—Ktl.—मोहाडी धोत्रा.	N; 12·0	1848·49; 427; 87; 242	Local; ..	Narkhed; 3·0	Narkhed; 3·0; Sun.	Narkhed; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); gym; Ch.
Mohagāṅv—Ngp.—मोहगांव ..	S; 14·0	905·72; 769; 175; 406	Local; ..	Kalameshwar; 12·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	w.	Cs; 3 tl.
Mohagāṅv—Ngp.—मोहगांव ..	W; 16·0	813·36; 160; 37; 88	Bori; 4·0	Gumgaon; 4·0	Bori; 4·0; Tue.	Hingana; 6·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Mohagāṅv—Snr.—मोहगांव ..	SW; 9·0	607·97; 438; 89; 207	Mohpa; 1·4	Kohali; 5·4	Mohpa; 1·4; Wed.	Mohpa; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Mohagāṅv—Umr.—मोहगांव ..	NE; 23·0	1276·66; 384; 80; 206	Salwa; 4·0	Kuhi; 8·0	Salwa; 4·0; Mon.	Mauda; 3·0	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Mohagāṅv (Bhadāle)—Ktl.—मोहगांव (भदाले) ..	NE; 14·0	1222·69; 1160; 253; 675	Pipla; 0·4	Narkhed; 13·4	Pipla; 0·4; Sat.	.. 6·0	W;rv.	Sl (m); Cs (c); 4 tl; mq.
Mohagāṅv Ḍholyā—Ngp.—मोहगांव ढोल्या. ..	NW; 27·0	1814·68; 240; 50; 140	Adegaon; 2·0	Nagpur; 30·0	Adegaon; 2·0; Sat.	Bajargaon; 10·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Mohagāṅv Jahāgīr—Ktl.—मोहगांव (जहागिर).	.. ..	.. 198; 43; 110	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	Wrv;o.	Sl (pr).
Mohagāṅv Jaṅgalī—Ktl.—मोहगांव जंगली.	.. 2·0	.. 77; 18; 54	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Mohagāṅv (Jaṅgalī)—Snr.—मोहगांव (जंगली) ..	NE; 9·0	841·96; 143; 37; 97	Kothulna; 1·4	Khapa; 4·0	Kothulna; 1·4; Sat.	Khapa; 3·0	W.;w.	tl.
Mohakheḍī—Rmt.—मोहखेडी ..	S; 23·0	1019·35; 268; 56; 180	Mauda, 4·0	Tharsa; 9·0	Mauda; 4·0; Fri.	Mauda; 4·0	w.	tl.
Mohaḷī—Snr.—मोहळी ..	S; 14·0	8120·47; 380; 88; 200	Kohali; 0·3	Kohali; 0·3	Kohali; 0·3; Fri.	.. ..	W.;w.	..
Mohālī—Umr.—मोहाली ..	W. 10·0	1743.00; 343; 76; 212	Titur; 3.0	Dighori; 3·0	Titur; 3·0; ..	Mansar; 6·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 6 tl; 3 dg; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Mohapā—Snr.—मोहपा ..	SW; 9·0	1205·65; 5647; 1298; 1866	Local; ..	Kohali; 4·0	Local;	Local; ..	W;w.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h.); 4 Cs; (c, mis); 18 tl; mq; lib; dp.
Mohapā—Umr.—मोहपा ..	NW; 5·0	657·25; 142; 34; 84	Umrer; 5·0	Umrer; 5·0	Umrer; 5·0; Mon.	Umrer; 5·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Mohokhedī—Ktl.—मोहोखेडी ..	.. ..	649·06; 144; 34; 93	Yenawa; 1·4	Katol; 2·4	Katol; 2·4; Tue.	Katol; 2·4	W.;w.	tl.
Mokhe Bardī—Umr.—मोखेबर्डी ..	.. 18·0	.. 649; 134; 384	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Mokhālā—Umr.—मोखाला ..	.. ..	1309·43; 274; 54 124	Bhiwapur; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 2·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur; ..	W.;w.	tl.
Māṇḍī—Rmt.—मांडी ..	.. ..	.. 303; 68; 157	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.;	..
Moragāṅv—Rmt.—मोरगांव ..	SE; 19·0	284·04; 458; 100; 233	Deolapar; 8·0	Ramtek; 17·0	Pauni; 6·0; Wed.	.. ..	w.;rv.	Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Moudā—Rmt.—मौदा ..	N; 16·0	3227·90; 3356; 735; 777	Local; ..	Tharsa; 9·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 1·0	W.	2 tl.
Movāḍ—Ktl.—मोवाड ..	NW; 18·0	3214·19; 5841; 1259; 2136	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W.;w.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); 7 Cs; (c, fmg. wea, 4 mise); 13 tl; M; mq; dg; dh; gym; 2 dp.
Mukanāpūr—Rmt.—मुकनापूर ..	N; 5·0	248·27; 129; 26; 61	Ramtek; 5·0	Ramtek; 7·0	Ramtek; 5·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 5·0	w.t.	tl.
Mukaṇī—Ktl.—मुकणी ..	.. ..	.. 105; 29; 66	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Muṇḍamālīpurā—Ktl.—मुंडमालीपुरा ..	W; 14·0	184·70; 421; 95; 157	Jalalkheda; ..	Katol; 14·0	Jalalkhed; .. Fri.	.. 0·2	rv.;W; w.	2 tl.
Muraḍā—Rmt.—मुरडा ..	NE; 10·0	2661·17; 93; 23; 61	Musewadi; 4·0	Ramtek; 12·0	Panchala; 3·0; Wed.	Ramtek; 10·0	w.	3 tl.
Murādapūr—Umr.—मुरादपूर ..	NW; 16·0	956·87; 96; 19; 67	Ridhora; 4·0	Borkhedi; 13·0	Bela; 3·0; Sat.	Butibori; 11·0	w.	2 tl.
Murajhaḍ—Rmt.—मुरझड ..	N; 20·0	754·18; 151; 32; 50	Hiwara; 11·0	Mansar; 30·0	Hiwara; 11·0; Mon.	Dewlapar; 14·0	w.	tl.
Murajhaḍī—Umr.—मुरझडी ..	W; 13·0	29·73; 58; 9; 33	Makar Dhokda; 3·0	Umrer; 12·0	Makar Dhokda; 3·0; Fri.	Umrer; 13·0	w.	tl.
Muramāḍī—Rmt.—मुरमाडी ..	NE; 22·0	1734·72; 265; 55; 104	Dhanla; 3·0	Tharsa; 11·0	Dhanla; 3·0; Sun.	Varathi; 11·4	w.	2 tl.
Muramī—Umr.—मुरमी ..	NE; 11·0	1290·40; 267; 50; 150	Musalgaon; 2·0	Kuhi; 6·0	Mandhal; 2·0; Tue.	Umrer; 11·0	w.;t.	2 tl.
Murārapūr—Umr.—मुरारपूर ..	SE; 16·0	977·31; 246; 56; 161	Jawali; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 12·0	Bhiwapur; 12·0; Fri.	Karagaon; 8·0	w.	2 tl.
Murti—Ktl.—मूर्ति ..	.. ..	1577·64; 1147; 249; 552	Local; ..	Katol; 8·0	Katol; 8·0; Tue.	.. 4·0	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (cr); 2 tl.
Mūralī—Ktl.—मूरली ..	SW; 8·0	.. 110; 27; 75	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Thanegaon; 4·0	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl.
Musaḷagāṅv—Umr.—मुसळगांव ..	NW; 9·0	1240·35; 411; 92; 236	Local; ..	Kuhi; 3·0	Kuhi; 3·0; Wed.	Umrer; 9·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Musevāḍī—Rmt.—मुसेवाडी ..	NE; 7·0	1349·02; 819; 187; 373	Local; ..	Ramtek; 8·0	Panchala; 3·0; Wed.	Ramtek; 7·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl. 2 gym.
Nāḍ—Umr.—नाड ..	S; 12·0	1179·30; 168; 43; 90	Local; ..	Umrer; 16·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; gym; Ch; lib.
Nāṅderā—Ngp.—नांदेरा ..	.. 18·0	1791·76; 96; 20; 62	Umari; 6·0	Nagpur; 18·0	Sukali; 4·0; Sun.	Peth; 3·0	w.	tl.
Nāgalavāḍī—Ngp.—नागलवाडी ..	NW; 10·0	1594·71; 481; 95; 283	Waddhamana; 2·0	Nagpur; 8·0	Nagpur; 8·0; Mon. and Thu.	Angara; 3·0	w.	Sl. (pr); tl.
Nāgalavaḍī—Snr.—नागलवाडी ..	NW; 17·0	845·32; 334; 91; 66	Bichwa; 5·0	Khapa; 11·0	Nagalwadi; .. Fri.	Khapa; 11·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nāgapūr—Ngp.—नागपूर ..	HQ; ..	.. 643659 132062 7357	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local;	Local; ..	pl.	Municipal Corporation.
Nagaradhan Udāpūr—Rmt.—नगरधन उदापूर ..	.. ..	3489·65; 2920; 610; 1231	Local; ..	Ramtek; 4·0	Local; .. Sat.	.. ..	..	..
Nāgatarolī—Umr.—नागतरोळी ..	.. ..	.. 502; 102; 274	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Nahābī—Rmt.—नहाबी ..	NE; 4·0	678·59; 176; 36; 85	Ramtek; 4·0	Ramtek; 6·0	Ramtek; 4·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 4·0	W.;w.	tl.
Naikuṇḍ—Rmt.—नैकुंड ..	SE; 10·0	3342·57; 612; 141; 328	Khandala (Thumari); 2·0	Dumari Kh.; 1·4	Mansar; 4·0; Thu.	Dumari; 7·0	rv.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nakṣī—Umr.—नक्षी ..	SE; 17·0	1534·63; 811; 171; 494	Local; ..	Bhiwapur; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 3·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 3·0	rv.;w.	Sl (pr; h); tl; dg.
Nānd—Umr.—नांद ..	S; 16·0	.. 2403; 585; 1197	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; 2mq; gym; Ch; lib.
Nāndā—Ktl.—नांदा ..	N; 12·0	1025·99; 296; 70; 133	.. ..	Narkhed; 5·0	Sawargaon; 4·0; Mon.	..	3·0 W.;w.	Sl. (pr); Cs (c) 4 tl.
Nāndā—Ngp.—नांदा ..	N; 8·0	972·14; 195; 48; 120	Lonkhairi; 2·0	Koradi; 7·0	Nagpur; 8·0;All days	Nagpur; 8·0	rv.	tl.
Nāndā—Ngp.—नादा ..	SE; 12·0	891·00; 19; 6; 11	Lonkhari; 1·0	Khaperkheda; 5·0	Patansawangi; 7·0; Tue.	.. ..	W.	tl.
Nāndagāṅv—Rmt.—नांदगांव ..	S; 22·0	.. 580; 134; 249	Kodamendhi; 1·0	Rewaral; 4·0	Kodamendhi; 1·0; Thu.	Mauda; 5·0	w.;rv.	Cs; 3 tl.
Nandagāṅv—Rmt.—नांदगांव ..	SE; 13·0	689·72; 189; 43; 119	Mauda; 6·0	Tharsa; 10·0	Mauda; 8·0; Fri.	Ramtek; 13·0	w.	tl; gym.
Nāndagāṅv—Rmt.—नांदगांव ..	NE; 12·0	.. 418; 76; 229	Kodamendhi; 1·2	Rewarala; 4·0	Kodamendhi; 1·2; Thu.	.. 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nāndāgomukh—Snr.—नांदागोमुख ..	W; 10·0	2947·46; 2751; 614; 1336	Local; ..	Saoner; 12·0	Local; 4·0; Sun.	Chatrapur; 2·0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 12 tl; mq; 2dg; Ramnavami fr. Ct. sud. 9; 2 dp.
Nāndā Kh.—Snr.—नांदाखुर्द ..	.. ..	.. 2; 1; 1	.. ..	DESERTED				
Nāndāpūr.—Snr.—नांदापूर ..	.. ..	1096·52; 344; 78; 163	Khapa; 3·0	Khapa; 3·0	Khapa; 3·0; Sun. and Wed.	Khapa; 3·0	w.	tl.
Nāndāpūr—Rmt.—नांदापूर ..	SE; 6·0	714·04; 424; 91; 252	Nagardhan; 0·6	Ramtek; 6·0	Nagardhan; 0·6; Sat.	Ramtek; 6·0	w.	tl.
Nāndrā—Umr.—नांद्रा ..	S; 14·0	1672·19; 160; 31; 109	Sirsi; 4·0	Umrer; 15·0	Sirsi; 4·0; Wed.	Umrer; 14·0	w.	tl.
Nāndīkhedā—Snr.—नांदीखेडा ..	NE; 8·0	587·28; 440; 96; 197	Telgaon; 4·0	Saoner; 9·0	Mohpa; 6·0; Wed.	Mohpa; 5·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Nāndīkhedā—Umr.—नांदीखेडा ..	NE; 26·0	611·17; 133; 27; 83	Thutanbori; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 12·0	Gothangaon; 3·0; Wed.	Bhiwapur; 12·0	W.	tl.
Nāndṇī—Ktl.—नांदणी ..	.. ..	.. 203; 41; 101	Jalalkheda; 2·0	Katol; 17·0	Jalalkheda; 2·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Nāndorā—Ktl.—नांदोरा ..	N; 16·0	1076·58; 328; 79; 192	Khursapar; 3·0	Katol; 15·4	Kondhali; 3·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 3·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nāndorā Bk.—Ktl.—नांदोरा बु. ..	S; 8·0	.. 8; 2; 2	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Kondhali; 3·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl.
Nāndorī—Snr.—नांदोरी ..	N; 5·0	688·66, 618; 153; 360	Khairi; 2·0	Kelwad; 3·0	Kelwad; 3·0; Thu.	Kelwad; 3·0	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr, h); 2 tl.
Nānādevī—Rmt.—नानादेवी ..	S; 15·0	982·61; 191; 44; 112	Mauda; 5·0	Kodamendhi; 11·0	Mauda; 5·0; Thu.	Local; ..	..	tl; mq.
Nānhā—Ngp.—नान्हा ..	SE; 20·0	831·35; 422; 63; 217	Bhugaon; 3·0	Titur; 6·0	Bhugaon; 3·0; Sun.	.. 5·0	w.	2 tl.
Navegāṅv—Umr.—नवेगांव ..	NE; 14·0	.. 42; 9; 24	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Umrer; 9·0	W.; w.	Devi Fr.Ct. Sud.9; 2 tl;Ch.
*Nārī—Ngp.—नारी ..	NE; 5·0	673·28;	Nagpur; 2·0	Itwari; 2·0	Itwari; 2·0; ..	.. 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); 4 tl.
Narhar—Rmt.—नरहर ..	SW; 21·0	544·79; 100; 16; 48	Navegaon Khairi; 15·0	Mansar; 18·0	Khairi; 15·0; Fri.	Pauni; 12·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nārakheḍ—Ktl.—नारखेड ..	HQ; ..	3629·05; 10442; 2311; 3497	Local; ..	Local ..	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W.; w.	6 Sl (4 pr, 2 h); 4 Cs (mp, c, 2 misc); 30 tl.; 2 M; mq; dg; gym; 6 dp.
*Nārakheḍ—Ktl.—नारखेड ..	N; 16·0	3214·19; 126; 30; 62	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local;	Local; ..	W.; w.	8 Sl (4 pr; 4 h); 7 Cs (mp, cs, wea, 4 mis). Gal Fr. Phg. Sud. 15; 27 tl; 2 M; 2 mq; dg; gym; lib; 7 dp (vet);
Narasāḷā—Ngp.—नरसाळा ..	.. 7·0	1250·46; 490; 106; 217	Pipala; 2·0	Nagpur; 3·0	Nagpur; 2·0; Wed.	Nagpur; 7·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Narasāḷā—Rmt.—नरसाळा ..	S; 17·0	1089·17; 357; 61; 177	Gangner; 2·0	Chacher; 2·0	Kamathi; 8·0; Fri.	Kanhan; ..	w.	tl; gym.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Narasāḷā—Snr.—नरसाळा ..	W; 6·0	394·28; 447; 95; 257	Mangra; 2·0	Kelwad; 4·0	Kelwad; 4·0; Thu.	Mangra; 2·0	W.; w.	tl.
Nāraśiṅgī—Ktl.—नारशिंगी ..	W; 12·0	786·17; 752; 167; 360	Bharsingi; 1·0	Katol; 12·0	Jalalkheda; 3·0; Fri.	.. 0·1	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nārāyaṇapūr—Ktl.—नारायणपूर	.. ..	322·19; 1; 1; ..	.. ..	Katol; 6·0	Paradsinga; .. Wed.	Bela; 8·0	..	tl.
*Nārī—Ngp.—नारी ..	NE; 4·2	1692·28;	Nagpur; 2·0	Itwari; 2·0	Itwari; 2·0 ..	Nagpur; 4·2	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl; gym; dp.
Neralā—Ngp.—नेरला ..	E; 22·0	.. 73; 15; 36	Bhugaon; 1·4	Titur; 3·4	Bhugaon; 1·4; Sun.	Wadod; 5·4	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Navaragāṅv—Rmt.—नवरगांव ..	E; 10·0	1035·40; 347; 59; 198	.. ..	Rewarala; 2·0	.. .. ..	Borgaon; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Navargāṅv—Rmt.—नवरगांव ..	SE; 16·0	1356,50; 454; 99; 215	Kachurwahi; 3·0	Ramtek; 6·0	Kachurwahi; 3·0; Mon.	Rewrala; 2·0	W.	tl; gym.
Navaragāṅv—Umr.—नवरगांव ..	N; 12·0	1628·12; 427; 83; 257	Dodana; 1·0	Titur; 4·0	Titur; 4·0; Mon.	Panchgaon; 7·0	W.	tl.
Navaramārī—Umr.—नवरमारी ..	W; 25·0	2083·38; 195; 46; 122	Thana; 5·0	Bori; 11·0	Thana; 5·0; Mon.	Gumgaon; 6·0	w.	tl.
Navegāṅv—Ktl.—नवेगांव ..	.. ..	.. 1; 1; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Navegāṅv—Ngp.—नवेगांव ..	NW; 28·0	602·22; 92; 16; 54	Pachgaon; 1·0	Nagpur; 14·0	Pachgaon; 1·0; Sun.	Bajarganv; 12·0	w.	tl.
Navegāṅv—Ngp.—नवेगांव ..	S; 22·0	432·88; 29; 8; 16	Sindi; 3·0	Sindi; 3·0	Sindi; 3·0; Thu.	.. 4·0	w.	..
Navegāṅv—Ngp.—नवेगांव ..	NW; 25·0	3045·79; 149; 31; 96	Kawadas; 1·4	Nagpur; 25·4	Kawadas; 1·4; Thu.	.. ..	..	..
Navegāṅv—Rmt.—नवेगांव ..	S; 13·0	338·37; 522; 107; 269	Local; ..	Khapa; 10·0	Khairi; 0·4; Fri.	Kanhan; 8·0	W.	tl.
Navegāṅv—Rmt.—नवेगांव ..	N; 22·0	.. 8; 2; 5	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Vadamba; 1·0	w.	tl.
Navegāṅv—Rmt.—नवेगांव ..	.. ..	253·32; 198; 28; 127	Ramtek; 2·0	Ramtek; 2·0	Ramtek; 2·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 2·0	..	..
Navegāṅv—Rmt.—नवेगांव ..	NW; 11·0	839·57; 171; 34; 96	Dhanala; 2·0	Rewarala; 7·0	Dhanala; 2·0; Sun.	Dhanala; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Navegāṅv—Rmt.—नवेगांव ..	.. ..	.. 219; 45; 116	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Navegāṅv—Umr.—नवेगांव ..	E; 9·0	1396·30; 314; 61; 135	Adyal; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 6·0	Bhiwapur; 6·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.;w.	tl; dh.
Navegāṅv—Umr.—नवेगांव ..	.. ..	931·98; 241; 57; 95	Kargaon; 2·0	Local; ..	Bhiwapur; 7·0; Fri.	Kargaon; 2·0	W.;w.	tl.
Navegāṅv—Umr.—नवेगांव ..	.. ..	641·28; 294; 51; 165	Umrer; 5·0	Umrer; 4·0	Umrer; 4·0; ..	Umrer; 4·0	n.;w.	tl.
Navegāṅv—Umr.—नवेगांव ..	N; 18·0	933·90; 299; 62; 182	Jiwanapur; 4·0	Brahmari; 20·0	Adyal; 5·0; Sun.	Mauda; 8·0	w.	tl.
Navegāṅv Kh.—Rmt.—नवेगांव खुर्द	N; 28·0	238·72; 169; 30; 84	Ramtek; 1·4	Ramtek; 2·4	Ramtek; 1·4; Sun.	.. 5·0	W.	tl.
Nāyagāṅv—Ktl.—नायगांव ..	W; 10·6	360·36; 204; 43; 126	Bhisnur; 1·4	Katol; 9·4	Bhisnur; 1·4; Sun.	Bela; 2·6	W.	Sl (pr.); 2 tl; M.
Nāyagāṅv—Ktl.—नायगांव ..	.. ..	.. 168; 31; 95	Jalalkheda; 2·0	Katol; 13·0	Jalalkheda; 2·0; Fri.	.. ..	rv.	Sl (m).
Neralā—Rmt.—नेरला ..	S; 8·0	2267·63; 579; 115; 320	Chacher; 1·0	Chacher; 4·0	Nagardhan; 2·0; ..	Ramtek; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nerī—Ngp.—नेरी ..	E; 16·0	1642·57; 713; 152; 391	Gumthala; 3·0	Kamathi; 6·0	Gumthala; 3·0; Thu.	Mauja Gumath; 4·0	w.	Sl tl.
Nerī—Ngp.—नेरी ..	W; 16·0	1368·22; 964; 224; 551	Vyahad; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 10·0	Vyahad; 2·0; Tue.	Vyahad; 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; M; 2 gym.
Nerī—Umr.—नेरी ..	E; 17·0	2273·42; 117; 22; 58	Adyal; 1·0	Bhiwapur; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 3·0; Fri.	.. 4·0	w.	Cs.; tl.
Neurvāḍā—Rmt.—नेऊरवाडा ..	W; 10·0	528·77; 404; 90; 222	Nawegaon Khairi; 2·0	Mansar; 10·0	Nawegaon Khairi; 2·0; Fri.	.. 5·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nevarī—Umr.—नेवरी ..	NE; 22·0	253·25; 535; 99; 282	Salwa; 1·0	Kuhi; 7·0	Salwa; 1·0; Mon.	Mauda; 6·0	w.	Cs.; tl; gym.
Niharavaṇī—Rmt.—निहरवणी ..	NW; 24·0	1847·26; 1133; 243; 527	Shahapur; 2·4	Khat; 6·0	Shahapur; 2·4; Tue.	Shahapur; 2·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; gym; lib.
Niladoh—Ngp.—निलडोह ..	NW; 18·0	1408·48; 231; 70; 143	Raipur Hingna; 3·0	Nagpur; 6·0	Raipur Hingna; 3·0; Mon.	Peth; 3·0	W.	2 tl.
Niladoh—Ngp.—निलडोह ..	W; 7·0	1056·19; 268; 56; 151	Vyahad; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 8·0	Vyahad; 2·0; Tue.	Nagpur; 7·0	w.	tl.
Nilagāṅv—Snr.—निळगांव ..	SW; 3·0	1018·91; 451; 102; 263	Adasa; 2·0	Saoner; 3·0	Saoner; 3·0; Fri.	Saoner; 3·0	n.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Nīlaj—Rmt.—नीलज ..	S; 14·0	1211·02; 633; 116; 271	Kanhan; 3·0	Kanhan; 3·0	Kamathi; 5·0; Fri.	Kanhan; 3·0	w.;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl; 3 gym; Galadev Fr. Phg. Vad. 1.
Nimajī—Snr.—निमजी ..	S; 18·0	1810·02; 598; 135; 320	Dhamna; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 6·0	Kalameshwar; 6·0; Sun.	Peth. 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office; Distance (4)		Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Nimakhedā Rmt. निमखेडा ..	S;	8·0	1072·09;	654;	155;	200	Kanhan;	4·0	Kanhan;	4·0	Kamathi;	6·0; Fri.	Dumari;	4·0	w.	2 tl.
Nimakhedā Rmt.— निमखेडा ..	SE;	12·0	964·58;	590;	117;	337	Ramtek;	8·0	Dumri;	4·0	Nagardhan;	4·0; Sat.	Mauda;	9·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 3 tl; lib.
Nimatalāī- Snr.— निमतलाई ..	SW;	12·0	485·83;	623;	169;	351	Kothulna;	0·1	Khapa;	5·0	Kothulna;	0·1; Sat.	Kothulna;	0·1	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 2 tl.
Nimbhā—Ngp.—निभा ..	SE;	12·0	714·46;	147;	28;	84	Salai Godhani;	2·4	Itwara Nagpur;	8·0	Salai Godhani;	2·4; Fri.	Nagpur; ..	12-0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Nimbhā—Ngp.—निभा ..	E;	17·0	935·32;	220;	54;	134	Titur;	4·0	Titur;	4·0	Titur;	4·0; Mon.	Gumthala;	4·0	w.	2tl.
Nimbha—Rmt.— निभा ..	E;	16·0	1507·03;	354;	80;	214	Dahegaon;	3·4	Khapa;	7·0	Parshivni;	3·4; Thu.	..	6·0	w.;n.	Sl (pr); 2tl; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15. gym.
Nimbolī—Snr.— निबोली ..	S;	15·0	776·46;	148;	38;	85	Uparvahi;	1·0	Kalameshwar;	6·0	Uparvahi;	1·0; Thu.	..	..	W.;w.	2tl.
Nerhī (Nirvā) Umr.—नेरही निरवा ..	..	..	742·70;	330;	67;	170	Borgaon;	4·0	..	..	Local;	.. Thu.	Local;	..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Niśāṇaghāṭ—Umr.—निशाणघाट ..	W;	16·0	2398·95;	64;	14;	48	Bela;	6·0	Borkhedi;	13-0	Bela;	6·0; Sat.	Butibori;	11·0	w.	2tl.
Pācagāṅv—Umr.—पांचगांव ..	NW;	17·0	3796·92;	1631;	330;	741	Local;	..	Nagpur;	12·0	Local;	.. Thu.	..	0·7	w.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3tl; 3gym; 2 lib; 3dp.
Pacakheḍī—Umr.—पचखेडी ..	NE;	14·0	2227·85;	1270;	252;	637	Local;	..	Brahmani;	8·0	Local;	.. ..	Umrer;	14·0	w.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2tl; M.; dg.
Pacakheḍī—Umr.—पचखेडी ..	NE;	7·0	1082·86;	367;	74;	231	Tarana;	0·4	Brahmani;	2·0	Tarana;	0·4; Sun.	Umrer;	7·0	w.	2tl.
Pācanavarī—Ngp.—पांचनवरी ..	..	..	..	5;	2;	2	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	..
Pāharmī—Umr.—पाहर्मी ..	S;	8·0	1822·11;	603;	126;	269	Mangrul;	3·0	Thana;	4·0	Umrer;	8·0; ..	Mangrul;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.
Paḷasāṭ—Ngp.—पळसाट ..	SE;	12·0	..	744;	164;	454	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pālāsāvāḷī—Rmt.—पालासावळी ..	W;	13·4	215·87;	335;	68;	182	Navegaon khairi;	2·0	Khapa;	10·0	Navegaon Khairi;	2·0; Fri.	Khapa;	10·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl; gym.
Pālī—Rmt.—पाली ..	W;	9·0	762·45;	187;	45;	113	Mahuli;	2·0	Mansar;	6·0	Nawegaon Khairi;	4·0; Fri.	..	4·0	rv.	2tl.
Pālorā—Rmt.—पालोरा ..	NE;	10·0	1694·43;	740;	133;	294	Parshivni;	1·0	Dumari Kh.;	5·0	Parshivni;	1·0; Mon.	..	6·0	w.;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl; M; dg; lib.
Pānamārā—Rmt.—पानमारा ..	S;	23·0	1497·71;	444;	91;	236	Gowari;	21·4	Khat;	10·0	Gowari;	3·0; Thu.	Borgaon;	4·0	w.	2 tl.
Pānavāḍī—Ktl.—पानवाडी ..	W;	10·0	380·69;	516,	114;	339	Katol;	2·0	Katol;	2·0	Katol;	2·0; Tue.	Katol;	2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pānavādī—Ktl.—पानवाडी ..	W;	9·6	1820·00;	107;	22;	66	Bharsingi;	2·4	Kalambha;	7·0	Rohna,	2·0; Sat.	Rohna;	2·0	W.;w.	tl.
Pañcadhār—Ktl.—पंचधार ..	SE;	7·0	1090·31;	418;	91;	228	Kachari Sawanga;	1·4	Katol;	7·0	Kachari Sawanga;	2·0; Fri.	Kalkuti;	2·0	rv.;W.; w.	Sl (pr); 3.l; Devi. Fr. Ct. Vad. 5.
Pañcāḷā Bk.—Rmt.—पंचाळा बु. ..	E;	7·0	1117·78;	679;	121;	312	Mahadula;	2·0	Ramtek;	10·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Ramtek;	7·0	t.; n.	tl.
Pañcāḷā Kh.—Rmt.—पंचाळा खुर्द ..	E;	8·0	838·05;	82;	18;	49	Mahadula;	1·0	Ramtek;	8·00	Panchala Kh;	1·0; Wed.	..	..	W.	tl.
Pāṇḍegāṅv—Umr.—पांडेगांव ..	N;	17·0	606·84;	407;	77;	238	Kuhi;	3·0	Kuhi;	4·0	Kuhi;	3·0; Wed.	..	10·0	w.	tl.
Pāṇḍharaboḍī—Umr.—पांढरवोडी ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	..
Paṇḍharagoṭā—Umr.—पांढरगोटा ..	E;	17·0	664·65;	273;	54;	159	Fegar;	2·0	Bhiwapur;	10·0	Fegar;	2·0; Thu.	.	..	w.	2tl.
Pāṇḍharaḍhākanī—Ktl.—पांढरढाकणी	W;	9·0	353·22;	154;	35;	114	Khapa;	2·0	Katol;	12·0	Paradsinga;	4·0; Wed.	.	4·0	W.;w.	..
Paṇḍharakavaḍā—Ngp.—पांढरकवडा ..	E;	10·0	882·60;	262;	47;	168	Dighori;	3·4	Dighori;	3·4	Nagpur;	7·0; All days.	..	..	w.	tl.
Paṇḍharākherḍā—Snr.—पंढराखेर्डा ..	E;	4·0	750·60;	212;	46;	88	Malegaon;	1·4	Malegaon;	1·4	Saoner;	4·0; Fri.	Saoner;	4·0	W.;w.	..
Pāṇḍharavaṇī—Umr.—पांढरवणी ..	SE;	14·0	1358·70;	532;	112;	305	Medha;	2·0	Bhiwapur;	10·4	Bhiwapur;	10·4; Fri.	Karagaon;	7·0	W.	3tl.
Paṇḍharī—Snr.—पंढरी ..	W;	6·0	562·00;	410;	85;	247	Kothulna	3 0	Khapa;	3·0	Kothulna;	3·0; ..	Khapa;	4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 4tl.
Pāṇḍhuṛṇā—Ngp.—पांढुरणा ..	E;	10·0	727·63;	304;	63;	208	Dighori;	4·0	Dighori;	4·0	Nagpur;	7·0; All days.	..	..	w.	2tl.
Pāñjarā—Ktl.—पांजरा ..	E;	5·0	626·26;	259;	60;	148	Dhavlapur;	1·4	Katol;	4·0	Dhavlapur;	1·4; Sat.	Linga;	1·0	W.;o.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Pāñjarā—Ktl.—पांजरा ..	S; 13·0	2783·80; 601; 141; 293	Kondhali; 3·0	Katol; 14·0	Kondhali; 3·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pāñjarā (Rithi). Ngp.—पांजरा ..	N; 8·0	627·43; 9; 2; 6	Mahadula; 3·0	Koradi; 3·0	Nagpur; 10·0; All days.	.. ..	..	..
Pāñjarā (Rithi)—Rmt.—पांजरा ..	NW; 8·0	725·05; 246, 43; 108	Khat; 3·0	Khat; 3·0	Khat; 3·0; Wed.	Dumari; 3·0	w.	3tl.
Pāñjarā—Snr.—पांजरा ..	SW; 2·0	.. 6; 1; 2	Saoner; 2·0	Saoner; 2·0	Saoner; 2·0; Fri.	Saoner; 2·0	W.	..
Pāñjarā Bk—Ktl.—पांजरा बु. ..	SW; 4·0	626·26; 4; 2; 3	Katol; 4·0	Katol; 4·0	Zilya; 4·0; Fri.	Katol; 4·0	W.;w.	tl.
Pāñjarā Bk.—Ngp.—पांजरा बु. ..	NW; 23·0	971·37; 102; 21; 67	Khapari; .. 1·4	Khapari; 1·4	Nagpur; 7·0; Mon.	Bajarganv; 2·0	W.	tl.
Pāñjarepār—Umr.—पांजरेपार ..	.. 16·0	1701·88; 110; 33; 65	Nand; 2·0	Umrer; 16·0	Nand; 2·0; Sun.	Nand; 2·0	W.;w.	tl.
Pāñjrepār—Umr.—पांजरेपार ..	.. ..	.. 441; 81; 256	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.;t.	Sl (pr).
Pāñjarī—Ngp.—पांजरी ..	SE; 8·4	1327·13; 298; 61; 156	Bajargaon; 2·0	Nagpur; 24·0	Bajargaon; 2·0; Mon.	.. 1·0	w.	tl.
Pāñjarī—Ngp.—पांजरी ..	NW; 15·0	1514·06; 162; 34; 96	Gumgaon; 2·0	Khapri; 4·0	Gumgaon; 2·0; Sun.	Hingana; 3·0	W.	tl.
Pāñjarī Kh.—Ngp.—पांजरी खुर्द ..	SE; 11·0	795·53; 321; 4; 201	Bori; .. 7·0	Dongargaon; 3·0	Gumgaon; 5·0; Sun.	Gumgaon; 5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 3tl.
Pān Ubāḷī—Snr.—पान उबाळी ..	S; 4·0	1184·12; 379; 106; 254	Kamathi; 3·0	Saoner; 6·0	Mohpa; 4·0; Wed.	Saoner; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr).
Pāraḍagāṅv—Umr.—पारडगांव ..	N; 8·0	1605·81; 120; 21; 62	Makar Dhokda; 3·0	Umrer; 11·0	Makar Dhokda; 3·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	W.	tl.
Pāraḍīśiṅgā—Ktl.—पारडीशिंगा ..	W; 6·0	2644 68; 3373; 828; 1775	Local; ..	Kalambha; 3·4	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W.;w.	3Sl (pr, m, h); Cs (c); 4tl; dg; dh; Gal Fr. Mg. Vad. 1; 2lib; 2dp.
Pārḍī—Ktl.—पार्डी ..	N; 6·0	.. 902; 202; 497	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	
Pārdī—Ktl.—पार्डी ..	.. ..	.. 2; 2; 2	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Pārḍi—Rmt.—पार्डी ..	.. ..	.. 562; 125; 288	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr);
Pāraḍī—Ktl.—पारडी ..	E; 14·0	720·12; 333; 69; 179	Ridhora; 3·0	Katol; 3·0	Katol; 3·0; Tue.	Katol; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
*Pāraḍī—Ngp.—पारडी ..	E; 6.0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	4tl.
Pāraḍī—Ngp.—पारडी ..	NW; 10·0	564·32; 454; 89; 207	Bhandewadi; 0·2	.. ..	Bhandewadi; 1·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Pāraḍī Kh.—Rmt.—पार्डी खुर्द ..	SE; 13·0	554·34; 164; 25; 104	Nimkheda; 3·0	Tharasa; 3·0	Nimkheda; 3·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 13·0	W.; w.	tl.
Pāraḍī—Umr.—पारडी ..	NE; 8·0	1273·68; 666, 139; 376	Tarana; .. 2·0	Brahmani; 4·0	Mandhal; 4·0; Tue.	Umrer; 8·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pārḍīkalā—Rmt.—पार्डी कला ..	SE; 13·0	895·74; 253; 45; 142	Nimkheda; 2·0	Tharsa; 2·0	Nimkheda; 2·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 13·0	w.	Cs.; tl.
Pāraśivanī—Rmt.—पारशिवनी ..	NE; 12·0	2078·06; 3877; 910; 998	Local; ..	Khaperkheda; 7·0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 7·0	w.; t.	2Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 20tl; 2M; mq; dg; 5gym; 2lib.
Parasoḍī—Ktl.—परसोडी ..	NW; 14·0	731·37; 199; 41; 99	Narkhed; 1·4	Narkhed; 1·4	Narkhed; 1·4; Sun.	Narkhed; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Parasoḍī—Ngp.—परसोडी ..	E; 16·0	859·09; 155; 35; 90	Bori; .. 3·0	Bori; 3·0	Bori; 3·0; Tue.	Bhandara Road; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 3tl.
Parasoḍī—Ngp.—परसोडी ..	S; 5·0	1106·63; 326; 65; 170	Nagpur; 2·0	Khapri; 2·0	Nagpur; 8·0; Sat.	.. 1·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 4tl.
*Parasoḍī—Ngp.—परसोडी ..	E; 9·0	473·63;	Gokulpeth; 2·0	Nagpur; 4·0	Gokulpeth; 4·0; Fri.	Nagpur; 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); *Co-operative Bank; 2tl.
Parasoḍī—Ngp.—परसोडी ..	S; 8·2	1288·55; 360; 95; 220	Dighori; 3·0	Dighori; 3·0	Nagpur; 9·0; All days.	.. 0·1	W.;w.	4tl.
Parasoḍī—Rmt.—परसोडी ..	W; 12·6	1021·61; 1108; 212; 458	Govari; 3·0	Khat; .. 7·0	Govari; 3·0; Sat.	.. 8·6	w.	tl.
Parasoḍī—Rmt.—परसोडी ..	NE; 14·0	610·62; 216, 44; 127	Parshivni; 2·0	Khaperkheda; 4·0	Parshivni; 2·0; Mon.	.. 5·0	w.	2tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Parasoḍī—Rmt.—परसोडी ..	SE; 24·0	666·34; 586; 152; 36	Mansar; 2·0	Ramtek; 2·0	Mansar; 2·0; Thu.	Mauja Khasbi; ..	w.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Parasoḍī—Rmt.—परसोडी ..	W; 1·0	429·42; 145; 26; 78	Navegaon Khairi; 2·0	Khapa; 10·0	Navegaon-khairi; 2·0; Fri.	Local; ..	w.	tl.
Parasoḍī—Snr.—परसोडी ..	N; 4·0	923·93; 394; 101; 179	Kelwad; 2·0	Kelwad; 2·0	Kelwad; 2·0; Thu.	Kelwad; 2·0	n.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl, M.
Parasoḍī—Snr.—परसोडी ..	S; 4·0	1870·99; 644; 182; 396	Pipla; 2·0	Saoner; 6·0	Dhapewada; 2·0; Tue.	Saoner; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Parasoḍī—Umr.—परसोडी ..	S; 0·1	1113·22; 689; 145; 384	Pachakhedi; 0·4	Brahmani; 10·0	Pachakhedi; 0·4; Mon.	Umrer; 1·0	w.	4tl.
Parasoḍī—Umr.—परसोडी ..	NE; 7·0	1303·63; 327; 67; 198	Chanpa; 3·0	Umrer; 12·0	Chanpa; 3·0; Sat.	Umrer; 7·0	w.	tl.
Parasoḍī—Umr.—परसोडी ..	NW; 12·0	591·57; 121; 30; 23	Bhiwapur; 0·4	Bhiwapur; 1·0	Bhiwapur; 0·4; Fri.	Uti; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Parasoḍī—Umr.—परसोडी ..	E; 14·0	591·57; 156; 34; 52	Bhiwapur; 0·4	Bhiwapur; 1·0	Bhiwapur; 0·4; Fri.	.. 1·0	w.	tl.
Parasoḍī—Umr.—परसोडी ..	.. ..	.. 15; 15; 12	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Parasoḍī (Dikṣit)—Ktl.—परसोडी (दिक्षित)	NW; 13·0	1122·47; 287; 66; 178	Ladgaon; 1·4	Katol; .. 5·0	Katol; 5·0; Tue.	Bharasingi; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 2tl; lib.
Parasoḍī (Gaṅgāpoḷ)—Ktl.—परसोडी (गंगापोळ) ..	W; 13·0	820·77; 546; 124; 312	Bharsingi .. 1·0	Katol; 13·0	Rohna; 2·0 ..	Bharsingi; 1·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr). tl; lib
Paṭagauvarī—Rmt.—पटगौरी ..	.. ..	5292·87; 1176; 261; 589	Khandala Dumari; 2·0	Khandala; 5·0	Mansar; 2·0; Thu.	Patagovari; 3·0	..	Sl (pr); Co-operative Credit Bank. 3tl; gym.
Paṭakākheḍī—Snr.—पटकाखेडी ..	NE; 3·0	1074·84; 497; 101; 270	Malegaon; 1·4	Malegaon; 1·4	Saoner; 3·0; Fri.	Saoner; 3·0	rv.;w.	Cs (cr); tl.
Pāṭaṇasāvaṅgī—Snr.—पाटण-सावंगी. ..	.. ..	2200·00; 4285; 869; 1180	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	rv.;w.	4Sl (2pr, m, h); 8Cs (8 mis) 13tl, M; mq; 3dh; 5gym; 2 lib; 3dp; Vithal Fr. Krt. Sud. 11.
Paṭhār—Ktl.—पठार ..	.. ..	884·79; 92; 20; 59	Katol; 2·0	Katol; 2·0	Katol; 2·0; Tue.	Katol; 2·0	..	..
Patharaī—Rmt.—पथरई ..	N; 18·0	1171·18; 760; 151; 459	Pauni; 3·0	Ramtek; 15·0	Pauni; 3·0; Wed.	Pauni; 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Pauṇī—Rmt.—पौनी ..	N; 15·0	1111·58; 442; 107; 120	Local; ..	Ramtek; 13·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl; lib; dp.
Pauṇī F. V.—Rmt.—पौनी ..	.. ..	0·02; 121; 19; 83	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Pauṇī—Umr.—पौणी ..	NE; 17·0	680·00; 187; 37; 99	Pipari; 3·0	Kuhi 18·0	Navegoon; 2·0; Mon	Umrer; 17·0	W.	tl.
Pauṇī—Umr.—पौणी ..	.. ..	413·25; 83; 18; 52	Channa; 4·0	Kuhi; 9·0	Kudaba; 2·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.	tl.
Pauṇī—Umr.—पौणी ..	W; 24·0	1464·98; 195; 41; 118	Nand; 1·4	Umrer; 17·4	Nand; 1·4; Sun.	.. ..	W.	tl.
Pāvaḍdaunā—Rmt.—पावडदौना ..	S; 17·0	1172·11; 296; 59; 177	Mauda; 1·0	Tharsa; 1·0	Mauda; 1·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	w.	tl.
Pāvaṇagāṅv—Ngp.—पावणगांव	E; 6·0	1458·36; 502; 64; 282	Paradi; 2·0	Kamathi; 6·0	Kamathi; 6·0; Fri.	.. ..	w.	Cs; 2tl; gym.
Peṇḍakāpār—Umr.—पेंडकापार ..	NW; 22·0	1247·15; 163; 27; 92	Bela; 2·0	Borkhedi; 9·0	Bela; 2·0; Sat.	Sonegaon; 7·0	w.	2tl.
Pāṇḍharāboḍī—Umr.—पांढरा-बोडी. ..	E; 50·0	1035·28; 571; 129; 304	Mangrul; .. 3·0	.. 0·6	Umrer; 6·0; Mon.	Local; ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.
Peṇḍharī—Ngp.—पेंढरी ..	NW; 33·0	2226·30; 275; 57; 166	Kanholi; 5·0	Sindhi; 17·0	Deoli; 2·0; Sat.	Deoli; 2·0	w.	tl.
Peṇḍharī—Rmt.—पेंढरी ..	NE; 18·0	942·43; 357; 81; 234	Parshivni; 6·0	Khapa; 10·0	Parshivni; 6·0; Fri.	Deolapar; 2·0	w.	tl.
Peṇḍharī—Rmt.—पेंढरी ..	E; 15·0	679·01; 243; 47; 118	.. ..	.. 15·0	Deolapar; 2·0; Tue.	.. 8·0	w.	tl.
Peṇḍharī—Snr.—पेंढरी ..	S; 14·0	665·16; 139; 37; 76	Umari; 3·0	Kelwad; 6·0	Kelwad; 6·0; Thu.	Khapa; 8·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Peṇḍharī—Umr.—पेंढरी ..	SE; 12·0	1380·24; 150; 38; 92	Chanpa; 3·0	Umrer; 15·0	Chanpa; 3·0; Sat.	.. 2·0	rv.	tl.
Peṇḍharī—Umr.—पेंढरी ..	.. ..	903·53; 4; 4; 4	Kargaon; 2·0	Kargaon; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 6·0; Fri.	Kargaon; 3·0	W.;w.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office; Distance (4)		Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)			Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Peṭhī Ismāīlpūr—Ktl.—पेठी इस्माइलपूर. ..	W;	14·4	933·43;	445;	83;	228	Jalalkheda;	0·4	Katol;	14·4	Jalalkheda;	0·4;	Fri.	Jalalkheda;	0·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Peṭh Kāḷdoṅgarī—Ngp.—पेठ काळडोंगरी. ..	W;	14·4	489·78;	613;	132;	259	Vhyahad;	1·0	Nagpur;	14·0	Local;	..	..	Vhyahad;	0·1	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3tl; dh; gym.
Pevaṭhā—Ngp.—पेवठा ..	S;	10·0	1054·04;	168;	29;	115	Khapri;	3·0	Khapri;	3·0	Nagpur;	7·0;	Mon.	..	11·0	W.	2tl; gym.
Pevaṭhā—Rmt.—पेवठा ..	S;	24·0	751·60;	140;	22;	67	Nagar;	1·0	Khat;	12·0	Nagar;	1·0;	Tues. and Thu.	Nagar;	1·0	W.	tl; Ch.
Phegaḍ—Umr.—फेगड ..	E;	18·0	1962·29;	1365;	256;	722	Local;	..	Bhiwapur;	12·0	Local;	..	Thu.	Local;	..	w;t.; n.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Pheṭarī—Ktl.—फेटरी ..	W;	2·0	496·04;	365;	79;	213	Katol;	2·0	Katol;	2·0	Katol;	2·0;	Tue.	Khanagaon;	1·0	W.;w.	..
Pheṭarī—Ngp.—फेटरी ..	W;	7·6	589·27;	581;	143;	297	Local;	..	Bharatwada;	3·0	Kalameshwar;	5·0;	Sun.	Local;	..	W.	Sl (pr, m); 2tl.
Pukeśvar—Umr.—पुकेश्वर ..	W;	4·0	345·67;	238;	57;	129	Thana;	2·0	Bori;	9·0	Thana;	2·0;	Mon.	..	6·0	w.	tl.
Phulajharī—Rmt.—फुलझरी ..	N;	16·0	649·28;	262;	48;	131	Hiwara;	4·0	Mansar;	19·4	Hiwara;	4·0;	Mon.	Pauni;	12·0	w.	tl.
Phulajharī—Rmt.—फुलझरी ..	..	..	345·00;	37;	7;	18	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Phusāgondī—Ktl.—फुसागोंदी ..	SE;	14·0	1523·12;	539;	113;	325	Kondhali;	4·0	Katol;	16·0	Kondhali;	4·0;	Wed.	Kondhali;	4·0	w.;w.	Sl (pr); tl; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13.
Pilkāpār—Ngp.—पिल्कापार ..	S;	9·0	..	98;	15;	63	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	Pachgaon;	4·0	W.	tl.
Pilkāpār—Snr.—पिलकापार ..	S;	12·0	1686·18;	432;	103;	220	Telgaon;	4·0	Kohali;	8·0	Mohpa;	5·0;	Wed.	Mohpa;	4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 3tl; 'Pilkapar Hill'.
Pilāpūr—Ktl.—पिलापूर ..	N;	20·0	619·91;	251;	50;	157	Narkhed;	3·4	Narkhed;	3·4	Narkhed;	3·0;	Sun.	Welona;	1·0	rv.;n.	6tl.
Pipaḷā—Snr.—पिपळा ..	E;	5·0	668·16;	77;	14;	44	Umari;	3·0	Saoner;	5·0	Saoner;	5·0;	Fri.	Saoner;	5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3Cs (3 mis); tl; Dak Bunglow; lib.
Pipaḷā—Snr.—पिपळा ..	S;	17·4	1137·00;	827;	168;	336	Local;	..	Local;	..	Patansawangi;	3·0;	Tue.	Kalameshwar;	1·0	..	..
Pipaḷā—Snr.—पिपळा ..	S;	7·0	1139·47;	1272;	315;	686	Local;	..	Saoner;	8·0	Mohpa;	3·0;	..	Mohpa;	2·0	W.;w.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); tl.
Pipaḷā—Snr.—पिपळा ..	SW;	12·0	296·96;	10;	1;	7	Khapa;	4·0	Khapa;	4·0	Khapa;	4·0;	Sun. and Wed.	Khapa;	4·0	..	..
Pipaḷgāṅv—Rmt.—पिपळगांव ..	NE;	21·0	502·07;	326;	75;	123	Indora;	5·0	Khat;	4·0	Tanda;	1·0;	..	Varthi;	10·0	w.	tl.
Pipaḷgāṅv (Rāut)—Ktl.—पिपळगांव (राऊत) ..	NW;	14·0	1864·58;	696;	169;	386	Kharsoli;	3·0	Narkhed;	6·0	Kharsoli;	3·0;	Wed.	Bharasingi;	4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2Cs (c, mis); 3tl. M. lib.
Pipaḷgāṅv (Vākhājī)—Ktl.—पिपळगांव (वाखाजी) ..	N;	15·0	1503·43;	555,	133;	282	Narkhed;	1·4	Narkhed;	1·4	Narkhed;	1·4;	Sun.	Narkhed;	2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 4tl; dg.
Piṇḍakāpār—Rmt.—पिंडकापार ..	NE;	3·0	392·03;	444;	89;	216	Ramtek;	2·4	Ramtek;	3·0	Ramtek;	2·4;	Sun.	Ramtek;	3·0	w.	tl; gym.
Piṇḍakāpār—Rmt.—पिंडकापार ..	N;	29·0	809·46;	279;	50;	159	Karvahi;	8·0	..	..	Khawara;	10·0;	Wed.	Deolapar;	8·0	w.	tl.
Pipaḷā—Ngp.—पिपळा ..	SE;	6·0	..	635;	126;	356	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3·0	w.	Sl (Pr); Cs (c); 2tl.
Pipaḷā—Rmt.—पिपळा ..	SW;	11·0	1400·27;	413;	94;	210	Parshivni;	4·0	Dumari;	4·0	Parshivni;	4·0;	Mon.	Parshivni;	4·0	W.; rv.	Sl (Pr); Cs (c); 4tl; dg.
Pipaḷadarā—Ktl.—पिपळदरा ..	W;	21·0	1243·96;	181;	50;	121	Mendhla;	3·0	Katol;	22·0	Mendhla;	3·0;	Tue.	Jalalkheda;	8·0	w.	2tl; dg.
Pipaḷādarā—Ngp.—पिपळदरा ..	NW;	19·0	1769·31;	377;	84;	178	Amgaon;	4·0	Gumgaon;	4·0	Kanholi;	5·0;	Sun.	Butibori;	10·0	w.	tl.
Pipaḷagāṅv—Umr.—पिपळगांव ..	..	..	..	12;	3;	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	..
Pipaḷā—Umr.—पिपळा ..	..	..	..	260;	60;	175	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Piplā Kevalarām—Ktl.—पिपळा केवलराम.	NE; 15·0	1012·31; 1510; 349; 730	Local; ..	Narkhed; 14·0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 6·0	W.	Sl (m); Cs (cr); tl; mq; 2dg.
Pipaḷa Khurd—Ktl.—पिपळ खुर्द	N; 16·0	.. 128; 29; 42	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 7·0	W.; w.	tl.
Piparā—Umr.—पिपरा	NW; 16·0	.. 142; 28; 86	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 10·0	W.; rv.	Sl (pr, m) 5 tl; mq.
Piparā—Umr.—पिपरा	NW; 12·0	827·01; 142; 61; 122	Navegaon; 4·0	Umrer; 9·0	Umrer; 9·0; Mon.	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2tl.
Piparaḍoh—Ngp.—पिपरडोह	.. ..	.. 9; 2; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n.	..
Piparaḍoḷ—Umr.—पिपरडोळ	E; ..	1359·77; 151; 33; 81	Makardhokda; 4·0	Umrer; 12·0	Makardhokda; 4·0; Fri.	.. ..	w.	..
Piparī—Ngp.—पिपरी	NW; 5·0	449·57; 133; 31; 86	Takalghat; 3·0	Butibori; 7·0	Takalghat; 3·0; Sat.	Bori; 7·0	W.; rv.	Cs; tl; Tripuri Paurnima Fr. Kt. Sud. 15.
Piparī—Rmt.—पिपरी	SE; 18·0	1055·54; 392; 81; 210	Dhanala; 2·0	Rewarala; 3·0	Dhanala; 2·0; Sun.	Borgaon; 6·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Piparī—Umr.—पिपरी	NW; 26·0	3501·50; 1414; 316; 709	Local; ..	Borkhedi; 14·0	Local; .. Thu.	.. 6·0	rv.	2 tl.
Piparī—Umr.—पिपरी	N; 18·0	667·35; 228; 37; 132	Ambhora; 4·0	Brahmani; 20·0	Adyal; 6·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	w.	2 tl.
Pipārīyā—Rmt.—पिपारीया	N; 20·0	630·39; 356; 70; 208	Pauni; 5·0	Ramtek; 17·0	Pauni; 5·0; Wed.	Pauni; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; 2 dp.
Pipārīyā Peth—Rmt.—पिपारीया पेठ	.. ..	.. 6; 1; 1	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Pirāvā—Umr.—पिरावा	.. ..	1238·66; 895; 189; 445	Besur; 2·0	Umrer; 12·0	Besur; 2·0; Fri.	Besur; 2·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pirāvā—Umr.—पिरावा	S; 13·0	1110·00; 225; 48; 131	Umrer; 2·0	Umrer; 2·0	Umrer; 2·0; Mon.	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Piṭīcuvā—Umr.—पिटीचुवा	W; 14·0	.. 94; 24; 66	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 2·0	W.; w.	tl; Cch.
Piṭesūr—Ngp.—पिटेसूर	.. ..	.. 1; 1; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Piṭhorī—Ktl.—पिठोरी	.. ..	.. 340; 78; 232	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Pohānā—Snr.—पोहाना	.. ..	.. 1; 1; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Pohārā—Umr.—पोहारा	.. ..	.. 72; 13; 22	Kijba; 1·0	Kuhi; 13·0	Weltur; 4·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.	..
Pohī—Ngp.—पोही	NW; 18·0	1780·44; 111; 26; 73	Salai dhabha; 2·0	Bori; 5·0	Bori; 5·0; ..	Bori; 5·0	W.; w.	6 tl; M.
Pohī—Ngp.—पोही	N; 27·0	902·09; 56; 11; 39	Bela; 1·0	Borkhedi; 6·0	Bela; 1·0; Sat.	Songaon; 4·0	rv.	tl; dg.
Pohī Goṇḍkhairī—Snr.—पोही गोंडखैरी	SW; 14·0	1629·16; 439; 95; 257	Kohali; 2·0	Kohali; 2·0	Kohali; 2·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; lib.
Poḷagāṅv—Umr.—पोळगांव	NE; 23·0	2989·47; 205; 46; 131	Nand; 2·0	Umrer; 14·0	Nand; 2·0; Sun.	Nand; 2·0	W.; w.	tl.
Poṭā—Snr.—पोटा	E; 21·0	188·25; 940; 262; 212	Khaperkheda; 3·0	Khaperkheda; 3·0	Nagpur; 11·0; Sun.	Khaperkheda; 3·0	rv.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; lib.
Pular—Umr.—पुलर	E; 15·0	2351·43; 641; 141; 372	Adyal; 6·0	Bhiwapur; 8·0	Bhiwapur; 8·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 3·0	rv.; t.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; Ramnavmi. Fr. Ct. Sud 9. 2dg; gym.
Punāpūr—Ngp.—पुनापूर	E; 7·0	.. ..	Bhandewadi; 1·0	Bhandewadi; 2·0	Bhandewadi; 1·0; Sun.	Bhandewadi; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 4 tl.
Pusadā—Rmt.—पुसदा	NE; 18·0	119·22; 522; 97; 276	Hiwara; 8·0	Mansar; 27·0	Hiwara; 8·0; Mon.	Pauni; 12·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pusāgondī—Umr.—पुसागोंदी	E; 12·0	1157·97; 17; 5; 13	Brahmani; 6·0	Brahmani; 6·0	Brahmani; 6·0; Thu.	.. 2·0	w.; rv.	tl.
Rahāḍī—Rmt.—रहाडी	S; 15·4	1146·35; 146; 30; 83	Mauda; 3·0	Salwa; 19·0	Mauda; 3·0; Fri.	Mauda; 3·0	W.	tl.
Rājanā Haḷadagāṅv—Snr.—राजना हळदगांव	.. 7·0	608·26; 40; 10; ..	Khapa; 3·0	Khapa; 2·4	Khapa; 3·0; Sun.	Khapa; 3·0	O.	2 tl.; dg.
Rājanī—Ktl.—राजनी	N; 8·0	952·00; 460; 102; 268	Dorli; 1·0	Kalambha; 5·0	Sawargaon; 1·4; Mon;	.. 2·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Rājedahegāṅv—Rmt.—राजेदहेगांव	SE; 24·0	1436·13; 458; 92; 199	Govari; 2·0	Khat; 7·0	Gowari; 2·0; Sat.	Mauja Khasbi; 1·0	w.; rv; t.	tl.
Rājegāṅv—Snr.—राजेगांव	.. ..	731·01; 355; 86; 228	Bichwa; 1·0	Kelwad; 10·0	Nagalwadi; 5·0; Fri.	Kelwad; 10·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); tl; dp.
Rājolā—Umr.—राजोला	E; 22·0	1103·08; 1281; 269; 640	Gothangaon; 1·0	Bhiwapur; 13·0	Gothangaon; 1·0; Wed.	.. 6·0	W.; w.	Sl. 2 gym; lib; dp.
Rājolī—Rmt.—राजोली	SE; 11·0	1237·22; 349; 75; 201	Rewarala; 1·4	Rewarala; 1·4	Kodamendhi; 3·0; Thu.	Mauda; 12·0	w.	2 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Rājolī—Umr.—राजोली ..	.. ..	3088·15; 438; 84; 237	Local; ..	Kuhi; 16·0	Salwa; 5·0; Mon.	.. ..	W.;w.	3 Sl (pr, 2h); 3 tl; Ch; lib; dp.
Rajulavāḍī—Umr.—राजुलवाडी ..	NW; 6·0	1033·43; 37; 16; 25	Udasa; 1·0	Umrer; 7·0	Umrer; 7·0; Mon.	.. ..	..	..
Rāmā—Ngp.—रामा ..	S; 24·0	2230·48; 597; 142; 395	Borkhedi; 3·0	Borkhedi; 3·0	Bela; 4·0; Sat.	Sonegaon; 5·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Rāmadoṅgarī—Snr.—रामडोंगरी	E; 8·0	1330·35; 138; 31; 20	Kothulna; 3·0	Khapa; 2·0	Khapa; 2·0; Sun. and Wed.	Khapa; 3·0	rv.;w.	tl; Manganese ore.
Rāmagirī—Snr.—रामगिरी ..	SW; 13·0	2259·96; 81; 18; 50	Kohali; 3·0	Kohali; 3·0	Kohali; 3·0; Fri.	Mohpa; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr).
Rāmajām—Rmt.—रामजाम ..	N; 11·0	145·04; 49; 11; 29	Hiwara; 4·4	Mansar; 20·0	Hiwara; 4·4; Mon.	Pauni; 8·0	w.	tl.
Rāmapūrī—Snr.—रामपूरी ..	NE; 5·0	1225·47; 448; 115; 252	Mangasa; 1·0	Kelwad; 3·0	Kelwad; 1·0; Thu.	Kelwad; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dg.
Rāmapūrī (Malguzari)—Ktl.—रामपूरी.	W; 23·0	386·18; 192; 41; 114	Kamathi; 3·0	Katol; 25·0	Manikwada; 2·0; Fri.	Turungwada; 6·0	w.	tl.
Rāmaṭek—Rmt.—रामटेक ..	HQ; ..	1424·49; 11758; 2529; 1217	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W.; t.	Memory of Kalidas; Ramsagar; Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 17 Sl (9 pr; 4 m; 4 h); Mun; 8 Cs (8 misc); 12 tl; M; 2 mq; 4 dg; 2 dh; 10 gym; lib; 6 dp.
Rāmathī—Ktl.—रामथी ..	W; 20·0	1826·83; 427; 100; 231	Local; ..	Katol; 20·0	Mendhla; 3·0; Tue.	Sawanga Lohari. 5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Rānaboḍī—Umr.—रानबोडी ..	E; 8·0	.. 336; 125; 174	Umrer; 8·0	Bramhni; 6·0	Umrer; 8·0; Mon.	Umrer; 8·0	W.;t.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Gym.
Ranāḷā—Ngp.—रनाळा ..	N; 10·0	1424·97; 370; 62; 103	Kamathi; 1·0	Kamathi; 1·0	Kamathi; 1·0; Fri.	Nagpur; 10·0	w.	5 tl; dg.
Rānamaṅgalī—Ngp.—रानमांगली	E; 23·0	725·73; 202; 32; 102	Bhugaon; 4·0	Titur; 6·0	Mauda; 3·0; Fri.	Mauda; 6·0	w.	tl.
Rānamāṅgalī—Umr.—रानमांगली	E; 10·0	3046·75; 193; 40; 108	Bhiwapur; 4·0	Bhiwapur; 4·0	Bhivapur; 4·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 4·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); tl; Ch.
Rānavāḍī—Ktl.—रानवाडी ..	NW; 3·4	200·00; 161; 37; 106	Bharsingi; 2·4	Kalambha; 7·0	Rohna; 2·0; Sat.	.. 1·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Ratnāpūr—Umr.—रत्नापूर ..	NE; 20·0	845·08; 178; 34; 99	Weltur; 1·0	Bramhni; 18·0	Weltur; 1·0; Fri.	.. 12·0	W.	tl.
Rāūlagāṅv—Ktl.—राऊळगांव ..	E; 16·0	2523·34; 820; 190; 452	Dorli; 2·4	Kohali; 2·0	Dorli; 2·4; Thu.	Dorli; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 4 Cs (4 mis); 2 tl; gym; lib.
Rāyabāsā—Snr.—रायबासा ..	W; 8·0	2343·64; 275; 68; 162	Kelwad; 3·0	Kelwad; 3·4	Kelwad; 3·0; Thu.	.. 3·0	W.;w.	Cs (c); 2 tl.
Rāyapūr—Ngp.—रायपूर ..	NW; 9·0	435·59; 2349; 502; 693	Local; ..	Khapri; 6·0	Local; .. Mon.	Nagpur; 9·0	rv.;w.	4 Sl (2 pr; m; h); M; mq; 4 dg; Holi Fr; Phg. Vad. 1; lib; 2 dp.
Rāyavāḍī—Snr.—रायवाडी ..	SW; 11·0	1151·26; 500; 114; 295	Bichawa; 3·0	Kelwad; 8·0	Kelwad; 8·0; Thu.	Kelwad; 8·0	n,; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; Mahadev. Fr. Mg. Vad. 13.
Reṅgātūr—Umr.—रेंगातूर ..	E; 16·0	829·18; 476; 101; 277	Gothangaon; 2·0	Brahmani; 14·0	Gothangaon; 2·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Revarāḷā—Rmt.—रेवराळा ..	SE; 12·0	2858·05; 879; 194; 444	Local; ..	Local; ..	Tharsa; 4·0; Sun.	Mauda; 12·0	w.	Cs.; 3 tl; dh; lib.
Ridhorā—Ktl.—रिधोरा ..	E; 5·4	1342·72; 2334; 585; 1172	Local; ..	Katol; 5·4	Katol; 5·4; Tue.	Local; ..	W.;w.	3 Sl (2 pr; m); Cs (c) 8 tl; dh; dp.
Ridhorā—Ngp.—रिधोरा ..	S; 25·0	.. 1029; 222; 529	Local; ..	Butibori; 5·4	Butibori; 5·4; Tue.	.. 7·0	rv.; w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; Datta Fr. Mg. Sud. 15.
Ridhorā—Umr.—रिधोरा ..	W; 21·0	342·41; 21; 4; 14	Brahmani; 1·0	Brahmani; 1·0	.. 6·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	w.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (9)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Riṅgaṇābodī—Ktl.—रिंगणाबोडी	S; 16·0	850·42; 337; 85; 225	Kondhali; 6·0	Katol; 17·0	Kondhali; 6·0; Wed.	Chakadoh; 1·0;	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr; m); tl.
Risāḷā—Snr.—रिसाळा ..	NE; 10·1	291·22; 145; 37; 96	Khapa; 4·4	Khapa; 4·4	Khapa; 4·4; Sun. and Wed.	Khapa; 4·4	W.;w.	tl.
Rohaṇā—Ktl.—रोहणा ..	W; 9·0	21·80; 1269; 302; 703	Bhisnur; 3·0	Kalambha; 6·0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 0·1	W.;rv.	2 Sl (pr m); 3 Cs (cr; 2 mis); 2 tl; lib.
Rohaṇā—Snr.—रोहणा ..	S; 19·0	771·88; 348; 89; 170	Pipla; 4·0	Pipla; 4·0	Nagpur; 13·0; Sun.	Pipla; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Rohaṇā—Snr.—रोहणा ..	E; 15·0	372·29; 51; 11; 25	Dhamana; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 8·0	Peth; 1·0 ..	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; Vithal Rakhumai; Fr; Ash. Sud, 15.
Rohaṇā—Umr.—रोहणा ..	SE; 18·0	438·96; 205; 20; 190	Bhiwapur; 2·0	Medha; 2·4	Bhiwapur; 3·4; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 4·0	W.	tl.
Ruī—Ngp.—रुई ..	S; 10·0	1091·33; 577; 138; 318	Butibori; 0·4	Butibori; 1·0	Butibori; 0·4; ..	.. 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; Rangapanchami; Fr; gym; Phg. Vad; 5.
Ruīkhairī—Ngp.—रुई खैरी ..	S; 18·0	768·19; 346; 86; 123	Khapari Rly.; 2·0	Khapari Rly.; 2·0	.. .. ..	Bori; 0·2	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Ruyāḍ—Umr.—रुयाड ..	W; 18·0	938·88; 671; 133; 418	Mandhal; 3·0	Brahmani; 5·0	Mandhal; 2·0; Tue.	.. 10·0;	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Ruyāḍ—Umr.—रुयाड ..	NE; 14·0	.. 200; 40; 118	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sabakuṇḍ—Ktl.—सबकुंड ..	.. ..	.. 357; 86; 222	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Sagamā—Ktl.—सगमा ..	SW; 2·0	249·13; 10; 6; 5	Katol; 2·0	Katol; 2·0	Katol; 2·0; Tue.	Katol; 2·0	W.;w.	2 tl.
Sahajāpūr—Ktl.—सहजापूर ..	W; 11·0	418·10; 157; 38; 72	Bharshingi; 0·4	Katol; 12·0	Jalalkheda; 3·4; Fri.	.. 0·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sahajāpūr—Snr.—सहजापूर ..	S; 14·0	.. 9; 4; 7	Kalameshwar; ..	Kalameshwar; ..	.. .. ..	Kalameshwar; ..	W.	..
Śahāpūr—Rmt.—शहापूर ..	N; 18·0	553·20; 63; 14; 40	Pauni; 4·0	Ramtek; 15·0	Pauni; 4·0; Wed.	Pauni; 4·0	w.	tl.
Sāhulī—Rmt.—साहुली ..	.. ..	.. 264; 58; 130	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Sāhulī—Snr.—साहुली ..	S; 14·0	1391·91; 552; 132; 229	Nanda; 4·0	Kelwad; 5·0	Kelwad; 5·0; Thu.	Kalameshwar; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
*Sakkaradarā—Ngp.—सक्करदरा	S; 4·0	546·85; 2	Local; ..	Itwari; 3·0	Local; .. Sun. and Thu.	Local; ..	W.;w.	3 Sl (pr; m. h.); 5 tl; dg.
Sakaralā—Rmt.—सकरला ..	W; 17·0	891·05; 201; 45; 135	Dahegaon Joshi; 4·0	Khapa; 6·0	Dahegaon Joshi. 4·0; Thu.	Pipla; 6·0	W.tl.	..
Sarākhā—Rmt.—सराखा ..	W; 4·6	1872·04; 442; 125; 212	Borda; 0·3	Ramtek; 7·0	Mansar; 4·0; Thu.	Kandri; 2·4	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sākharakheḍā—Ktl.—साखरखेडा	W; 22·0	627·90; 408; 105; 272	Davasa; 2·0	Katol; 18·0	Mendhla; 3·0; Tue.	Jalalkheda; 8·0	..	Sl (pr); tl.
Salā—Umr.—सला ..	.. ..	.. 7; 1; ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Salā—Umr.—सला ..	.. ..	.. 202; 40; 124	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.;t.	..
Sālaī—Ktl.—सालई ..	W; 25·0	470·00; 5; 1; 2	Yenwa; 3·0	Katol; 9·0	Katol; 9·0; Tue.	Yenwa; 3·0	..	..
Sālaī—Rmt.—सालई ..	N; 12·0	929·72; 256; 44; 168	Pauni; 4·0	Ramtek; 17·0	Pauni; 4·0; Wed.	Pauni; 1·0	w.	tl.
Sālaī—Rmt.—सालई ..	.. ..	.. 512; 122; 317	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Sālaī—Snr.—सालई ..	W; 9·0	1482·89; 736; 167; 375	Nanda; 2·0	Saoner; 10·0	Nanda; 2·0; Sun.	Umari; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Sālaī Bk.—Ktl.—सालई बु. ..	S; 11·0	1079·32; 38; 13; 23	Kachari Sawanga. 2·0	Katol; 10·0	Kondhali; 5·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 1·0	W.;w.	3 tl.
Sālaī Budruk—Ngp.—सालई बु.	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Sālaī Kh.—Ktl.—सालई खुर्द ..	.. ..	.. 82; 19; 41	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.;o.	..
Sālaī Kh.—Umr.—सालई खुर्द ..	W; 24·0	572·82; 86; 19; 60	Bela; 3·0	.. 10·0	Bela; 3·0; Sat.	.. 5·0	rv.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Sālaīdābhā—Ngp.—सालई दाभा	NE; 15·0	1586·25; 633; 146; 409	Local; ..	Bori; 5·0	Bori; 5·0; Tue.	Mohagaon; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 2 tl; Hanuman Jayanti Fr; Ct. Sud. 5.
Sālaī Gondhanī-Ngp.-सालईगोंधनी	.. ..	.. 578; 112; 254	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. Fri.	.. ..	W.;o.	Sl (pr).
Sālaī Mahālgāṅv—Umr.—सालई महालगांव.	W; 5·0	1287·87; 628; 164; 356	Brahmani; 3·0	Brahmani; 3·0	Brahmani; 3·0; Thu.	Umrer; 5·0	w.	tl.
Sālaī Māhulī—Rmt.—सालई माहुली.	W; 10·0	1173·89; 388; 83; 175	Mahadula; 3·0	Ramtek; 13·0	Panchala Buz.; 4·0; Wed.	Kodamendhi; 5·0	w.;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Sālaī-Meṇḍhā—Ngp.—सालई मेंढा	NW; 19·0	1300·76; 190; 44; 115	Amgaon; 3·0	Gumgaon; 10·0	Amgaon; 3·0; Thu.	Hingana; 6·0	w.	tl.
Sālaīmeṭa—Rmt.—सालईमेटा ..	E; 10·0	1173·89; 282; 63; 169	Mahadula; 3·0	Ramtek; 12·0	Panchala Buz.; 4·0; Wed.	Ramtek; 10·0	w.	Cs. tl.
Sālaī Mokāsā—Rmt.—सालई मोकासा.	W; 18·0	1301·29; 354; 88; 145	Nawegaon Khairi. 4·0	Mansar; 8·0	Naweg a o n Khairi. 4·0; Fri.	Khapa; 5·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sālaīrānī—Umr.—सालईरानी ..	NE; 7·0	1970·62; 399; 81; 245	Ridhora; 3·0	Borkhedi; 11·0	Bela; 3·0; Sat.	Umrer; 7·0	w.	tl.
Sālavā—Rmt.—सालवा ..	S; 14·0	694·92; 292; 58; 113	Local; ..	Local; ..	Kanhan; 4·0; Fri.	Kanhan; 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Sālavā—Umr.—सालवा ..	NE; 19·0	1431·03; 669; 120; 313	Local; ..	Kuhi; 10·0	Local; .. Mon.	Mauda; 8·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sālebhaṭṭī—Umr.—सालेभट्टी ..	S; 13·3	1090·00; 395; 64; 170	Bhiwapur; 14·0	Bhiwapur; 14·0	Bhishi; 3·0; Sat.	Umrer; 13·3	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sālebhaṭṭī—Umr.—सालेभट्टी ..	S; 15·0	722·04; 607; 120; 312	Salebhatti; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 10·0	Gothangaon; 3·0; Wed.	Umrer; 15·0	w.;rv.	2 tl.
Sālebhaṭṭī—Umr.—सालेभट्टी ..	E; 21·0	1090·00; 404; 93; 228	Bhiwapur; 14·0	Bhiwapur; 14·0	Bhishi; 3·0; Sat.	Bhishi; 3·0	W.;w.	tl.
Sāleghāṭ—Rmt.—सालेघाट ..	.. ..	.. 96; 21; 56	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W;o.	..
Sāleśarī—Umr.—सालेशरी ..	.. ..	1039·94; 597; 104; 350	Bhuthanbodi; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 10·0	Gothangaon; 4·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Samudrī—Snr.—समुद्री ..	SW; 11·0	666·91; 166; 34; 87	Kohali; 3·0	Kohali; 3·0	Kohali; 3·0; Wed.	Stage; ..	rv.;w.	Cs (gr); tl.
Sāndīgondī—Umr.—सांदीगोंदी ..	W; 14·0	1448·70; 197; 47; 134	Sitsi; 3·0	Borkhedi; 15·0	Sitsi; 3·0; Wed.	Umrer; 14·0	w.	2 tl.
Saṅgam—Ngp.—संगम ..	W; 10·0	925·22; 290; 56; 145	Waddhamna; 3·0	Khapri; 8·0	Raipur; 3·0; Mon.	Nagpur; 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; M.
Saṅgrāmpūr—Rmt.—संग्रामपूर ..	E; 5·0	733·89; 231; 48; 135	Ramtek; 4·0	Ramtek; 4·0	Ramtek; 4·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 5·0	w.	tl.
Śaṅkarapūr—Ngp.—शंकरपूर ..	SE; 10·0	868·49; 300; 54; 168	Khapri; 3·0	Khapri; 3·0	Nagpur; 7·0; Mon.	Parsodi; 2·0	W.	tl; dg; gym.
Sāraḍī—Ktl.—सारडी ..	N; 19·0	1415·86; 127; 34; 91	.. ..	Narkhed; 4·0	Narkhed; 4·0; Sun.	Narkhed; 4·0	W.;w.	2 tl; Mahashivratra Fr.;Mg. Vad. 13.
Sarāṇḍī—Umr.—सरांडी ..	NW; 8·0	1202·05; 473; 99; 285	Kargaon; 2·0	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Sarākhā—Rmt.—सराखा ..	.. ..	.. 442; 125; 212	.. ..	Umrer; 6·0	Umrer; 6·0; ..	.. 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sarrā—Snr.—सर्रा ..	N; 18·4	685·48; 337; 86; 207	Bichawa; 3·0	Kelwad; 14·0	Nagarwadi; 0·4; Fri.	Kelwad; 13·4	W.;w.	tl.
Sarrā F. V.—Rmt.—सर्रा ..	.. ..	.. 71; 11; 39	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Sasegāṅv—Umr.—ससेगांव ..	N; 10·0	1839·90; 382; 83; 229	Borgaon; 2·0	Brahmani; 6·0	Chanpa; 4·0; Sat.	Pachgaon; 8·0	rv.;w.	Sl (pr); Maruti Fr.;Ct.Sud. 15; 3 tl; gym; Ekadashi Fr. Kt. Sud. 11.
Sāṭak—Rmt.—साटक ..	S; 6·0	4123·91; 953; 228; 354	Nagardhan; 2·0	Dumari Kh.; 3·0	Mansar; 5·0; Thu.	Ramtek; 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (misc); 2 tl.
Sātanavarī—Ngp.—सातनवरी ..	W; 20·0	813·60; 560; 128; 319	Dhamana; 3·0	Nagpur; 20·0	Bajargaon; 2·0; ..	Local; ..	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Sātārā—Umr.—सातारा ..	NE; 10·0	998·29; 346; 67; 214	Musalgaon; 2·0	Kuhi; 5·0	Mandhal; 3·0; Tue.	.. ..	w.	tl.
Saundaṇī—Rmt.—सौंदणी ..	N; 14·0	623·15; 74; 15; 25	Hiwara; 2·0	Mansar; 16·0	Hiwara; 2·0; Mon.	Pauni; 5·0	W.	tl.
Sāvaḷī—Ktl.—सावळी ..	SW; 10·0	833·70; 197; 39; 119	Murti; 3·0	Katol; 9·0	Katol; 9·0; Tue.	Katol; 10·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāvaḷī—Ngp.—सावळी ..	SE; 30·0	478·31; 464; 111; 293	Kanholiwata; 1·4	Watekhedi; 11·4	Kanholiwata; 1·4; Sun.	.. 5·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Sāvaḷī—Ngp.—सावळी ..	E; 13·0	899·28; 337; 55; 237	Wadoda; 4·0	Dighori; 4·0	Wadoda; 4·0; Tue.	.. 0·5	W.	2 tl.
Sāvaḷī—Rmt.—सावळी ..	.. ..	.. 209; 42; 128	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Sāvaḷī—Snr.—सावळी ..	W; 13·0	728·49; 437; 109; 262	Dhapewada; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 5·0	Dhapewada; 2·0; Tue;	Khurasapar; 3·0	W.;w.	Cs (cr); tl.
Sāvaḷī—Umr.—सावळी ..	NE; 16·0	922·39; 269; 54; 160	Kuhi; 2·0	Bhajapur; 3·0	Kuhi; 2·0; Wed. and Sat.	.. ..	W.;w.	tl.
Sāvaḷī Kh.—Ktl.—सावळी खुर्द ..	.. ..	717·55; 233; 43; 110	Ridhora; 2·0	Katol; 4·0	Katol; 4·0; Tue.	.. ..	..	..
Sāvaḷī Bk.—Ktl.—सावळी बु. ..	NW; 3·0	384·59; 274; 58; 152	Ridhora; 2·0	Katol; 4·0	Katol; 4·0; Tue.	.. 0·4	rv.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāvaḷī Bk.—Snr.—सावळी बु. ..	S; 8·0	750·61; 524; 112; 193	Kalameshwar; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0; Sun.	.. 2·4	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāvaḷī Kh.—Snr.—सावळी खुर्द ..	S; 9·0	724·89; 311; 55; 172	Pipla; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 5·0	Mohpa; 2·0; Wed.	Mohpa; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Sāvaner—Snr.—सावनेर ..	HQ; ..	3078·00; 10186; 2368; 1992	Local; ..	Local; ..	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	..	Mun.
Sāvaṅgā—Ktl.—सावंगा ..	W; 20·0	2418·63; 1923; 870; 300	Local; ..	Katol; 20·0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	W.;w.	Sl (m); pyt; 3 Cs (2 c; mis); 4 tl; mq; 2 dg; Gal Fr. Mg. Vad. 11; lib; dp.
Sāvaṅgā—Ngp.—सावंगा ..	W; 25·0	2631·07; 374; 84; 215	Shiwa; 1·0	Nagpur; 24·0	Bajargaon; 3·0; Mon.	Bamargaon; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl. gym; Shimaga Fr.
Sāvaṅgā (Kacarī)—Ktl.—सावंगा (कचेरी).	S; 9·0	2554·37; 2125; 536; 1193	Local; ..	Katol; 9·0	Local;	Local; ..	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr; m); 2 Cs (cr; mis); 5 tl; mq; lib; dp.
Sāvaṅgī—Ngp.—सावंगी ..	NW; 24·0	2129·04; 1048; 226; 525	Amgaon; 0·2	Gumgaon; 8·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 2 tl.
Sāvaṅgī—Ngp.—सावंगी ..	NW; 17·0	1023·28; 302; 60; 139;	Sindhi; 3·0	Sindhi; 3·0	Sindhi; 3·0; Thu.	Hingana; 5·0	w.	Cs; 2 tl.
Sāvaṅgī—Rmt.—सावंगी ..	N; 18·0	619·63; 185; 38; 83	Kodamendhi; 0·6	Rewaral; 5·6	Kodamendhi; 0·6; Thu.	Pauni; 3·0	w.	tl.
Sāvaṅgī—Rmt.—सावंगी ..	SW; 22·0	550·63; 210; 38; 126	Pauni; 2·0	Mansar; 14·0	Pauni; 2·0; Wed.	Pauni; 12·0	w.	tl.
Sāvaṅgī—Rmt.—सावंगी ..	E; 12·0	.. 85; 20; 38	Pauni; 2·0	Mansar; 14·0	Pauni; 2·0; Wed.	Ramtek; 12·0	w.;rv.	2 tl.
Sāvaṅgī—Snr.—सावंगी ..	W; 4·0	881·48; 106; 26; 46	Mohpa; 1·4	Kohali; 5·4	Mohpa; 1·4; Wed.	Saoner; 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); pyt.; 2 tl; White Clay.
Sāvaṅgī—Snr.—सावंगी ..	.. 6·0	740·56; 464; 105; 282	Kamathi; 2·0	Saoner; 6·0	Saoner; 6·0; Fri.	.. ..	..	..
Sāvaṅgī—Snr.—सावंगी ..	S; 14·0	1157·14; 505; 110; 286	Kalameshwar; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāvaṅgī—Umr.—सावंगी ..	E; 18·0	1207·13; 469; 91; 247	Pipara; 3·0	Borkhedi; 13·0	Pipara; 3·0; Thu.	.. ..	w.	2 tl.
Sāvaṅgī—Umr.—सावंगी ..	E; 18·0	567·88; 197; 39; 108	Salwa; 3·0	Kuhi; 10·0	Salwa; 3·0; Mon.	Sonegaon; 8·0	w.;rv.	2 tl; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.
Sāvaṅgī—Umr.—सावंगी ..	NE; 24·0	800·25; 351; 64; 197	Fegar; 0·4	Bhiwapur; 12·0	Fegar; 0·4; Thu.	Mauda; 4·0	w.	tl.
Sāvaṅgī Kh.—Umr.—सावंगी खु.	E; 18·0	800·25; 304; 62; 167	Fegar; 0·4	Bhiwapur; 12·0	Fegar; 0·4; Thu.	Umrer; 18·0	w.;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāvarā—Rmt.—सावरा ..	N; 24·0	1688·64; 339; 63; 115	Kanhan; 1·0	Kanhan; 1·0	Kamathi; 3·0; Fri.	Deolapar; 3·0	w.;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sāvaragāṅv—Ktl.—सावरगांव ..	S; 9·0	3776·36; 3639; 755; 1686	Local; ..	Katol; 9·0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W.;w.	3 Sl (2 pr; h); pyt; 4 Cs (4 mis); 7 tl; M; mq; 5 dg; gym; Clay Utensils; C pet; Shankar Temple; lib; 2 dp.
Sāvaragāṅv—Rmt.—सावरगांव ..	S; 13·1	958·71; 159; 32; 97	Tharsa; 1·0	Chachare; 3·0	Tharasa; 3·0; Sun.	Mauda; 6·0	w.	tl.
Sāvaragāṅv—Umr.—सावरगांव ..	E; 17·0	850·61; 257; 53; 148	Salwa; 1·0	Kuhi; 7·0	Salwa; 1·0; Mon.	.. 4·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Sāvaragāṅv—Umr.—सावरगांव ..	NE; 22·0	467·94; 138; 26; 79	Adyal; 1·0	Bhiwapur; 4·0	Bhiwapur; 4·0; Fri.	Mauda; 12·0	W.;w.	Cs; tl.
Sāvarakhaṇḍā—Umr.—सावरखंडा	.. ..	.. 56; 15; 35	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Sāvaramenḍhā—Snr.—सावरमेंढा	NE; 14·0	1470·44; 557; 118; 354	Patansawangi; 5·0	Patansawangi; 5·0	Patansawangi; 5·0; Tue.	Patansawangi; 5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 2 tl.
Sāvarī—Rmt.—सावरी ..	SE; 26·0	762·00; 269; 54; 106	Gowari; 3·0	Khat; 8·0	Gowari; 3·0; Sat.	Mauja Khasbi; 2·0	W.	tl.
Sāyagāṅv (Mokāsā)—Umr.—सायगांव (मोकासा).	SE; 16·0	335·06; 285; 57; 177	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..	DESERTED.
Sāyakī—Umr.—सायकी ..	W; 10·0	2089·60; 474; 93; 248	Unha; 3·0	Umrer; 13·0	Makar Dhokda; 3·0; Fri.	.. 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; M.
Sāyeśvar—Umr.—सायेश्वर ..	E; 18·0	521·66; 116; 20; 72	Pipara; 1·0	Borkhedi; 15·0	Pipara; 1·0; Thu.	Sonegaon; 9·0	w.	tl.
Sāyavāḍā—Ktl.—सायवाडा ..	.. ..	399·58; 226; 44; 114	Ambada; 1·0	Narkhed; 20·0	Thadi pauni; 2·0; Sun.	.. ..	..	..
Seḍeśvar—Umr.—सेडेश्वर ..	NW; 14·0	1711·81; 375; 87; 226	Pipara; 1·0	Borkhedi; 13·0	Bipara; 1·0; Thu.	.. 10·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Sekāpūr—Ktl.—सेकापूर ..	SE; 13·0	1418·19; 200; 50; 128	Kondhali; 6·0	Metpanjra; 10·0	Kondhali; 6·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 6·0	W.;w.	Cs (c); tl.
Seloṭī—Umr.—सेलोटी ..	SE; 10·4	904·14; 412; 88; NA.	Medha; 3·0	Kargaon; 4·0	Bhiwapur; 7·0; Fri.	.. 6·0	W.;w.	tl.
Selu—Snr.—सेलु ..	SW; 14·0	1549·75; 438; 89; 247	Kalameshwar; 4·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0; Sun.	.. 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Selu—Ngp.—सेलु ..	.. ..	.. 292; 55; 177	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..
Śemaḍā—Ktl.—शेमडा ..	N; 14·7	.. 212; 56; 86	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..
Śerḍī—Snr.—शेरडी ..	N; 3·0	519·27; 154; 46; 71	Khangaon; 2·0	Saoner; 3·0	Saoner; 3·0; Fri.	Saoner; 3·0	W.;w.	tl.
Sev—Umr.—सेव ..	NE; 2·0	.. 506; 112; 199	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sihorā—Rmt.—सिहोरा ..	.. ..	1688·64; 808; 194; 164	Kanhan; 1·0	Kanhan; 1·0	Kamathi; 3·0; Fri.	.. ..	..	..
Sikārapūr—Umr.—सिकारपूर ..	NE; 19·0	.. 374; 71; 204	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 10·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sillewāḍā—Snr.—सिल्लेवाडा ..	E; 19·0	800·15; 677; 156; 371	Khaparkheda; 2·0	Khaparkheda; 2·0	Nagpur; 10·0; Sun.	Chincholi (Khaperkheda); 2·0	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; lib.
Sillī—Umr.—सिल्ली ..	N; 10·0	1059·24; 901; 177; 473	Kuhi; 2·0	Kuhi; 1·0	Kuhi; 2·0; Wed.	.. ..	w.	4 tl; 2 gym.
Sillorī—Snr.—सिल्लोरी ..	SE; 6·0	1270·09; 347; 78; 211	Patansawangi; 5·0	Patansawangi; 5·0	Patansawangi; 5·0; Tue.	Patansawangi; 4·0	rv.;w.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Sindewāṇī—Rmt.—सिंदेवाणी ..	N; 21·0	564·06; 231; 49; 124	Deolapar; 1·0	Mansar; 16·0	Deolapar; 1·0; Tue.	Deolapar; 1·0	w.	tl.
Sindewāṇī Bk.—Snr.—सिंदेवाणी बु. ..	.. ..	955·37; 523; 110; 298	Bichawa; 3·0	Kelwad; 13·0	Nagalwadi; 4·0; Fri.	Kelwad; 13·6	W.;w.	Sl (pr).
Sindewāṇī Kh.—Snr.—सिंदेवाणी खुर्द ..	.. ..	596·50; 103; 21; 47	Bichawa; 3·0	Kelwad; 13·0	Nagalwadi; 4·0; Fri.	.. ..	W.;w.	tl.
Śindī—Ktl.—शिंदी ..	N; 12·0	1746·81; 834; 198; 422	Local; ..	Narkhed; 12·0	Sawargaon; 3·0; Mon.	Sawargaon; 3·0	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr; m); tl; M; lib.
Sindī—Snr.—सिंदी ..	S; 9·0	196·00; 312; 71; 167	Brahmapuri; 2·0	Saoner; 7·0	Dhapewada; 4·0; ..	.. ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sindīvihirī—Umr.—सिंदीविहिरी	W; 23·0	749·47; 183; 40; 118	Thana; 2·0	Bori; 11·0	Thana; 2·0; Mon.	.. ..	w.	tl.
Siṅgāradīp—Rmt.—सिंगारदीप ..	S; 15·0	705·14; 146; 29; 84	Salwa; 3·0	Salwa; 3·0	Kamathi; 4·0; Fri.	Kanhan; 5·0	W.;w.	3 tl.
Siṅgārakheḍā—Ktl.—सिंगारखेडा	N; 8·0	1909·53; 759; 167; 240	Doli; 2·0	Kalambha; 2·4	Sawargaon; 5·4; Mon.	Railway Station Kalambha; 3·0	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr; m); Cs (cr); tl; Bahiram Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; lib.
Siṅghorī—Umr.—सिंघोरी ..	E; 20·0	.. 341; 57; 216	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Sonegaon; 8·0	w.;rv.	3 tl; Maruti Fr.Ct. Sud.15.
Siṅgorī—Rmt.—सिंगोरी ..	NE; 17·0	715·13; 280; 56; 143	Dhanala; 3·0	Tharasa; 12·0	Mauda; 5·0; Fri.	Khaparkheda; 4·0	rv.	2 tl.
Siṅgorī—Rmt.—सिंगोरी ..	S; 15·0	808·94; 282; 62; 174	Hingna; 1·0	Khaperkheda; 2·0	Parshimi; 7·0; Mon.	Kanhan; 6·0	w.	2 tl.
Siṅgorī—Rmt.—सिंगोरी ..	.. ..	.. 174; 34; 98	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	W ..

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office; Distance (4)		Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Siñjār - Ktl.—सिजार ..	W;	18·0	1360·38;	748;	200;	478	Mendhala;	1·4	Katol;	16·0	Mendhala;	1·4; Tue.	Jalalkheda;	5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 2 tl.
Sillārī Vāgholī—Rmt.—सिल्लारी वाघोली.	N;	20·0	1641·24;	173;	38;	100	Pauni;	5·0	Ramtek;	18·0	Pauni;	5·0; Wed.	Pauni;	5·0	w.	Cs; tl; Shivratri Fr. Mgh. 14.
Sirakhaṇḍā—Rmt.—सिरखंडा ..	E;	15·0	399·44;	88;	19;	44	Morgaon;	2·0	Rewarala;	5·0	Kodamendhi;	3·0; Thu.	Rewarala;	3·0	w.	Cs.; tl.
..	..		..				..		..	..	..	.. ..	Borgaon;	10·0	..	..
Śiramī—Ktl.—शिरमी ..	S;	12·0	921·17;	19;	2;	8	Kondhali;	1·0	Katol;	13·0	Kondhali;	1·0; Wed.	Kondhali;	1·0	W.	tl.
Śirapūr—Ngp.—शिरपूर ..	E;	12·0	875·65;	257;	61;	163	Kamathi;	4·0	Kamathi;	4·0	Kamathi;	4·0; Fri.	Kamathi;	3·0	w.	2 tl; gym.
Śirapūr—Ngp.—शिरपूर ..	SE;	18·0	453·87;	194;	49;	127	Dhamana;	1·0	Nagpur;	17·0	Peth Kal Dongari;	2·4; Tue.	Peth;	3·0	w.rv.	tl.
Śirapūr—Rmt.—शिरपूर ..	E;	4·4	368·43;	181;	48;	122	Kachurvahi;	2·0	Ramtek;	5·0	Kachurvahi;	2·0; Mon.	Ramtek;	4·4	w.	tl.
Śirapūr—Umr.—शिरपूर ..	W;	6·0	1601·02;	594;	137;	257	Local;	..	Umrer;	5·0	Makar Dhokda;	4·0; Fri.	Umrer;	6·0	w.;t.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Sirasolī—Rmt.—सिरसोली ..	NE;	20·0	846·45;	429;	114;	161	Indora;	4·0	Khat;	4·0	Khat;	4·0; Wed.	Varathi;	10·4	w.	Cs.; tl.
Sirolī—Umr.—सिरोली ..	..	..	..	7;	1;	..	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	..
Sirañjī—Snr.—सिरांजी ..	NW;	14·0	886·82;	519;	95;	275	Bichawa;	2·0	Kelwad;	3·0	Nagalwadi;	3·0; Fri.	Kelwad;	11·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sirasavādī—Ktl.—शिरसवाडी ..	N;	1·4	928·03;	394;	95;	203	Katol;	1·0	Katol;	1·0	Katol;	1·0; Tue.	Katol;	1·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Sirsī—Umr.—सिर्सी ..	NW;	18·0	1514·87;	567;	100;	218	Jiwanapur;	4·0	Brahmani;	20·0	Adyal;	5·0; Sun.	..	14·0	w.	Sl (pr; m); Cs; 16 tl; 2 M; dg; 2 gym; dp.
Sirsī—Umr.—सिर्सी ..	NW;	24·0	..	3538;	697;	1198	Jiwanapur;	4·0	Brahmani;	20·0	Adyal;	5·0; Sun.	Adyal;	6·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Sirur—Ngp.—सिरूर ..	S;	18·0	1285·03;	578;	126;	315	Salaibaba;	2·0	Bori;	3·0	Bori;	1·0; Tue.	Mohogaon;	3·4	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Sitalavāḍī—Rmt.—सितलवाडी ..	W;	4·0	343·12;	39;	12;	7	Ramtek;	1·0	Ramtek	1·4	Ramtek;	1·0; Sun.	Local;	..	w.	tl; dh; Ch.
Sītāpār—Rmt.—सीतापार ..	N;	29·0	662·67;	170;	31;	108	Karwahi;	7·0	Mansar;	32·0	Khawara;	9·0; Wed.	..	6·0	w.	tl.
Sītāpūr—Rmt.—सीतापूर ..	N;	16·0	335·51;	191;	31;	102	Pauni;	0·4	Ramtek;	14·0	Pauni;	0·4; Wed.	..	1·0	W;w.	tl.
Śivā—Ngp.—शिवा ..	W;	24·2	494·63;	1580;	341;	830	Local;	..	Nagpur	24·0	Bajargaon;	3·0; Mon.	Bajargaon;	2·0	W.	Sl (pr; m); 3 tl; mq; gym; dp.
Śivamaḍakā—Ngp.—शिवमडका	NW;	10·0	532·09;	31;	15;	47	Gumgaon;	2·0	Gumgaon;	3·0	Gumgaon;	2·0; Sun.	Dongaragaon	4·0	w.	tl; dg.
Śivaṇgāṅv—Ngp.—शिवणगांव ..	NE;	6·0	..	..	..	..	Aerodrome;	1·0	Nagpur;	6·0	Local;	.. Wed.	..	1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; 2 gym; dp.
Śivaṇaphaḷ—Umr.—शिवणफळ ..	S;	12·0	..	265;	58;	157	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Śivaṇī—Ngp.—शिवणी ..	E;	16·0	1641·22;	583;	133;	351	Titur;	0·4	Titur;	0·4	Titur;	0·4; Mon.	Vadoda;	5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
													Titur (Rly);	1·4		
Śivaṇī—Rmt.—शिवणी ..	E;	12·4	241·50;	..	..	..	Ramtek	2·0	Ramtek;	2·0	Ramtek;	2·0; Sun.	Ramtek;	12·4	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Sivanī—Umr.—सिवनी ..	NW;	13·0	757·92;	13;	3;	13	Chanpa;	3·0	Brahmani;	9·0	Chanpa;	3·0; Sat.	Chanpa;	5·0	w.	tl.
Sivanī—Umr.—सिवनी ..	NE;	15·0	1204·39;	446;	84,	260	Channa;	2·0	Kuhi;	10·0	Mandhal;	3·0; Tue.	..	..	w.	tl.
Śivaṇī Bhoṇḍakī—Rmt.—शिवणी भोंडकी.	E;	12·0	2703·35;	697;	160;	364	Kodamendhi;	5·0	Rewarala;	10·0	Bhandarbodi;	2·0; Tue.	..	0·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Śivaṇī Jośī—Rmt.—शिवणी जोशी	SE;	20·0	241·50;	161;	37;	25	Ramtek;	1·0	Ramtek;	2·0	Ramtek;	1·0; Sun.	..	5·0	w.	tl.
Sivāpūr—Umr.—सिवापूर ..	E;	4·4	1366·41;	753;	161;	459	Mangrul;	3·0	Thana;	3·0	Umrer;	5·0; Mon.	Local;	..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl.
Sonakhāmbe—Ktl.—सोनखांबे ..	E;	10·0	2465·59;	540;	126;	327	Metpanjra;	2·0	Metpanjra;	3·0	Dorli;	4·0; Thu.	..	0·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl; mq.
Sonamoh—Ktl.—सोनमोह ..	SE;	7·6	1001·08;	53;	10;	29	Ridhora;	5·0	Katol;	8·0	Medhepathar;	3·4; Thu.	Ajanagaon;	2·6	W.;w.	3 tl.
Sonapūr—Ktl.—सोनपूर ..	S;	9·0	1458·99;	167;	41;	102	Kachri Sawanga;	1·0	Katol;	10·0	Kachari Sawanga;	1·0; Fri.	Kachari Sawanga;	0·6	W.;w.	3 tl; Hanuman Jayanti Fr; Ct. Sud. 15.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office; Distance (4)		Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Sonapūr--Rmt.—सोनपूर ..	NE;	3·4	282·76;	58;	11;	30	Ramtek;	2·6	Ramtek;	3·6	Ramtek;	2·6; Sun.	Ramtek;	3·4	w.	tl.
Sonāpūr—Snr.--सोनापूर ..	NW;	5·3	956·29;	482;	104;	240	Adasa;	1·0	Saoner;	4·0	Saoner;	4·0; Fri.	Saoner;	5·3	W;w.;	Sl (pr; gr); Cs (c); 7 tl; M; Ganapati Temple; lib.
Sonāpār—Snr.—सोनापार ..	NE;	13·0	587·12;	150;	30;	69	Dhapewada;	2·0	Dhapewada;	6·0	Dhapewada;	2·0; Tue.	..	10·0	W.;w.	tl.
Sonapūr—Snr.—सोनपूर ..	..	..	1262·84;	216;	56;	141	Bichawa;	3·0	Kelwad;	9·0	Nagalwadi;	4·0; Fri.	Nagalwadi;	4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Sonapurī—Umr.—सोनपुरी ..	N;	7·0	742·25;	244;	49;	151	Musalgaon;	3·0	Mohadath;	2·0	Brahmani;	5·0; Thu.	..	..	W.;w.	tl.
Sonapurī—Umr.—सोनपुरी ..	NE;	18·0	1546·97;	226;	43;	134	Channa;	2·0	Brahmani;	12·0	Waltur;	3·0; Fri.	Umrer;	18·0	w.	tl.
Sonāravāhī—Umr.—सोनारवाही	NE;	22·0	500·01;	479;	88;	277	Jiwanapur;	3·0	Brahmani;	18·0	Adyal;	7·0; Sun.	..	8·0	w.	2 tl.
Sondāpar—Ngp.--सोंदापार ..	..	0·8	..	40;	8;	..	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	
Sonegāṅv—Ngp.—सोनेगांव ..	W;	4·0	1281·79;	405;	92;	222	Ashta;	2·0	Borkhedi;	6·0	Sindi;	6·0; Thu.	Khamala;	1·0	W.	tl; Aerodrome.
Sonegāṅv—Ngp.—सोनेगांव ..	S;	27·0	926·22;	697;	157;	356	Wadi;	2·0	Nagpur;	7·0	Nagpur;	7·0; Mon. and Thu.	Local;	..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sonegāṅv--Ngp.--सोनेगांव ..	S;	22·0	2119·85;	1195;	253;	643	Gumthala;	3·0	Kamathi;	6·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Borakhedi;	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Sonegāṅv—Ngp.—सोनगांव ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
Sonegāṅv—Rmt.—सोनेगांव ..	E;	15·0	734·07;	246;	57;	142	Hingna;	2·0	Khaperkheda;	5·0	Parshivni;	5·0; Mon.	Dumari Kh.	6·0	w.	tl.
Sonegāṅv—Ngp.—सोनेगांव ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
Sonegāṅv—Snr.—सोनेगांव ..	S;	13·0	991·53;	573;	128;	284	Uparvahi;	2·0	Kohali;	3·0	..	.. Thu.	..	1·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 3 tl; Ram. Fr. Ct. Sud. 9.
Sonegāṅv—Umr.--सोनेगांव ..	..	..	252·10;	9;	2;	5	Medha;	3·0	Bhiwapur;	3·0	Bhiwapur;	3·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur;	..	..	
Sonegāṅv--Umr.—सोनेगांव ..	E;	24·0	1629·22;	230;	53;	129	Dodma;	1·0	Brahmani;	7·0	Chanpa;	4·0; Sat.	..	8·0	rv.	tl.
Sonegāṅv—Umr.—सोनेगांव ..	..	..	..	1;	1;	1	..	..	..	..	Jiwanapur;	2·0; Sat.	Jiwanapur;	2·0	w.	tl.
Sonegāṅv—Umr.—सोनेगांव ..	NW;	2·0	810·51;	275;	53;	163	Jiwanapur;	2·0	Bhiwapur;	12·0	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	
Sonegāṅv Bk.—Ktl. सोनेगांव बु.	S;	11·0	605·57;	12;	4;	8	Kondhali;	1·4	Katol;	13·0	Kondhali;	1·4; Wed.	Kondhali;	1·4	W.;w.	tl; dg.
Sonegāṅv Kh.—Ngp.—सोनेगांव खु.	E;	20·0	1298·02;	282;	58;	67	Ashta;	1·0	Borkhedi;	8·0	Sindi;	5·0; Thu.	Mauja Vadoda;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Soneghāṭ Sālebardī--Rmt.--सोनेघाट सालेबर्डी.	..	2·0	..	112;	31;	66	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	
Sonepāḍā—Umr.—सोनेपाडा ..	SE;	12·1	593·42;	75;	16;	42	Jawali;	0·1	Kargaon;	6·0	Bhishi;	5·0; Sat.	Kargaon;	7·0	w.;rv.	tl.
Sonolī—Ktl.—सोनोली ..	N;	7·0	976·11;	874;	226;	502	Local;	..	Katol;	7·0	Sawargaon;	2·0; Mon.	near by	..	W.;w.	Sl (m); Cs (cı); 4 tl.
Sonolī—Ngp.—सोनोली ..	S;	20·0	..	228;	49;	101	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	Bori;	1·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Sonolī—Snr.—सोनोली ..	S;	9·0	1056·75;	318;	72;	211	Kamathi;	3·0	Saoner;	6·0	Saoner;	6·0; Fri.	Mohpa;	1·0	W.;w.	tl.
Sonolī—Snr.--सोनोली ..	..	0·5	..	7;	2;	6	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	
Somalavāḍā—Ngp.—सोमलवाडा	S;	4·0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	0·4	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl; dg; gym; lib; 2 dp.
Somanāḷā--Umr.—सोमनाळा ..	SE;	9·0	1041·60;	164;	38;	97	Kargaon;	2·0	Kargaon;	3·0	Umrer;	3·0; Mon.	..	7·0	w.	tl.
Somanāḷā--Umr.—सोमनाळा ..	E;	14·0	1396·30;	465;	95;	281	Adyal;	3·0	Bhiwapur;	6·0	Bhiwapur;	6·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur;	6·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl; dg; gym; Ch.
Sukalī—Ngp.--सुकळी ..	..	1·0	..	263;	56;	172	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	
Sukalī—Ngp.—सुकळी ..	SE;	12·0	540·57;	74;	19;	47	Bori;	1·0	Bori;	1·0	Bori;	1·0; ..	..	3·0	w.	2 tl.
Sukalī--Ngp.—सुकळी ..	NW;	21·0	2749·68;	635;	148;	368	Umari;	1·4	Nagpur;	27·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Dongargaon;	13·4	W.;w.	tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Sukaḷī—Ngp.—सुकळी ..	W; 20·0	1016·81; 216; 49; 137	Amgaon; 2·0	Gumgaon; 7·0	Gumgaon; 3·0; Sun.	.. 5·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl. Cch.
Sukaḷī—Ngp.—सुकळी ..	NW; 19·0	670·90; 74; 15; 45	Gumthala; 9·0	Dharsa; 9·0	Mauda; 3·0; Fri.	Bori; 1·0	w.	tl. Kolhasurbuwa Fr. Kt. Vad. 5.
Sukaḷī—Ngp.—सुकळी ..	S; 10·0	825·45; 275; 66; 234	Raipur Hingna; 2·0	Khapari; 4·0	Raipur Hingna; 2·0 Mon.	Raipur Hingna 2·0	rv.	tl.
Sukaḷī—Umr.—सुकळी ..	W; 7·0	435·95; 25; 6; 15	Umrer; 6·0	Umrer; 6·0	Umrer; 6·0; Mon.	.. ..	w.	tl.
Sukaḷī—Rmt.—सुकळी ..	.. ..	.. 263; 62; 129	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Sukaḷī—Umr.—सुकळी ..	SE; 11·0	1476·24; 68; 16; 37	Chanpa; 3·0	Umrer; 15·0	Chanpa; 3·0; Sat.	.. 7·0	w.	tl.
Sukaḷī—Umr.—सुकळी ..	NE; 19·0	1476·24; 54; 15; 29	Chanda; 2·0	Nagpur; 15·0	Chanda; 2·0; Sat.	Varathi; 11·0	W.	2 tl; Ramnavmi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9.
Sukaḷī Jānonī—Umr. सुकळी जानोनी.	S; 10·0	1271·31; 168; 37; 95	Hiwara; 1·0	Umrer; 16·0	Sirsi; 4·0; Wed.	.. ..	rv.; w.	tl.
Sumaṭhāṇā—Ngp. सुमठाणा ..	NW; 10·0	1197·08; 132; 42; 77	Gumgaon; 1·0	Gumgaon; 2·0	Gumgaon; 1·0; Sun.	Parasodi; 3·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Sunagābodī—Rmt.—सुनगाबोडी	E; 13·0	455·54; 1; 1; 1	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	tl.
Surābarḍī—Ngp.—सुराबर्डी ..	W; 11·0	1219·78; 152; 38; 83	Waddhamana; 2·0	Nagpur; 10·0	Nagpur; 10·0; Thu.	Waddhamana; 2·0	w.	2 tl.
Surābarḍī—Umr.—सुराबर्डी ..	NW; 18·0	598·11; 90; 20; 52	Ridhora; 4·0	Borkhedi; 10·0	Bela; 3·0; Sat.	Buttibori; 9·0	w.	2 tl.
Surādevī—Ngp.—सुरादेवी ..	NW; 9·4	1311·68; 473; 111; 245	Koradi; 2·0	Koradi; 2·0	Nagpur; 7·0; ..	Koradi; 1·0	w.	tl.
Suragāṅv—Umr.—सुरगांव ..	N; 17·0	2179·28; 557; 105; 333	Pachagaon; 2·0	Nagpur; 14·0	Pachagaon; 2·0; Thu.	.. 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); 4 tl.
Surajapūr—Umr.—सुरजपूर ..	NE; 9·0	1082·52; 85; 18; 55	Makar Dhokda; 3·0	Umrer; 12·0	Makar Dhokda; 3·0; Fri.	.. ..	..	DESERTED.
Surerā—Rmt.—सुरेरा ..	SW; 20·0	320·20; 105; 24; 65	Khairi; 8·0	Mansar; 15·0	Khairi; 8·0; Fri.	Pauni; 10·0	rv.	tl.
Surevāṇī—Rmt.—सुरेवाणी ..	.. ..	.. 109; 26; 53	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n; o.	dp.
Susundrī—Snr.—सुसुंद्री ..	SW; 11·0	1778·68; 1027; 234; 483	Kohali; 3·0	Kohali; 3·0	Kohali; 3·0; Wed.	.. ..	rv; W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c; mis); 2 tl; dg.
Suvaradharā—Rmt.—सुवरधरा ..	W; 18·0	4130·72; 217; 52; 120	Navegaon Khairi; 5·0	Mansar; 10·0	Navegaon Khairi; 5·0; Fri.	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Tākā—Umr.—टाका ..	.. ..	1210·16; 709; 143; 407	Bhiwapur; 11·0	Bhiwapur; 11·0	Bhishi; 2·0; Sat.	Bhiwapur; 11·0	..	
Tākaḷaghāṭ—Ngp.—टाकळघाट ..	W; 24·0	1066·70; 2499; 559; 1230	Local; ..	Butibori; 4·0	Local; .. Sat.	Junapani; 2·0	W.; rv.	Sl (pr; m); Cs; 6 tl; M; dh.
Tākaḷī—Ngp.—टाकळी ..	W; 4·0	1171·63; .. 125; 67	Nagpur; 4·0	Nagpur; 4·4	Gokulpeth; 3·0; ..	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; M.
Tākaḷī—Ngp.—टाकळी ..	SE; 11·0	496·07; 100; 19; 53	Kalamna; 0·4	Nagpur; 10·4	Nagpur; 10·4; Wed. and Sun.	Nagpur; 11·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tākaḷī—Ngp.—टाकळी ..	S; 10·0	1414·39; 77; 18; 51	Nagpur; 1·0	Nagpur ..	Nagpur; 2·0; Tue.	Nagpur; 10·0	rv.; w.	tl.
Tākaḷī—Ngp.—टाकळी ..	SE; 10·0	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 0·4	w.	2 tl.
Tākaḷī—Snr.—टाकळी ..	E; 5·0	1281·37; 1052; 222; 430	Local; ..	.. ..	Patansawangi; 2·0; Tue.	.. ..	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr; m); Cs (cr); tl. lib; dp.
Tākaḷī—Umr.—टाकळी ..	N; 9·4	.. 283; 54; 187	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 2·0	W.;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tākaḷī—Umr.—टाकळी ..	NE; 22·0	836·08; 272; 54; 158	Salwa; 4·0	Kuhi; 14·0	Salwa; 4·0; Mon.	Mauda; 10·0	w.	tl.
Tāmaswāḍī—Rmt.—तामसवाडी	SW; 17·0	1413·11; 650; 147; 398	Hing 3·0	Khaperkheda; 4·0	Parshivani; 5·0; Mon.	Khaperkheda; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Tāndā—Rmt.—तांदा ..	NE; 20·0	.. 610; 119; 265	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	Varthi; 10·0	w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; dg.
Tāndulawaṇī—Ktl.—तांदुळवणी ..	S; 7·0	956·10; 266; 59; 138	Murti; 2·0	Katol; 6·0	Katol; 6·0; Tue.	Katol; 7·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tāndulawāṇī—Ngp.—तांदुलवाणी	NW; 13·0	709·79; 200; 38; 116	Patansawangi; 2·0	Patansawangi; 2·0	Patansawangi; 2·0; Tue.	.. 1·4	W.;w.	2 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Tāṅgalā—Rmt.—तांगला ..	NE; 16·0	571·64; 481; 97; 262	Hiwara; 5·0	Mansar; 24·0	Hiwara; 5·0; Mon.	Hiwara; 5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl; Ch.
Tāpaṇī—Ktl.—तापणी ..	N; 9·0	1284·49; 393; 84; 231	Sawargaon; 2·0	Katol; 10·0	Sawargaon; 2·0; Mon.	Sawargaon; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; Holi Fr. Phg. Sud. 15.
Tārā—Ktl.—तारा ..	W; 25·0	.. 112; 24; 59	Ambada; 3·0	Katol; 25·0	Thadipauni; 4·0; ..	Jalalkheda; 15·0	W.	Sl (pr). 2 tl.
Tārābodī—Ktl.—तारावोडी ..	E; 9·4	999·08; 78; 20; 47	Metpanjra; 1·0	Metpanjra; 3·4	Mendhepathar; 3·0; Thu.	Metpanjra; 1·4	W.;w.	tl.
Tāraṇā—Umr.—तारणा ..	S; 12·0	2760·99; 1511; 314; 755	Local; ..	Brahmani; 3·0	Local; .. Sun.	Mauda; 6·0	w.	2 Sl (pr; m); Cs (Service); 5 tl; gym.
Tāraṇī—Umr.—तारणी ..	N; 15·0	1422·98; 193; 42; 102	Titur; 3·0	Titur; 1·0	Titur; 3·0; Mon.	.. 7·0	w.	2 tl.
Thārasā—Rmt.—थारसा ..	.. ..	1495·89; 1730; 389; 901	Local; ..	Chachare; 2·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. ..	..	
Tārasi—Ngp.—तारशी ..	S; 23·0	1699·56; 234; 56; 137	Borkhedi; 1·4	Borkhedi; 1·4	Buttibori; 9·0; Tue.	.. 0·4	w.	Cs; 3 tl.
Taroḍā—Ktl.—तरोडा ..	S; 12·0	1414·17; 82; 25; 56	Kondhali; 2·0	Katol; 13·0	Kondhali; 2·0; Wed.	Kondhali; 2·0	W.;w.	tl; dg.
Taroḍī—Rmt.—तरोडी ..	SE; 11·0	904·57; 254; 51; 169	Aroli; 2·0	Tharasa; 4·0	Aroli; 2·0; Tue.	Ramtek; 11·0	W.;w.	Cs; tl.
Taroḍī Bk.—Ngp.—तरोडी बु. ..	SE; 9·0	1222·31; 436; 94; 237	Pardi; 2·0	Dighori; 5·0	Nagpur; 6·0; All days.	Nagpur; 9·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; gym.
Taroḍī Kh.—Ngp.—तरोडी खु. ..	E; 6·0	1054·65; 123; 23; 62	Pardi; 3·0	Nagpur; 5·0	Nagpur; 5·0; All days.	.. 2·0	w.	tl.
Tārolī—Umr.—तारोली ..	.. ..	1716·22; 577; 105; 335	Fegar; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 14·0	Fegar; 2·0; Thu.	Fegar; 2·0	..	
Tās—Umr.—तास ..	.. ..	1624·40; 1005; 199; 562	Bhiwapur; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 2·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 2·0	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr; m); Cs (c); 2 tl; Ch.
Tārā—Ktl.—तारा ..	.. ..	.. 112; 24; 59	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..	
Tātolī—Umr.—तातोली ..	.. 15·0	729·69; 337; 75; 190	Medha; 1·0	Bhiwapur; 7·0	Bhiwapur; 7·0; Fri.	Medha; 1·0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Tekāḍī—Rmt.—टेकाडी ..	.. ..	2983·50; 2269; 461; 641	Gondegaon; 0·4	Kanhan; 4·0	Kamathi; 6·0; Fri.	.. ..	..	
Tekāḍī—Snr.—टेकाडी ..	.. 15·4	1357·49; 276; 63; 165	Bichawa; 1·0	Kelwad; 12·0	Nagalwadi; 3·0; Fri.	Kelwad; 11·4	W.; w.	tl.
Tekāḍī Pāṅgḍī—Rmt.—टेकाडी पांगडी.	W; 18·0	1233·01; 242; 62; 137	Kothurna; 4·0	Khapa; 6·0	Kothurna; 4·0; Sat.	Khapa; 5·0	w.	tl.
Telegāṅv—Snr.—तेलेगांव ..	SW; 9·0	1808·72; 886; 221; 513	Local; ..	Kohali; 10·0	Mohpa; 6·0; Wed.	.. 4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 4 tl; lib.
Telakawaḍasī—Umr.—तेलकवडसी	W; 6·0	776·74; 94; 20; 61	Umrer; 5·0	Umrer; 5·0	Umrer; 5·0; Mon.	Telukapadsi; 6·0	w.	tl.
Telaṅgakheḍī—Rmt.—तेलंगखेडी	NW; 6·6	1142·55; 349; 69; 188	.. 3·0	Dumari; 3·0	Ramtek; 8·0; Sun.	Dumari; 2·2	w.	tl; gym.
Telaṅgakheḍī—Snr.—तेलंगखेडी ..	SW; 7·0	1365·12; 345; 79; 219	Umari; 2·0	Saoner; 8·0	Saoner; 8·0; Fri.	Umari; 2·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tekepār—Umr.—टेकेपार ..	.. 22·0	549·68; 430; 70; 202	Kuiba; 2·0	Kuhi; 12·0	Weltur; 4·0; ..	.. 8·0	..	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Telhārā—Ngp.—तेल्हारा ..	NW; 8·0	1322·65; 268; 52; 153	Khapri; 1·4	Khapri; 1·4	Gumgaon; 1·0; Sun.	Nagpur; 8·0	w.	Cs; 2 tl.
Temasana—Ngp.—टेमसन ..	E; 10·0	1649·88; 495; 110; 338	Dighori; 1·4	Dighori; 1·4	Nagpur; 9·0; All days.	Nagpur; 10·0	W.;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; Co-operative Bank.
Tāmbekhaṇī—Umr.—तांबेखणी ..	NE; 10·0	.. 94; 17; 57	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. 5·0	W.	tl.
Tembharī—Ngp.—टेंभरी ..	S; 24·0	792·83; 249; 59; 150	Borkhedi; 2·4	Borkhedi; 2·4	Wela; 4·4; Sat.	Brahmani; 2·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Tembharī—Ngp.—टेंभरी ..	NW; 18·0	617·17; 52; 13; 32	Takalghat; 1·0	Bori; 4·0	Takalghat; 1·0; Sat.	Bori; 4·0	W.;n.	Cs; 3 tl.
Temoharī—Umr.—टेंभरी ..	N; 14·0	513·43; 167; 33; 107	Kuhi; 2·0	Kuhi; 2·0	Kuhi; 2·0; Wed.	Kuhi; 2·0	W.;w.	tl.
Tembhuraḍoh—Snr.—टेंभुरडोह ..	.. 12·0	1052·83; 751; 204; 403	Wadegaon; 3·0	Kelwad; 5·0	Kelwad; 5·0; Thu.	Khapa; 6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Thaḍī Pauṅī—Ktl.—थडी पौनी ..	W; 24·0	332·26; 1520; 321; 703	Local; ..	Narkhed; 20·0	Local;	.. ..	rv.;w.	2 Sl (pr; m); 4 Cs (fmg; cr; 2 mis); 3 tl; gym; Yamaji Bawa Fr. dp; first Saturday of Ct-dp.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Thāṇā—Rmt.—ठाणा ..	NW; 25·0	656·36; 79; 18; 44	Shahapur; 1·4	Khat; 8·0	Shahapur; 1·4; Tue.	Shahapur; 1·4	w.	2 tl.
Thāṇā—Umr.—ठाणा ..	W; 22·0	632·97; 428; 87; 274	Dongar Mauda; 2·0	Brahmani; 10·0	Dongar Mauda; 2·0; Sat.	.. 6·0	w.	tl.; Cch.
Thāṇā—Umr.—ठाणा ..	E; 12·0	2133·92; 297; 63; 167	Umrer; 5·0	Umrer; 4·0	Umrer; 5·0; ..	Umrer; 4·0	w.	tl.
Thāṇā—Umr.—ठाणा ..	E; 4·4	1240·50; 239; 49; 139	Local; 0·6	Bori; 9·0	Local; .. Mon.	Umrer; 4·4	w.	Cs; tl.
Thārā—Umr.—थारा ..	W; 15·0	1509·09; 20	Davha; 3·0	Bori; 10·0	Thana 2·0; Mon.	.. 1·0	w.	tl.
Thāturawāḍā—Ktl.—थातुरवाडा	W; 7·0	629·72; 878; 177; 419	Bhisnur; 0·4	Katol; 6·4	Bhisnur; 0·4; Sun.	.. 1·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cr (cr); 2 tl; lib.
Thomarā—Umr.—ठोमरा ..	N; 3·0	1616·44; 403; 82; 263	Udasa; 2·0	Umrer; 3·0	Umrer; 3·0; Mon.	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Thuṅgāṅvdev—Ktl.—थुंगावदेव ..	NW; 17·0	826·76; 1391; 306; 811	Local; ..	Narkhed; 8·0	Local; .. Sun.	.. 3·0	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c) 3 tl; M.
Thugāṅv Nipāṇī—Ktl.—ठुगांव निपाणी. ..	NW; 12·0	905·82; 563; 111; 283	Kharsoli; 2·0	Narkhed; 5·4	Narkhed; 5·4; Sun.	Bharasingi; 5·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Thuṭānborī—Umr.—थूटानबोरी	W; 24·0	963·25; 585; 117; 329	Local; ..	Bhiwapur; 9·0	Ghotangaon; 4·0; ..	Bhiwapur; 9·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tiḍaṅgī—Snr.—तिडंगी ..	W; 11·0	1677·63; 655; 153; 387	Nanda; 1·0	.. ..	Mohpa; 10·0; Wed;	.. 3·0	rv.; w.	Scs (pr); SCc (c); 4 tl.
Tiḍakepār—Umr.—तिडकेपार ..	.. ..	.. 11; 3; 5	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	n;o.	dp.
Tigaī—Snr.—तिगई ..	E; 5·0	918·80; 635; 120; 188	Khapa; 1·4	Khapa; 1·0	Khapa; 1·4; Sun.	Khapa; 1·4	W.; w.	n. Sl (pr); Cs (cr); 2 tl.
Tikhāḍī—Umr.—तिखाडी ..	NW; 14·0	900·27; 45; 11; 31	Chanpa; 3·0	Umrer; 12·0	Chanpa; 3·0; Sat.	Chanpa; 3·0	w.	tl.
Tinakheḍā—Ktl.—टिनखेडा ..	NW; 13·0	2438·55; 1167; 265; 670	Kharsoli; 2·4	Narkhed; 6·0	Narkhed; 6·0; Sun.	Bharasingi; 6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); 4 tl.
Tirakhura—Umr.—तिरखुरा ..	E; 3·0	1610·19; 237; 49; 136	Umrer; 4·0	Umrer; 4·0	Umrer; 4·0 ..	Umrer; 3·0	w.	tl; M; Ramnavmi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9.
Tiṣṭī Bk.—Snr.—तिष्टी बु. ..	SW; 13·0	1772·81; 1135; 246; 641	Telgaon; 2·0	Kohali; 12·0	Mohpa; 8·0; Wed.	.. 6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; gym; lib.
Tiṣṭī Kh.—Snr.—तिष्टी खुर्द ..	SW; 12·0	2788·72; 310; 80; 194	Nanda; 4·0	Kohali; 14·0	Mohpa; 10·0; Wed.	.. 5·0	W.;w.	Cs. (c); tl.
Titūr—Umr.—तितूर ..	N; 17·0	2702·55; 938; 197; 456	Titur; 2·0	Titur; 2·0	Local; .. Mon.	Pachgaon; 6·0	w.	Sl (pr) Cs.; 3 tl; lib; dp.
Toṇḍākhairī—Snr.—तोंडाखैरी ..	E; 9·0	1119·65; 376; 89; 229	Dhapewada; 2·0	Kalameshwar; 8·0	Dhapewada; 2·0; Tue.	.. 6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); tl; 'White Clay'.
Toṇḍalī—Rmt.—तोंडली ..	E; 16·0	1058·60; 325; 68; 191	.. ..	Rewarala;	Kodamendhi; .. Sun.	Ramtek; 16·0	w.	3 tl.
Toyāpūr—Ktl.—तोयापूर ..	SW; 12·0	981·93; 272; 60; 159	Yeni; 1·0	Narkhed; 4·0	Narkhed; 4·0; Sun.	.. ..	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl.
Tuḍakā—Umr.—तुडका ..	NW; 24·0	1317·23; 711; 124; 416	Ambhara; 4·0	Brahmani; 20·0	Adyal; 6·0; Sun.	.. 6·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Tumaḍī—Umr.—तुमडी ..	W; 23·0	725·08; 107; 24; 63	Thana; 4·0	Bori; 9·0	Thana; 4·0; Mon.	.. 5·0	w.	Cs; 3 tl.
Tumān—Rmt.—तुमान ..	SE; 12·0	1738·56; 364; 78; 255	Nimkheda; 2·0	Tharasa; 2·0	Nimkhed; 2·0; Sun.	Ramtek; 12·0	W.;w.	Cs; tl; lib.
Turāgondī—Ngp.—तुरागोंदी ..	W; 17·0	1663·44; 124; 31; 74	Dhamana; 3·0	Nagpur; 19·0	Pethkal Dongari. 3·0; Tue.	Dhamana; 2·0	W.	2 tl.
Turakamārī—Ngp.—तुरकमारी	S; 15·0	554·23; 159; 34; 94	Bori; 3·0	Bori; 3·0	Bori; 3·0; Tue.	Bori; 3·0	w.	tl.
Tuyāpār—Rmt.—टूयापार ..	SW; 22·0	1355·06; 55; 11; 39	Deolapar; 10·0	Ramtek; 17·0	Pauni; 6·0; Wed.	Pauni; 6·0	w.	tl.
Tuyāpār—Rmt.—टूयापार ..	N; 23·0	810·26; 297; 54; 147	Deolapar; 4·0	Ramtek; 22·0	Deolapar; 4·0; Tue.	Deolapar; 2·0	w.	2 tl.
Ubagī—Snr.—उबगी ..	S; 10·0	1750·41; 296; 66; 177	Kohali; 3·0	Kohli; 3·0	Kohli; 3·0; ..	Khapa; 2·0	W.;rv.	3 tl.
Ubāḷī—Snr.—उबाळी ..	S; 10·0	2148·11; 1945; 441; 1059	Uparwahi; 3·0	Kalameshwar; 7·0	Kalameshwar; 7·0; Sun.	Ghogali; 3·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; 2 gym.
Uḍagāṅv—Ngp.—उडगांव ..	E; 18·0	1444·07; 248; 56; 147	Gumathala; 3·0	Kamathi; 4·0	Gumathala; 3·0; Thu.	Mauja Vadoda; 5·0	rv.	tl.
Udāpūr Rayyatavārī—Ktl.—उदापूर रयतवारी. ..	W; 23·0	1354·86; 161; 38; 103	Kamathi; 3·0	Katol; 25·0	Thadipauni; 3·4; Sun.	Jalalkheda; 11·0	W.;w.	tl.
Udāsā—Umr.—उदासा ..	NW; 5·2	1793·84; 569; 122; 311	Local; ..	Umrer; 6·0	Umrer; 6·0; Mon.	Local; ..	..	rv; n; t; w; Sl (pr); Cs; 9 tl.
Ukaḍavāhī—Umr.—उकडवाही ..	NW; 8·0	1657·96; 119; 21; 55	Udasa; 2·0	Umrer; 8·0	Makar Dhokda; 5·0; Fri.	Chanpa; 4·0	w.	3 tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office; Distance (4)	
Ukhaḷī Ngp. उखळी ..	NW;	12·0	836·89;	221;	47;	116	Hingna;	3·0
Ukhaḷī Umr. उखळी ..	NE;	12·0	723·38;	399;	85;	226	Umrer;	12·0
Umarā Umr. उमरा ..	NE;	24·0	252·00;	157;	36;	95	Ambhora;	3·0
Umaragāṅv Ngp. उमरगांव ..	E;	10·0	873·42;	312;	64;	158	Kalamana;	1·0
Umareḍ Umr. उमरेड ..	HQ;	..	2583·22;	22682;	4437;	2896	Local;	..
Umarī Ktl. उमरी ..	N;	12·2	..	296;	63;	115	..	..
Umarī Ngp. उमरी ..	E;	15·0	2553·43;	553;	147;	335	Local;	..
Umarī Ngp. उमरी ..	W;	24·0	1189·62;	400;	78;	230	Wadoda;	2·0
Umarī Rmt. उमरी ..	N;	24·0	486·98;	453;	94;	282	Mahuli;	3·0
Umarī Rmt. उमरी ..	W;	10·0	715·51;	423;	97;	219	Musewadi;	1·0
Umarī Rmt. उमरी ..	..	..	385·71;	127;	23;	33	Deolapar;	3·0
Umarī Snr. उमरी ..	W;	7·0	2454·60;	1566;	342;	753	Local;	..
Umarī Umr. उमरी ..	..	..	664·44;	284;	52;	129	Rajola;	2·0
Umarī Jāmbhaḷāpāṭī Snr. उमरी जांभळापाटी ..	NE;	8·0	1277·37;	424;	100;	255	Khuwala;	2·0
Umaṭhā Ktl. उमठा ..	W;	14·0	1297·15;	281;	70;	163	Mendhala;	3·0
Undarī Umr. उंद्री ..	N;	15·0	708·59;	98;	24;	68	Pachagaon;	4·0
Uparavāhī Snr. उपरवाही ..	S;	15·0	1174·15;	1174;	254;	515	Local;	..
Urakuḍāpār Umr. उरकुडापार	S;	18·0	1263·09;	103;	24;	61	Umrer;	18·0
Usarīpār Rmt. उमरीपार ..	N;	24·0	572·51;	110;	14;	38	Deolapar;	2·4
Utārā Ktl. उतारा ..	W;	27·0	..	128;	30;	79	..	..
Uṭī Umr. उटी ..	N;	11·0	1040·45;	395;	84;	246	Chanpa;	2·0
Vaḍadhā Umr. वडधा ..	W;	20·3	1047·51;	626;	128;	360	Medha;	1·4
Vaḍadha Umr. वडध ..	W;	19·0	..	284;	59;	16	Salai-Godhoni;	3·0
Vaḍadhāmanā Ngp. वडधामना	NW;	10·0	1883·88;	849;	154;	486	Local;	..
Vaḍagāṅv Ngp. वडगांव ..	NW;	15·0	988·99;	164;	37;	97	Seldoh;	2·0
Vaḍagāṅv Ngp. वडगांव ..	..	..	1355·32;	572;	107;	314	Gumgaon;	3·0
Vaḍegāṅv Umr. वडेगांव ..	NW;	23·0	604·12;	249;	61;	135	Bela;	2·0
Vaḍāmoā Rmt. वडांवा ..	N;	22·0	265·19;	155;	29;	67	Deolapar;	2·0
Vaḍāndrā Umr. वडांद्रा ..	SE;	2·0	778·81;	6;	3;	6	..	..
Vaḍavihirā Ktl. वडविहिरा ..	..	..	619·43;	249;	52;	153	Paradsinga;	1·0
Vadavihirā Ktl. वडविहिरा ..	W;	7·0	1783·36;	530;	131;	301	Mendhala;	2·0

Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Khapari;	6·0	Hingna;	6·0; Mon.	Hingna;	3·0	w.	tl.
Umrer;	12·0	Bhishi;	4·0; Sat.	Umrer;	12·0	w.	tl.
Kuhi;	18·0	Navegaon;	1·0; Mon.	Bhandara;	8·0	w.;n.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Nagpur;	10·0	Nagpur;	10·0; Wed.	Nagpur;	10·0	w.;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; M.
Local;	..	Local;	.. Mon.	..	4·0	W.;w.	tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	4·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Nagpur;	26·0	Local,	.. Sun.	..	1·0	W.;w.	tl.
Dighori;	5·0	Wadoda;	2·0; Tue.	..	16·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dg.
Mansar;	10·0	Nawegaon Khairi;	2·0; Fri.	Deolapar;	2·0	w.	tl; Ch.
Ramtek;	12·0	Ramtek;	10·0 Sun.	..	6·0	rv.; w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dg.
Mansar;	20·0	Deolapar;	3·0; Tue.	Ramtek;	7·0	w.	tl.
Saoner;	8·0	Nanda;	3·0; Sun.	Local;	..	W.;n.	Sl (pr); 5 tl; Ramnavmi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9.
Kuhi;	14·0	Salwa;	4·0; ..	Salwa;	4·0	..	Sl (pr); tl.
Khapa;	3·0	Khapa;	3·0· Sun. and Wed.	Khapa;	2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Katol;	15·0	Mendhala;	3·0; Tue.	..	4·0	W.;w.	tl.
Nagpur;	12·0	Chanpa;	3·0; Sat.	..	1·0	w.	tl.
Kalameshwar;	5·0	Local;	.. Thu.	..	2·0	W.;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl; gym.
Umrer;	18·0	Shirshi;	4·0; Wed.	Umrer;	18·0	w.	tl.
Mansar;	20·0	Deolapar;	2·4; Tue.	Deolapar;	2·4	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.;w.	Cs (gr); 2 tl.
Umrer;	10·0	Chanpa;	2·0; Sat.	Umrer;	11·0	w.	Cs; tl.
Bhiwapur;	3·50	Bhiwapur;	3·50; Fri.	Chanpa;	6·3	w.	tl.
Umrer;	19·0	Sali Godhemi.	3·0; Fri.	Panchgaon;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dp.
Nagpur;	10·0	Nagpur;	10·0; Mon. and Thu.	..	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Sindhi;	3·0	Sindhi;	3·0; Thu.	Dongargaon;	7·0	w.	2 tl.
Gumgaon;	5·0	Gumgaon;	3·0; Sun.	Sawangi;	2·4	w.	Cs. tl.
Borkhedi;	10·0	Bela;	2·0; Sat.	Borkhedi;	5·0	w.	Sl (pr; m); 2 tl.
Mansar;	18·0	Deolapar;	2·0; Tue.	Local;	0·4	w.	tl; Ch.
..	..	..	.. ..	Umrer;	2·0	w.	tl.
Katol;	6·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Shahapur;	12·0	W.	2 sl (pr; m); h; Cs; 7 tl; 2 m; mq; dg; 2 gym; lib; dp.
Katol;	14·0	Umrer;	8·0; Fri.	Local;	..	W.	tl; dh.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Vaḍegāṅv—Rmt.—वडेगांव ..	E; 8·0	621·67; 120; 38; 36	Kachurwahi; 1·0	Tharsa; 5·0	Nagpur; 5·0; All days.	.. 1·4	W.	2 tl.
Vaḍegāṅv—Umr.—वडेगांव ..	E; 7·4	785·46; 199; 45; 123	Navegaon; 4·0	Umrer; 9·0	Bhiwapur; 4·0; Fri.	.. 1·0	W.	tl.
Vaḍegāṅv—Umr.—वडेगांव ..	.. ..	.. 261; 57; 158	.. ..	.. ..	Mandhal; 4·0; Tue.	Umrer; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vaḍegāṅv—Umr.—वडेगांव ..	NW; 21·0	1127·24; 275; 54; 161	Mandhal; 0·4	Brahmani; 8·0	.. .. ..	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Vāḍegāṅv Umari—Ktl.—वाडेगांव उमरी.	N; 12·0	1776·47; 487; 97; 285	Narkhed; 4·0	Narkhed; 4·0	Tarsa Station; 2·0; Sun.	Maunda; 8·0	W.	3 tl.
Vaḍhāmbā—Rmt.—वढांवा ..	S; 22·0	.. 747; 162; 243	.. ..	.. ..	Nagpur; 8·0; Sun. & Wed.	Nagpur; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Vāḍhonā—Rmt.—वाढोना ..	.. ..	.. 143; 26; 85	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	Sl (m).
Vāḍhoṇā—Ktl.—वाढोणा ..	W; 18·0	520·18; 721; 169; 375	Yenwa; 1·0	Kalambha; 2·0	Bhisnur; 1·0; Sun.	Rohna; 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Vāḍhoṇā Kh.—Snr.—वाढोणा खुर्द.	S; 9·0	990·63; 267; 54; 133	Dhapewada; 2·0	Dhapewada; 8·0	Bhishi; 4·0; Sat.	Thana; 7·0	W.	tl.
Vāḍhoṇa Bk.—Snr.—वाढोना बु.	S; 9·0	990·73; 558; 116; 324	Ubali; 2·0	Kalmeshwar; 5·0	Vadoda; 3·0; Tue.	.. ..	W.	
Vaḍhonā Lodhī—Ktl.—वाढोना लोधी.	N; 3·6	1105·79; 676; 180; 407	Mendhala; 1·0	Katol; 20·0	Patansawangi, 3·0; Tue.	Pimpala; 4·0	W; w.	Cs (cr).
Vāḍī—Ngp.—वाडी ..	W; 6·0	1793·16; 1099; 255; 305	Local; ..	Nagpur; 6·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	rv.	
Vaḍodā—Ngp.—वडोदा ..	E; 16·5	4006·26; 1930; 442; 918	Local; ..	Dighori; 8·0	Katol; 6·0; Tue.	Chikhali; 1·0	W; w.	Sl (m); 2 Cs (2 cr); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; 2 m; dg; 2 lib; dp.
Vāg—Umr.—वाग ..	NE; 10·0	1599·54; 959; 178; 452	Mandhal; 2·0	Brahmani; 6·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Vāgadarā—Ngp.—वागदरा ..	.. ..	.. 29; 5; ..	.. ..	.. ..	Kamathi; 1·0; Fri.	Kamathi; 0·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 6 tl; m; gym.
Vāghoḍā—Ktl.—वाघोडा ..	S; 4·0	927·40; 351; 71; 191	Ladgaon; 1·0	Katol; 5·0	.. .. ..	Narkhed; 3·0	W; w.	Sl.; pr.; tl.
Vāghoḍā—Rmt.—वाघोडा ..	NE; 15·0	1204·06; 498; 93; 215	Hingna; 2·0	Khaperkheda; 5·0	Kalmeshwar; 4·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr;), 2 tl; lib.
Vāghoḍā—Snr.—वाघोडा ..	NE; 1·0	511·21; 380; 91; 164	Malegaon; 2·4	Malegaon; 2·4	Katol; 6·0; Tue.	Rly. Station Kalambha; 4·0	W; w.	2 Sl (pr;m); Cs (c); tl; 2 dg.
Vāgholī—Rmt.—वाघोली .	E; 12·0	890·95; 288; 67; 141	Gondegaon; 3·0	Dumari; 3·0	Sukali; 3·0; Sun.	Hingna; 8·0	W.	tl.
Vāgholī—Rmt.—वाघोली ..	.. ..	.. 15; 2; 8	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Vāgholī—Snr.—वाघोली ..	W; 12·0	912·89; 173; 38; 111	Kothulna; 3·0	Khapa; 6·0	Kamathi; 6·0; Fri.	Rewarala; 0·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; gym.
Vāgholī—Umr.—वाघोली ..	W; 24·0	673·19; 11; 3; 4	Adyal; 2·0	Bhiwapur; 5·0	Kamathi; 8·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	W.	2 tl.
Vāi Bk.—Ktl.—वाई बु. ..	SW; 10·0	813·72; 642; 143; 376	Kachari Sawanga; 2·4	Katol; 9·0	Shirshi; 4·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.	2 tl.
Vāi Kh.—Ktl.—वाई खुर्द ..	SW; 10·0	913·72; 1; 1; ..	.. ..	.. ..	Titur; 1·4; Mon.	Vadoda; 8·0	W.	2 tl.
Vākeśvar—Ngp.—वाकेश्वर ..	S; 14·0	1014·15; 171; 34; 93	Bori; 5·0	Gumgaon; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 8·0; Fri.	.. 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Vākeśvar—Umr.—वाकेश्वर ..	SE; 8·0	819·84; 313; 71; 201	Jawali; 1·0	Chargaon; 6·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 4·7	W; w.	2 Sl (pr; m), Cs (cr); 2 tl; Dhuliwandan Fr. Phg. Vad 1; dp.
Vākeśvar—Rmt.—वाकेश्वर ..	E; 14·0	1118·94; 543; 112; 229	Indora; 1·0	Rewarala; 5·0	Mohogaon; 1·0; Fri.	Hingna; 7·0	N.	tl.
Vākī—Snr.—वाकी ..	E; 10·0	1586·76; 1225; 285; 641	Local; ..	Patansawangi; 2·2	Mohpa; 9·0; Wed.	.. ..	W;w.	tl.
Vākoḍī—Snr.—वाकोडी ..	E; 8·0	2203·33; 2757; 575; 675	Waki; 2·0	Khapa; 5·0	Deolapar;	Deolapar; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)		Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)				Post Office; Distance (4)		Railway Station; Distance (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)		Motor Stand; Distance (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Vaḷaṇī—Ktl.—वळणी ..	S;	6·0	811·41;	413;	75;	225	Murti;	2·0	Katol;	6·0	Gumthala;	3·0; Tue.	Odha;	2·0	W.	tl.
Valanī—Ngp. वलनी ..	N;	12·0	1680·85;	127;	27;	85	Umari;	2·0	Nagpur;	12·0	Kalmeshwar;	3·0; Sun.	..	2·0	W.	2 Sl (pr.); tl.
Valanī—Ngp. वलनी ..	NW;	31·0	1651·61;	554;	123;	200	Local;	..	Bharatwada;	3·0	Kalmeshwar;	4·0; Sun.	Bharatwada;	3·0	W.	tl.
Vaḷaṇī—Snr.—वळणी ..	..	..	1264·77;	522;	106;	277	Pipala;	2·0	Pipala;	2·0	Nagpur;	14·0; Sun.	Pipala;	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vānāḍoṅgarī—Ngp.—वानाडोंगरी	W;	8·0	2061·93;	651;	139;	310	Raipur Hingna;	2·0	Khapri;	6·0	Raipur Hingna;	2·0; ..	Local;	..	W.	Sl (pr); tl; mq; dg.
Vāṇḍalī Bk.—Ktl.—वांडली बु. ..	..	..	564·97;	564;	108;	316	Yerla;	2·0	Kalambha;	1·4	Digras;	1·4; Mon.	Yevla;	2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vāṇḍalī Khurd—Ktl.—वांडली खु.	N;	7·0	1591·78;	384;	80;	203	Katol;	1·4	Katol;	1·4	Katol;	1·4; Tue.	Katol;	1·4	rv; w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Vāñjarā—Ngp.—वांजरा ..	E;	6·0	938·11;	..	..	139	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	Kamathi;	0·6	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vāñjarā—Rmt.—वांजरा ..	S;	22·0	797·01;	362;	72;	217	Mauda;	3·0	Tharasa;	12·0	Mauda;	3·0; Fri.	Mauda;	2·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Vāñjarī*—Ngp.—वांजरी ..	E;	5·0	634·35;	..	..	55	..	..	..	..	..	1·0; ..	..	..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vaṇī—Umr.—वणी ..	S;	18·0	1464·98;	338;	63;	171	Mand;	1·4	Umrer;	17·4	Nand;	1·4; Sun.	Umrer;	18·0	W.	tl.
Vānoḍā—Umr.—वानोडा ..	NE;	5·0	..	233;	51;	128	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vāraghāṭ—Rmt.—वारघाट ..	N;	15·0	2075·14;	752;	147;	451	Hiwara;	1·0	Mansar;	17·0	Hiwara;	1·0; Mon.	Deolapar;	5·0	W.	tl.
Vārajāḷī—Ktl.—वरजाळी ..	..	..	..	12;	4;	3·0	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	
Varambhā—Ngp.—वरंभा ..	E;	20·0	1670·81;	563;	128;	293	Bhugaon;	2·0	Titur;	4·0	Bhugaon;	2·0; Sun.	Vadida;	8·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vāraṅgā—Ngp.—वारंगा ..	NW;	24·0	703·39;	23;	7;	13	Kanholibara;	2·0	Sindhi;	6·0	Kanholibara;	2·0; Sun.	..	..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vāregāṅv—Ngp.—वारेगांव ..	N;	10·0	1753·55;	1055;	288;	335	Kamathi;	4·0	Kamathi;	4·0	Kamathi;	4·0; Fri.	Kamathi;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; dg; gym.
Vāraṅgā—Ngp.—वारंगा ..	S;	16·0	1434·23;	371;	86;	203	Bori;	5·0	Bori;	4·0	Bori;	5·0; ..	Mahegaon;	8·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg.
Varapāṇī—Snr.—वरपाणी ..	N;	16·4	378·08;	54;	13;	31	Bichwa;	1·0	Kelwad;	11·0	Nagalwadi;	2·0 Fri.	Kelwad;	11·5	W; w.	tl.
Varoḍā—Snr.—वरोडा ..	S;	9·0	1339·10;	753;	125;	417	..	1·4	Kalameshwar;	3·0	Kalameshwar;	3·0; Sun.	Kalameshwar;	3·0	rv; w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m.
Varoḍā—Ngp.—वरोडा ..	S;	9·0	908·49;	87;	22;	65	Khapri;	2·4	Khapri;	2·4	Nagpur;	7·0; Mon.	..	2·0	W.	2 tl.; gym.
Vāsabodī—Ktl.—वासबोडी ..	E;	10·0	1978·67;	294;	62;	177	Metpanjra;	4·0	Metpanjra;	6·0	Mendhepathar;	4·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Vāsī—Umr.—वासी ..	SE;	10·0	1703·78;	575;	146;	343	Kargaon;	2·0	Kargaon;	3·0	Bhiwapur;	8·0; Fri.	Kargaon;	3·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vaṭeghāṭ—Ngp.—वटेघाट ..	NW;	18·0	617·32	66;	16;	52	Takalghat;	1·0	Bori;	4·0	Takalghat;	1·0; Sat.	Bori;	4·0	W.	Cs; 3 tl.
Vāṭhoḍā—Ngp.—वाठोडा ..	E;	7·0	1301·50;	561;	300;	425	Mahal. Nagpur;	4·0	Nagpur;	5·0	Nagpur;	4·0; ..	..	3·0	w.; rv.	2 tl; gym.
Vāṭhoḍā—Ngp.—वाठोडा ..	S;	21·0	..	82;	13;	50	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	..	2·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Vāṭhoḍā—Snr.—वाठोडा ..	S;	10·0	906·07;	183;	41;	119	Kohali;	3·0	Kohali;	3·0	Mohpa;	3·0; Wed.	Mohpa;	1·4	W; w.	tl.
Vāyagāṅv—Rmt.—वायगांव ..	NE;	21·0	1028·28;	389;	81;	127	Indora;	4·0	Khat; DESERTED	5·0	Tonda;	1·4; Mon.	Varathi;	11·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Vāyagāṅv—Umr.—वायगांव ..	..	..	..	35;	9;	21	..	..								
Vāyaphaḷ—Nag.—वायफळ ..	..	..	..	35;	5;	..	..	..								
Velagāṅv—Umr.—वेलगांव ..	SE;	13·0	2698·11;	578;	104;	310	Dongar Mauda;	2·0	Brahmani;	10·0	Dongar Mauda;	2·0; ..	..	9·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Velasākara—Umr.—वेलसाकर ..	NW;	7·0	1396·42;	537;	114;	366	Udasa;	3·0	Umrer;	8·0	Makar Dhokda;	5·0; Fri.	Umrer;	7·0	W; w.	Gudi Padwa Fr. Ct. Sud 1.
Velatūr—Umr.—वेलतूर ..	NE;	22·0	2764·23;	2793;	571;	703	Local;	..	Kuhri;	16·0	Paradshinga;	1·0; Wed.	..	..	..	
Veḷavā—Umr.—वेळवा ..	E;	8·0	245·16	12·3	Kargaon	10	Local;	..	Local;	..	Mendhala;	2·0; Tue.	..	1·0	W.;w.	
Bidgāṅv—Ngp.—बिडगांव ..	E;	6·0	668·62;	324;	67;	137	Pardi;	3·0	Nagpur;	5·0	Kachurvahi;	1·0; Mon.	Ramtek;	8·0	W.	tl.
Virakhaṇḍī—Umr.—विरखंडी ..	E;	10·0	734·78;	325;	75;	193	Bhiwapur;	4·0	Bhiwapur;	4·0	Umrer;	9·0; Mon.	Umrer;	7·4	w.	tl.
Virakhaṇḍī—Umr.—विरखंडी ..	NE;	8·0	984·75;	466;	89;	36	Tarna;	2·0	Brahmani;	5·0	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	
Virlī—Umr.—विरली ..	N;	4·0	..	261;	56;	174	..	..	..	..	Mandhal;	0·4; Tue.	Sonegaon;	7·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2tl.

Village Name (1)	Direction; Travelling distance (2)	Area (Acres); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)	Railway Station; Distance (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day (6)	Motor Stand; Distance (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Viraśī—Rmt.—विरशी ..	SE; 14·0	2066·24; 380; 83; 234	Rewarala; 2·0	Tarsa; 2·0	Narkhed; 4·0; Sun.	Narkhed; 5·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr).
Vihiragāṅv—Ngp.—विहिरगांव ..	SE; 8·0	1161·46, 540; 97; 237	Kalamana; 2·0	Nagpur; 8·0	.. .. ..	Mauda; 3·4	w.	2tl.
Vyāhād—Ngp.—व्याहाद ..	.. ..	.. 953; 212; 386	Local; ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Vivarā—Ktl.—विवरा ..	NW; 10·0	1271·27; 392; 98; 222	Bhisnur; 1·0	Katol; 7·0	Katol; 2·0; Tue.	Jalalkheda; 6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2tl; 2dg.
Yeḍasambhā—Umr.—येडसंभा ..	S; 10·0	1452·39; 46; 10; 30	Jawali; 4·0	Umrer; 9·0	Dhapewada; 2·0; Tue.	Mohpa; 3·0	W.;w.	Cs (c); tl.
Yekarḍī—Ngp.—येकर्डी ..	.. ..	.. 168; 33; 84	Vadoda; 3·0	Dighori; 4·0	Dhapewada; 2·0; Tue.	Dhapewada; 1·4	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2tl.
Yelatūr—Snr.—येलतूर ..	E; 10·0	986·00; 397; 81; 111	Patansawangi; 3·0	Patansawangi; 4·0	Mendhala; 1·0; Tue.	.. 3·6	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2tl.
Yelkāpār—Snr.—येलकापार ..	.. ..	.. 36; 12; 11	.. ..	.. ..	Nagpur; 6·0 Tue.	Local; ..	w.	Sl (pr); 3tl; dp.
Yeṇavā—Ktl.—येणवा ..	N; 6·0	1578·00; 1704; 395; 903	Local; ..	Kalambha; 3·0	Local; .. Tue.	.. 0·5	w.	3 Sl (pr, 2m); 3tl; 2gym. lib; 2dp.
Yenī—Ktl.—येनी ..	.. ..	.. 364; 72; 142	Local; ..	.. ..	Mandhal; 2·0; Tue.	.. 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Yerakheḍā—Ngp.—येरखेडा ..	SE; 10·0	1270·45; 2111; 469; 416	Kamathi; 1·0	Kamathi; 1·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Yeralā—Ktl.—येरला ..	NW; 15·0	.. 440; 100; 219	.. ..	.. ..	Katol; 5·0; Tue.	Katol; 4·0	pl; w.	2Sl (2pr); tl.
Yeral—Ngp.—येरल ..	NW; 9·4	1250·68; 401; 95; 175	Phetari; 1·0	Kalameshwar; 4·0	Parshivni; 7·0; Mon.	Dumari Kh; 5·0	rv.; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg.
Yeralā Dhoṭe—Ktl.—येरला धोटे ..	N; 5·0	1891·61; 1058; 228; 516	Local; ..	Kalambha; 1·0	Malegaon; 1·4; Fri.	Saoner; 1·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (cr); tl.
Yeraṇḍgāṅv—Ngp.—येरंडगांव ..	NW; 20·0	1201·12; 121; 26; 64	Umri; 4·0	Nagpur 23·0	Mansar; 7·0; Thu.	Rewarala; 2·0	w.	tl.
						Borgaon; 9·0		
Yeraṇḍgaṅv—Snr.—येरंडगांव ..	.. ..	.. 251; 54; 152	.. ..	.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Yesambā—Rmt.—येसंबा ..	S; 9·0	860·67; 340; 64; 141	Local; ..	Salwa; 0·4	Kothulna; 3·0 Sat.	Khapa; 6·0	W.;w.	tl.
Yesambā—Rmt.—येसंबा ..	NE; 12·0	1152·39; 394; 84; 218	Gondegaon; 3·0	Dumari; 3·0	Bhiwapur; 5·0; Fri.	Bhiwapur; 5·0	w.	tl.
Zamakolī—Umr.—झमकोली ..	S; 20·0	696·04; 284; 62; 165	Umrer; 20·0	Umrer; 20·0	Kachari Sawanga; 1·4; Fri.	Sawanga (Kachari); 1·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Zarap—Ngp.—झरप ..	E; 16·0	1532·81; 269; 64; 163	Titur; 1·4	Titur; 1·4	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	2Sl (2 pr); tl; Ch.
Zarī—Ngp.—झरी ..	.. ..	.. 3; 2; 2	.. ..	.. ..	Bori; 5·0; ..	Hingna; 3·0	w.	tl; Devi Fr. Ct. Sud 15.
Zilaboḍī—Umr.—झिलबोडी ..	SE; 16·0	1138·39; 413; 90; 264	Medha; 1·0	Bhiwapur; 8·0	Bhishi; .. 6·0; Sat.	Chargaon; 6·0	w.; rv.	tl.
Zilapā—Ktl.—झिलपा ..	NE; 8·6	3155·53; 1342; 318; 708	Local; ..	Katol; 9·0	Kodamendhi; 2·0; Thu.	Rewarala; 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
						Borgaon; 11·0		
Zilapī—Ngp.—झिलपी ..	W; 16·0	1603·43; 38; 9; 24	Mohagaon; 1·0	Kalameshwar; 12·0	Patansawangi; 2·4; Tue.	Patansawangi; 2·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); 3tl; Tajiuddin Urs. Ct.Vad. 5. 2 lib.
Zilapī—Snr.—झिलपी ..	SW; 14·0	1812·99; 138; 32; 86	Telgaon; 4·0	Kohali; 11·0	Local; .. Mon.	Saoner; 8·0	rv.; w.	3Sl (pr, m); 14 tl. 2M. mq.; 8gym. Shankar Fr. Mg. Vad 13.
Zizariā—Rmt.—झिझरिया ..	N; 22·0	1044·01; 469; 85; 178	Deolapar; 2·0	Mansar; 16·0	Katol; 6·0; Tue.	Katol; 6·0	W.;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c).
Zullar—Ngp.—झुल्लर ..	E; 17·0	1680·92; 355; 70; 208	Gumthala; 3·0	Dighori; 8·0	Umari; 2·0; Sun.	Kalameshwar 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); 3tl.
Zunakī—Snr.—झुनकी ..	S; 8·4	752·85; 364; 79; 174	Sawali Bk.; 4·0	Kalameshwar; 3·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	

LIST OF DESERTED VILLAGES IN THE DISTRICT

Katol Tahsil

(1) Ambada.
(2) Babulkheda.
(3) Babulkheda.
(4) Bhayyapur.
(5) Bhudakamadka.
(6) Bid Jatamzari.
(7) Borgaon.
(8) Borkhedi.
(9) Borkhedi Malguzari.
(10) Brahmapuri.
(11) Chakdoh.
(12) Chaukigad.
(13) Chinchkumbha.
(14) Dorli Kh.
(15) Elkapar.
(16) Ghorpad.
(17) Indarwada.
(18) Isasni.
(19) Jatamkohla.
(20) Kalkahi.
(21) Karimabad.
(22) Kelapur.
(23) Kukadi.
(24) Lamdhan.
(25) Lohgad.
(26) Mamdapur.
(27) Mandla.
(28) Milanpur.
(29) Mohanpur.
(30) Mohgaon.
(31) Mohgaon.
(32) Nababpur.
(33) Nanda.
(34) Nasirpur.
(35) Palasgaon.
(36) Palagondi.
(37) Parli.
(38) Pratapgad.
(39) Ramgaon.
(40) Rampur.
(41) Ramapuri (Rayyatavari).
(42) Randhoda.
(43) Salai.
(44) Shabaspur.
(45) Shivkamath.
(46) Sippi Khapa.
(47) Sonegaon.
(48) Sonapur.
(49) Talegaon.
(50) Ubagi.

Saoner Tahsil

(1) Bhojapur.
(2) Bid Chichghat.
(3) Bid Jatamkhora.
(4) Chichghat.
(5) Chorkhairi.
(6) Deoli.
(7) Dorli Bhadoji.
(8) Gadga.
(9) Jakhewada.
(10) Jirola.
(11) Kavadas.
(12) Khapa Janabai.
(13) Koreghat.
(14) Ladai Jungli.
(15) Nanda.

Saoner Tahsil—*cont.*

(16) Pardi.
(17) Parsodi.
(18) Pethubali.
(19) Pilkapar.
(20) Pipala Deshmukh.
(21) Ranala.
(22) Shahapur.
(23) Sindi.
(24) Umari.

Ramtek Tahsil

(1) Bakhari.
(2) Borgaon.
(3) Devhada.
(4) Dudhala.
(5) Gargoti.
(6) Indori.
(7) Karanjghat.
(8) Kargaon.
(9) Kelapur.
(10) Khindsi.
(11) Khirsadi.
(12) Maharpeth.
(13) Mohgaon.
(14) Navegaon.
(15) Panchpavli.
(16) Panjra.
(17) Pardi.
(18) Pathar.
(19) Rampuri.
(20) Rangari.
(21) Seeladevi.
(22) Sivani.
(23) Tondali Kh.

Nagpur Tahsil

(1) Alesur.
(2) Amgaon.
(3) Amgaon.
(4) Amgaon.
(5) Bhivkund.
(6) Bidamgaon.
(7) Bid Mhasla.
(8) Bid Nilazodi.
(9) Bothali.
(10) Chandrapur.
(11) Chichghat.
(12) Devapur.
(13) Dongargaon.
(14) Dongargaon.
(15) Gangapur.
(16) Gonhi.
(17) Gopalpur.
(18) Isasni.
(19) Junapani.
(20) Kanholi.
(21) Kawdimet.
(22) Khapa.
(23) Khapri.
(24) Khori Khapa.
(25) Kinhal.
(26) Kirnapur.
(27) Kohla.
(28) Ladgaon.
(29) Linga.
(30) Malegaon Khurd.

Nagpur Tahsil—*cont.*

(31) Menkhat.
(32) Mhasla.
(33) Mohgaon Bk.
(34) Mohgaon Kh.
(35) Maunda.
(36) Murharpur.
(37) Murzari.
(38) Nanhi.
(39) Ninhai.
(40) Padri Khapa.
(41) Pendhari.
(42) Pitesur.
(43) Powari.
(44) Rahimbad.
(45) Rahimpur.
(46) Rampur.
(47) Rengapur.
(48) Savardhota.
(49) Singardeep.
(50) Silka.
(51) Tamaswadi.
(52) Umri.
(53) Vyahadghat.
(54) Wadgaon Kh.
(55) Wadmanjra.
(56) Wagdara.
(57) Wanadongri.

Umrer Tahsil

(1) Akalabodi.
(2) Bhandarabodi.
(3) Bhovari.
(4) Bhumkolarghat.
(5) Bid Mohna.
(6) Bopeshwar.
(7) Bopeshwar.
(8) Borda.
(9) Borda Kh.
(10) Borgaon.
(11) Bramhi.
(12) Chandla.
(13) Chapeghat.
(14) Chikhali.
(15) Dalpatpur.
(16) Dawadipar.
(17) Dawlimet.
(18) Dhamangaon.
(19) Dhanjimet.
(20) Dharmapar.
(21) Dighori.
(22) Fattepur.
(23) Ganeshpur.
(24) Garamsur.
(25) Gulalpur.
(26) Hatkawda.
(27) Hatti Mundha.
(28) Hetameti.
(29) Heti.
(30) Ibrahimpur.
(31) Jamgaon.
(32) Kalandri.
(33) Kaneri Kh.
(34) Kanhalgaon.
(35) Katra.
(36) Keslapar.
(37) Khapri.
(38) Khursapar.

List of deserted villages in the district—*contd.*

Umrer Tahsil—*cont.*

(39) Kitadi.
(40) Kitadi.
(41) Kondapur.
(42) Mahadapur.
(43) Majri.
(44) Maramazari.
(45) Mendha Kh.
(46) Mhasla.
(47) Mhashi Dongari.
(48) Mhaspathar.
(49) Narsala.
(50) Nawegaon.
(51) Palegaon.
(52) Pandharatalao.
(53) Panjrepar.
(54) Panjrepar.
(55) Paoni.

Umrer Tahsil—*cont.*

(56) Parsodi.
(57) Pawargoni.
(58) Peth Mahamdapur.
(59) Pilkapar.
(60) Pipalgaon.
(61) Pipalkhut.
(62) Piparda.
(63) Podsa.
(64) Powari.
(65) Pratappur.
(66) Rakhi.
(67) Rampuri.
(68) Ridhora
(69) Sagundara.
(70) Saygaon.
(71) Sakra.
(72) Salai Bk.

Umrer Tahsil—*cont.*

(73) Salaimendha.
(74) Seloti.
(75) Sindivihori.
(76) Singapur.
(77) Sonegaon.
(78) Sukali.
(79) Sukali.
(80) Tamaswadi
(81) Tambekhani.
(82) Thara.
(83) Tukumbori
(84) Udeshwar.
(85) Umarpeth.
(86) Umri
(87) Wagdara.
(88) Wagholi.
(89) Yedmepar.

APPENDIX

CONVERSION FACTORS

LENGTH

1 inch = 2·54 centimetres
1 foot = 30·48 centimetres
1 yard = 91·44 centimetres
1 mile = 1·61 kilometres
1 nautical mile (UK) = 1853·18 metres
1 nautical mile (international) = 1852 metres

AREA

1 square foot = 0·093 square metre
1 square yard = 0·836 square metre
1 acre = 0·405 hectare

VOLUME

1 cubic foot = 0·023 cubic metre

CAPACITY

1 gallon (Imperial) = 4·55 litres
1 seer (80 tolas) = 0·937 litre
1 Madras measure = 1·77 litres

WEIGHT

1 tola = 11·66 grams
1 chhatak = 58·32 grams
1 seer = 933·10 grams
1 maund = 37·32 kilograms
1 palam = 34·99 grams
1 seer (24 tolas) = 279·93 grams
1 viss = 1·40 kilograms
1 maund (Madras) = 11·20 kilograms
1 candy = 223·94 kilograms
1 ounce = 28·35 grams
1 pound = 453·59 grams
1 hundredweight = 50·80 kilograms
1 ton = 1016·05 kilograms

TEMPERATURE

T° Fahrenheit = 9/5 (T° centigrade) + 32

METRIC WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

LENGTH

10 millimetres = 1 centimetre
100 centimetres = 1 metre
1000 metres = 1 kilometre
1852 metres = 1 nautical mile (international)

AREA

100 square millimetres = 1 square centimetre
10,000 square centimetres = 1 square metre or centiare.
100 square metres = 1 are
100 ares = 1 hectare.
100 hectares or 1,000,000 square metres = 1 square kilometre

VOLUME

1,000,000 cubic centimetres = 1 cubic metre

CAPACITY—

1000 millilitres = 1 litre
1000 litres = 1 kilolitre

WEIGHTS

1000 milligrams = 1 gram
1000 grams = 1 kilogram
100 kilograms = 1 quintal
1000 kilograms = 1 tonne
200 milligrams = 1 carat

ABBREVIATIONS FOR METRIC UNITS

(1) Decimal Multiples and Submultiples

Prefix	Value in Terms of Unit	Abbreviation
kilo ..	1000	k
centi	0·01 (10^{-2})	c
milli ..	0·001 (10^{-3})	m
micro ..	0·000001 (10^{-6})	u

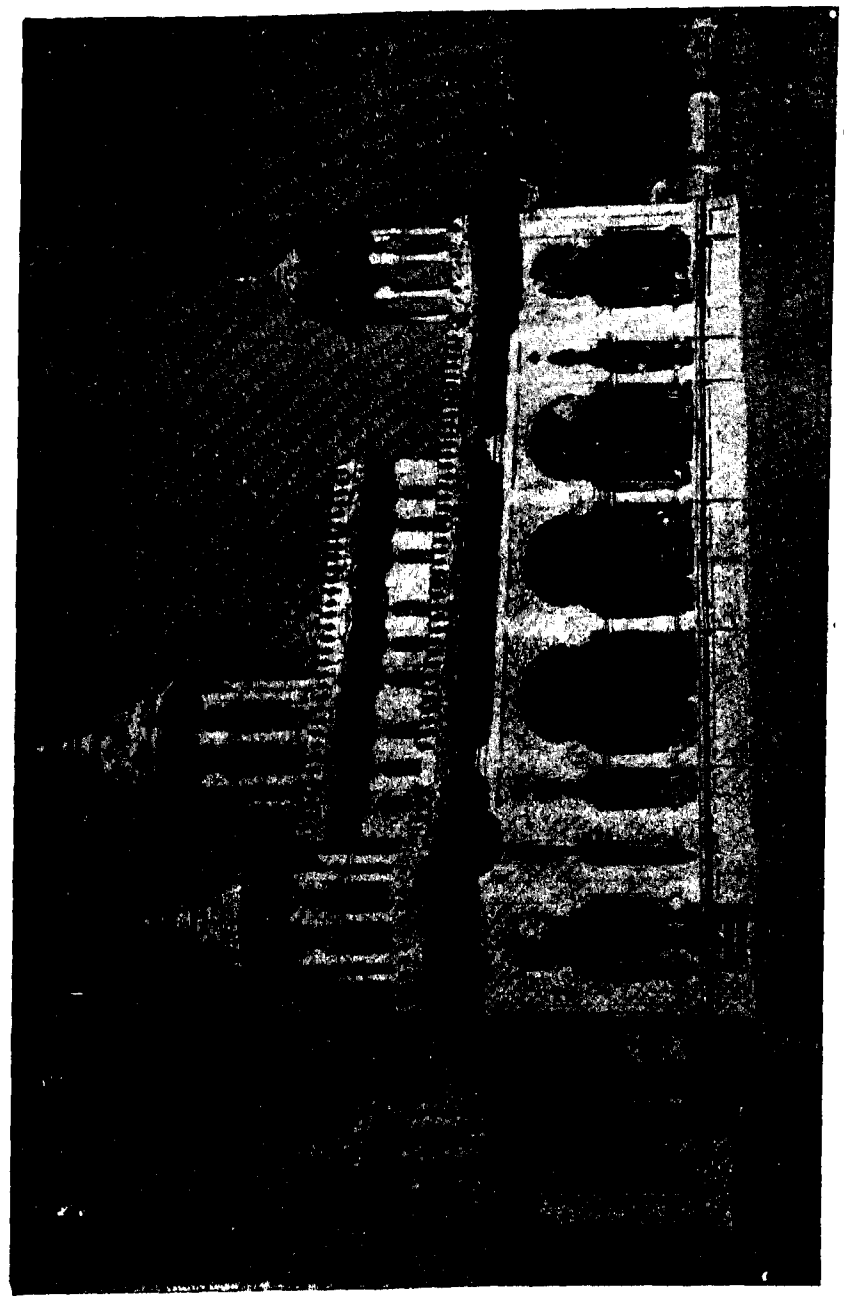
(2) Weights

Denomination	Value	Abbreviation
tonne ..	1000 kg	t
quintal ..	100 kg	q
kilogram	1 kg	kg
gram	1 g	g
milligram	1 mg	mg
carat	200 mg	c

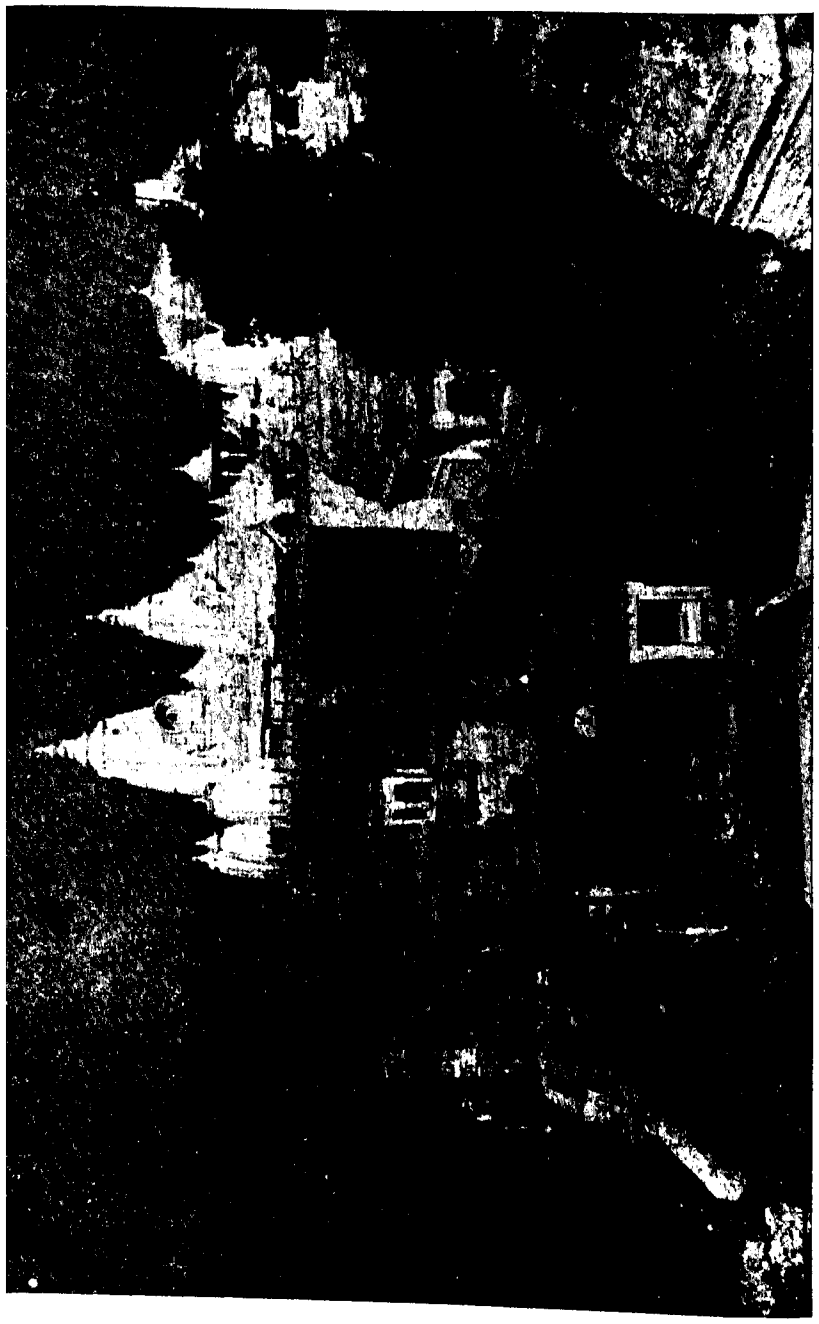
(3) Capacity

kilolitre ..	1000 l	l
litre ..	1 l	l
millilitre ..	1 ml	ml

Denomination	Value	Abbreviation
(4) Volume		
cubic centimetre	cm^3	cm^3
cubic millimetre	mm^3	mm^3
(5) Length		
kilometre ..	1000 m	km
metre ..	1 m	m
centimetre ..	1 cm	cm
millimetre ..	1 mm	mm
micron ..	1/1000 mm or 10^{-2} mm	um
(6) Area		
square kilometres.	1 000 000 m^2	km^2
square metre	1 m^2	m^2
square centimetre	1 cm^2	cm^2
square millimetre	1 mm^2	mm^2
(7) Land Measure		
are	100 m^2	a
hectare	100 a	ha
centiare ..	m^2	ca



memorial of the Bhosles of Nagpur



Ramtek Temples

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