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RANCHI

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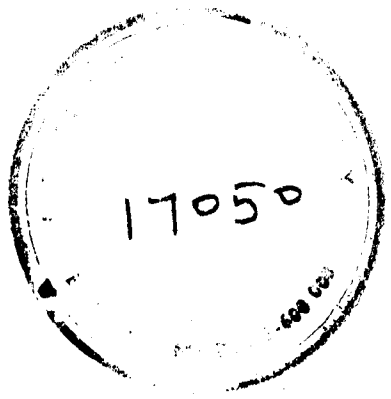


RANCHI

By
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PREFACE

The last (and the first) *District Gazetteer of Ranchi* was edited by M. G. Hallett, I.C.S. (contemporaneously Deputy Commissioner of Ranchi and later Governor of Bihar, 1937 and U. P., 1939) and published in 1917. In this span of over half a century emergence of Ranchi, which was but a sleepy hollow at the turn of the present century, into a cosmopolitan city with an ultra modern industrial complex is indeed a miracle of history. In order to cover up this period, we have done intensive research with regard to its history, anthropology, demography, land-tenure and several other topics to make this volume a representative of contemporary Ranchi.

The last gazetteer was written primarily for the British administrators to acquaint them with the district from the point of view of a foreign occupying power. Under the scheme initiated by the Government of India in 1957, the scope of a District Gazetteer (initially a geographical dictionary) has been made much more comprehensive with detailed headings and contents to cover all walks of life so that it could be useful not only to administrators but also to general readers. It is intended to be a guide to the administrator and an important reference book of high standard for the public. This is a work in which all matters of local importance, which could otherwise be lost sight of, are highlighted. The study includes all aspects : physical, historical, political, economic and social. The historical aspect aims not merely to understand the present, but also to throw into relief the cultural heritage of people, their views of the past and their hopes and aspirations for the future. It may, however, be noted that a District Gazetteer is not a directory or a guide book or an economic survey. It is only an attempt to present a rounded view of the district and its people and precludes information of transitory nature. As a matter of policy, a gazetteer has to be an objective and authentic document avoiding controversies and bias.

Ranchi has seen the rise and eclipse of various civilisations. Numerous archaeological finds bear testimony to it. In medieval times, it was reputed as a treasure-house for diamonds and this attracted successive military expeditions against it.

Agrarian unrest and tenancy reforms culminating in the Survey and Settlement Operations (1902–10) were the most dominant aspects of the local administration since the early 19th century till about the turn of the present one. Among the important political events during this period were the Kol Insurrection (1831-32), the Great Revolt (1857), the Sardari Agitation (1887–92) and the Birsa Movement (1895–1900). The Great Revolt of 1857 was indeed a manifestation of countrywide upsurge against the British Power. No less significant was the arrival of the Christian Missions, the earliest being the Lutheran Pastors in 1845.

The economy of the district acquired a new orientation through the introduction of tea plantation and shellac manufacture in Ranchi towards the last quarter of the 19th century by a retired British civilian. Though the shellac industry was short-lived, tea is still flourishing. In fact even in the late thirties a retired European army officer added to the acreage under tea at Daladili. Early in the present century, a family of Irish engineers also became pioneer in scientific cattle-breeding on their ranch at Hotwar. The First World War (1914–18) generally caused acute scarcity of imported cotton goods, but this gave a fresh lease of life to the declining indigenous handloom industry. During the inter-war years (1919–39), an important event in the district was the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations (1927–35) which led to certain agrarian reforms beneficial to the tenantry. The Second World War (1939–45) brought the headquarters of the Eastern Command of the Indian Army to Ranchi with large concentration of overseas troops all over the district. Though this added to the economy of the district by providing jobs to a large number of local people, but also contributed to indiscriminate destruction of forests. The period (1920–42) witnessed various phases of the Civil Disobedience Movement launched by Mahatma Gandhi and drew the Tana Bhagats into its fold.

The early fifties saw the abolition of Zamindari system and brought Government and tenantry in direct contact with each other. It also synchronised with the Community Development Programme which subsequently covered the whole district.

The post-1960 era has seen the birth and growth of giant modern industrial complexes, such as the Heavy Engineering Works at Hatia near Ranchi. The Hindusthan Steel Ltd. and the National Coal

Development Corporation have also established their headquarters at Ranchi. In their wake, a number of industries have sprawled in all directions with Ranchi as centre. Thus from its age-old tranquillity in sylvan surroundings, Ranchi has emerged almost overnight as a symbol of industrial revolution in post-independence period. The pace of industrialisation has stirred up even the remotest corner of the district, giving a jolt to the primitive economy. The traditional pattern of migration of rural labour to tea gardens of Assam has since faded into insignificance in view of large-scale movement of labour to the industrial belts of Chota Nagpur. But the new industrial sites have uprooted a sizeable population and the quest for urban living has encouraged breaking up of families, giving rise to many socio-economic problems.

Nature's gift of climate to Ranchi has also influenced certain developments. It has found expression in the establishment of several T. B. Sanatoria and lunatic asylums in the district, which have continued over the past several decades alleviating much human suffering. The elevation of the district has led to successful experiments in growing certain fruits which are not native of Bihar. Flowering trees from all over the world were successfully planted at Hotwar. The high velocity of winds on the plateau led to their tapping by enterprising persons to generate electricity (e.g. at Daladili and Tatisilwai) to irrigate fields as also for domestic purposes in the thirties when electricity was unheard of in rural areas. The agreeable local climate has also played host to race horses of Calcutta turf by providing them resting places near Tatisilwai. Till recent times Ranchi was also the summer capital of Bihar.

The present gazetteer scheme is a joint project of the Government of India and the State Government and both share the expenditure. It was through the efforts of Shri T. P. Singh, I.C.S., former Chief Secretary, Government of Bihar that the gazetteer section under the Revenue Department in this State could be made permanent in 1966 and this has ensured continuity of this work. He has been a source of inspiration to us and given all encouragement for research. Even from his present position in the Government of India, New Delhi he has continued his interest in the gazetteer work and given us valuable advice from time to time. We are deeply indebted to him. Shri J. P. Shrivastava, I.A.S., Secretary, Revenue Department, Government of Bihar has taken keen interest in our work and solved many of our problems with his usual sympathetic approach and for

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N. KUMAR
State Editor.

April 29, 1969

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III. *Temple Sculpture* :

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Maps :

(*i*) Administrative—District, subdivision and block Boundary lines, rivers, roads, inspection bungalows, block headquarters, beauty spots and important towns.

(*ii*) Geological—Laterite, Deccan trap, Gondwana granite, Archean schists, Archean lavas and minerals.

(*iii*) Economic—Dams, irrigation projects, industrial and trading centres and density of population per square mile.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL.

Origin of Name of the District.

The origin of the name of the district is rather obscure. Some believe that Ranchi derives its name from Purani Ranchi, a village near Ranchi while others suggest that it is an anglicised transformation of the Mundari word 'Aranchi' meaning a short stick used in driving cattle.

The tract which corresponds to this district and the other regions of Chota Nagpur Division was known to the Aryans as Jharkhand or the 'Forest tract'. Throughout the Muslim rule the word 'Jharkhand' appears to have survived although the word Kokrah became a common epithet for this region. In the *Ain-i-Akbari* Kokrah formed part of Suba Bihar and was the realm of the Raja of Kokrah. It was also known to the Mughals as Nagpur or Coira Orissa. The name Nagpur probably dates back to the 15th or 16th century A.D. It was ceded in 1765 under the grant of *Diwani* to the East India Company. In the covenants granted to the Nagbansi Raja the settlement was given of the Nagpur Pargana. In a letter addressed to the Governor at Fort William, dated Ramgur, the 12th August, 1774 from Capt. Camac, the 1st Military Officer to enter the country, simply Nagpur is mentioned without the epithet 'Chota'. James Rennel in his map of Hindoostan (1792), prefixed the word 'Chutia' to Nagpur; but it was not till 1812 that Nagpur was officially recognised as Chota Nagpur by the British Parliament.* Nevertheless, officials did not mention invariably the region by this name till 1854 when Chota Nagpur became a non-regulation province under a Commissioner. It is believed in some quarters that the name Chutia, a village near Ranchi, stands for the word Chota. The name Chutia or Chuta Nagpur is found in Rennel's map (1792) and in Hamilton's Gazetteer (1815) and the latter explains the name by saying "that the district is distinguished by the term Chuta (little) to distinguish it from the other Nagpur possessed by the Bhonslah Maratha family".†

The tradition of the Munda avers that the Patriarch Chuta *Hadam*, (i.e. an old man), probably fourth in descent from the traditional king

* (*i*) *The Fifth Report of the Select Committee on the affairs of the East India Company, London* (1812).

(*ii*) *The East India Gazette* (1812), p. 228.

(*iii*) *The Geographical, Statistical and Historical Description of Hindoostan and adjacent countries, London*, 1812.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 2.

Phani Mukut Rai was the founder of the Chutia village. In view of this tradition a great fair was started at Chutia in 1851 and lasted till 1877. The derivation of the name 'Chota' transformed from the original word 'Chutia' held ground for some time and was even sponsored by Col. Dalton, Geographer Blochman and G. C. Depree, Officer-in-charge of the Topographical Survey. M. G. Hallett, who edited the *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917) also accepted this view though without assigning any reason. It may be pointed out that Rennel in his map mentioned the name of the country as Chuta Nagpur and spelt the name of the village as 'Chutiah'. Thus perhaps it is not probable that the district may have derived its name from the Chutia village.

From the historical point of view the observation of Hamilton is gaining ground as it appears that from the beginning of 19th century, the British administrators had to deal simultaneously with two Nagpur Chiefs, one the Nagbansi Raja of this region and the other the Maratha Chief of Nagpur. Thus to avoid administrative confusion two distinct marks were considered necessary for them. Thus the Nagpur plateau was named Chota Nagpur and the Maratha Nagpur as Burra Nagpur.*

Location, Boundaries, Area and Population.

The district of Ranchi is situated between 20°21″ and 23°43″ N latitude and between 84°0″ and 85°54″ E longitude.

It is bounded on the north by the districts of Palamau and Hazaribagh; on the south by the districts of Singhbhum (Bihar) and Sundergarh (Orissa), on the east by Singhbhum and Purulia (West Bengal) and on the west by the districts of Raigarh and Surguja (Madhya Pradesh) and Palamau.

It extends over 7,035.2 sq. miles (18,221.2 sq. Km.) with a population of 2,138,565 (males 1,076,251 and females 1,062,314), the density per square mile being 304. Thus though the largest district of the State in area it ranks only the 12th in respect of population.†

Administrative Changes.

During the early period of British rule the district with other adjoining territories, comprised of a total area of 12,004 sq. miles, and was placed in the charge of the Magistrate of Ramgarh in Hazaribagh district. But Ramgarh being outside the Ranchi plateau, it proved ineffective from the administrative point of view and in 1833 the present district, with the adjacent Parganas of Palamau and Dhalbhum was formed into a separate entity known as South-West Frontier Agency. The headquarters of the Principal Assistant of the Agent to the

*J. B. R. S., Vol. XVIII, Part I, 1932, pp. 53—66.

† *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part IIA, p. 57.

Governor-General, who administered the area, were initially at Lohardaga, but in 1843 removed to Kishunpur a village which later merged in the present town of Ranchi. On the abolition of the South-West Frontier Agency in 1854, Chota Nagpur became a non-regulation province under a Commissioner, and the district, which was still called by the name of the former headquarters of Lohardaga, consisted of two subdivisions, namely, Pargana Palamau as the mofussil and the present district with Pargana Tori as the Sadar subdivision. In 1892 Palamau and Tori, with three Parganas which had been transferred from Gaya to Lohardaga in 1871, were formed into the district of Palamau. The name of the district was changed in 1899 from Lohardaga to Ranchi. Subsequently the Ranchi district was organised into four administrative subdivisions, namely, Sadar, Gumla (1902), Khunti (1905) and Simdega (1915).

This district remained intact till 1954 when an area of 118.2 sq. miles with population of 15,395 covered by 39 villages (viz., thana nos. 6—26, 28—33 and 35—46) of Tamar police-station in the Khunti subdivision was transferred to the Seraikela subdivision of the Singhbhum district.*

The following table gives details of the administrative subdivisions of this district:—

Administrative Subdivisions †

Subdivision.	Revenue thanas.	Police-station.	Towns.	Village.	Area.	Total population.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
					Sq. miles.	
Sadar Subdivision	1. Lohardaga	Lohardaga	1	278	473.42	133,400
	2. Kuru ..	Kuru ..	..	76	103.52	38,963
	3. Burmu	Burmu ..	..	77	125.54	32,507
		Khelari ..	1	21	50.62	16,239
	4. Mandar..	Mandar ..	..	135	196.48	74.556
	5. Bero ..	Bero ..	..	114	150.24	56,558
	6. Lapung	Lapung ..	..	78	116.96	31,965
	7. Ranchi ..	Ranchi ..	2	338	457.55	369,450
		Hatia ..	..	..	..	..
	8. Ormanjhi	Ormanjhi	..	90	87.87	32,131
	9. Silli ..	Silli ..	1	110	125.27	61,960
	10. Angara..	Angara ..	..	91	172.71	51,182
Khunti Subdivision.	1. Karra ..	Karra ..	..	178	199.06	53,482
	2. Torpa ..	Torpa ..	..	161	275.18	71,258
	3. Khunti	Khunti ..	1	299	339.19	98,687
	4. Bundu ..	Bundu ..	1	89	102.01	42,104
	5. Sonahatu	Sonahatu..	..	101	152.01	58.461
	6. Tamar ..	Tamar ..	..	254	396.13	114,932

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Part II-A, p. 177. Also *see* notification no. A/JI-1017/54-P.G.—1226, dated the 5th August 1954.

† *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Part II-A, pp. 110-111.

Administrative Subdivision.—concld

Subdivision.	Revenue thanas.	Police-station.	Towns.	Village.	Area.	Total population.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
					Sq. miles.	
GUMLA SUBDIVISION.	1. Bishunpur	Bishunpur	..	68	237.00	27,970
	2. Chainpur	Chainpur..	..	196	406.75	75,732
	3. Ghagra	Ghagra ..	..	120	206.91	52,253
	4. Sissai ..	Sissai ..	..	156	281.43	84,180
	5. Gumla ..	Gumla ..	1	113	210.89	80,857
	6. Raidih ..	Raidih ..	..	61	198.23	39,754
	7. Palkot ..	Palkot ..	..	73	222.55	43,204
	8. Basia ..	Basia ..	..	161	295.66	80,974
SIMDEGA SUBDIVISION.	1. Bano ..	Bano ..	..	93	212.23	49,132
	2. Kolebira	Kolebira ..	..	132	396.46	82.603
	3. Simdega	Simdega ..	1	96	534.35	118,992
		Thetaitangar				
	4. Kurdeg	Kurdeg ..	..	61	309.11	65,079
		Bolba ..				

TOWNS.*

The Census of 1961 lists the following 9 towns in this district: Ranchi, Doranda, Lohardaga, Khelari and Muri (Sadar subdivision); Khunti and Bundu (Khunti subdivision); Gumla (Gumla subdivision) and Simdega (Simdega subdivision).†

TOPOGRAPHY.

Natural Divisions.—The district consists of three plateaux. The first and the highest plateau is in the north-west of the district and comprises roughly the areas included in thanas Chainpur, Bishunpur and the western part of Lohardaga. The forest-clad hills running from the west of Palkot and Gumla to the boundary of the district in north-west of Lohardaga, look like a magnificent natural wall stretching from north to south in an unbroken line. A near view shows it to consist of rocky spurs of various heights with deep valleys radiating from the central mass. The average elevation of this tract exceeds 2,500 ft. above sea-level, and the only level portions are the valleys of the Sankh and the North Koel, the former flowing in a southerly direction through the broad cultivated plain of Bhitar Barwe (Chainpur thana) and the latter rising in the hills between Kurumgarh and Jori and flowing through the

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, pp. 57—59.

† For details, *see* the Chapter on 'Places of Interest'.

narrow valley of Bahar Barwe (Bishunpur thana) towards Palamau. A distinctive feature of this tract and in particular of the north-western corner are the level cultivated hill-tops locally called *pats*. These isolated plateaux are all capped by laterite and, in some places, bauxite, beneath which the unaltered basaltic lava, which gave rise to the laterite formation, may be seen in some places on the winding road to Netarhat, the largest of these *pats*. The pre-trap older gneissic erosion surface can be seen in many places along the precipitous escarpments of these table lands. The gneiss forms beautiful domical hills below the level of the laterite.

The second and the central plateau includes the eastern portion of the Gumla subdivision, the whole of the Sadar subdivision and the western part of Khunti subdivision. The greater part of the plateau, particularly in the central tract, has an average elevation of about 2,000 ft. It is separated from the smaller Hazaribagh plateau in the north by the faulted trough of the Damodar. The Damodar basin rises in elevation towards the west and the two plateaux are connected with each other by a narrow neck of highland near Tori which forms the watershed between the rivers Damodar and Auranga. The plateau is undulating, intersected with numerous streams and rivers, and studded with low rocky hills and isolated peaks. These are of two types: the gneissic formations and the other a soft, earthy rock known as Khondalite. The gneissic hills form a conspicuous feature of the landscape. They rise abruptly with bare rounded slopes, the result of exfoliation of the outer layers which expand by chemical changes of their constituent minerals under humid tropical conditions of climate. Their summits are generally bare and dome-like, sometimes rugged and irregular. The highest portion of the central plateau is a ridge eight to ten miles south-west of Ranchi from where the main rivers of the district, the Subarnarekha and South Koel originate. The plateau was formerly covered extensively with forests, which have gradually disappeared before the axes of the inhabitants and also due to commercial exploitation. As a result of the occupation of certain parts of the plateau by allied troops for camp and training during the Second World War, there was further destruction of forest and natural vegetation. Reclamation of suitable land for food crops has further reduced the acreage under forests. The net result has been extensive soil erosion and gully formation by which the land adjoining the streams has been cut into typical *bad* land topography. The local inhabitants call this region *Tanr Raj* or 'land of cultivated upland' roughly in contradistinction to the *Ban Raj* or 'land of jungle', the name given to the western parganas and the adjoining districts. In the south-western thanas there is still a large expanse of forests, and from hill-tops the country appears covered with a waving sheet of low forest with little or no sign of human habitation, though a nearer view shows numerous small villages, each with their

plots of cultivated *tanr* round the homesteads and the terraced *don* tucked away in the narrow beds of the streams. The fringes of the plateau are mountainous and the travellers ascend by tortuous hill passes known as *ghats*. The high road from Ranchi to Hazaribagh finds its way through these hills and winding down from Chutupalu, on the border of the district, to the Damodar river at Ramgarh, descends 700 ft. in three miles. The scenery is extremely beautiful. The *ghat* by which both road and railway ascend from Muri or Ranchi Road presents equally beautiful views, though the hill slopes are not so steep and the distant view is not so extensive.

The third plateau consists of the extreme southern and eastern portion of the district and in a few places exceeds a height of 6,000 ft. above sea-level. A lofty range of hills divides the main portion of this plateau from the secluded valley of Sonapat in the south-eastern corner of the district.*

Hills.

The general lines of the hills have been described in the preceding paragraphs. The loftiest summits in the range of hills in the extreme west, which stretches south from Birpokhar (3,621′), within the Palamau border, are Oria (3,498′), Bardag (3,216′), Udni (3,419′), Hutar (3,209′) and the Koiapat in Barwe (3,107′). To the north and the north-west of Lohardaga are Salgipat (3,511′), Dudhia (3,571′), Bulbul (3,351′) and Jalakdia on the Palamau border. In the range which stretches south from Dudhia and Bulbul is Saru Pahar (3,615′), the highest point in the district. Bluff-isolated hills form conspicuous land marks in the central plateau; the most remarkable are Marang Buru (2,434′), the sacred hill of the Mundas, ten miles south of Ranchi, Bariatu (2,607′), four miles north of Ranchi and the curious Pyramid-shaped Ranchi hill crowned with a Hindu temple. In the hills which fringe the north-eastern side of the Central plateau, the highest points are Paina (2,700′) and Kutaim (2,462′), to the east and north-east of Ranchi, respectively. In the south-east where the plateau falls away to Singhbhum, the range shutting off the Sonapat valley rises at one point to a height of nearly 3,000 ft. In the intricate hills of Biru the highest peaks are Bhaonr Pahar (2,492′) and the isolated peak of Alu Pahar in the valley of the Sankh (2,172′).†

River System.

The main rivers of the district have their sources either in the long ridge of high country having an elevation approximately of 2,500 ft., from south-east to north-west, 8 to 10 miles south-west of Ranchi, or in

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 8—5.

† *Ibid*, p. 5.

the hills that shut off the Barwe plateau. The former contains the source of the Subarnarekha and the South Koel, and in the latter rise the Sankh and the North Koel.

The Subarnarekha.—The source stream of the Subarnarekha originates south of village Nagri, 10 miles west and south-west of Ranchi town. The river pursues a winding course to the east till it descends from the plateau forming the steep falls of Hundrughagh (320′). It then turns south and forms the boundary of the Ranchi district for a distance of 35 miles; turning east again it traverses the districts of Singhbhum, Mayurbhanj (Orissa) and Midnapore (West Bengal) and flows into the Bay of Bengal after a course of 296 miles. The Subarnarekha has three chief tributaries, namely, the Kokro, the Kanchi and the Karkari, which, flowing in an easterly direction, drain the Khunti subdivision. The name Subarnarekha means "the thread of gold" and the sands of the river and some of its tributaries are auriferous, but without any prospect.

The South Koel.—It rises on the northern slopes of the same ridge as the Subarnarekha and flows in a north-westerly direction and collects waters of the Bandora Nadi and Birgora Nadi. It flows almost parallel to the Ranchi—Lohardaga Road; it turns south at a point 8 miles north-east of Lohardaga and flows a southernly and south-easterly course till it passes into Singhbhum in the south of Bano thana. In Singhbhum it again changes its course westward till it unites with the Sankh in Gangpur. The two rivers united form the Brahmani which flows through the district of Cuttack into the Bay of Bengal. The chief tributaries of the South Koel are the Karo, the Chata and the Bonai, which drain the western portion of the Khunti subdivision, and the Paras which drains Sisai thana. The name 'Koel' is a common one for rivers in Chota Nagpur; its meaning is uncertain.

The Sankh.—It rises in the north-west of the district, flows through the centre of the Rajadera plateau, and then turns abruptly south and descends to the plains of Barwe by a beautiful waterfall known as *Sadnighagh*. After crossing the plains of Barwe in a south-westerly direction, it flows almost due south, forming for some distance the boundary between Ranchi and Raigarh (Madhya Pradesh), then passing through the hills which separate Barwe from Biru, it flows in a westerly direction and passing into Gangpur near the village of Samsera in the extreme south of the district, unites with the Koel. The important tributaries of the Sankh are the Chirra, the Lawa, the Kok, the Kodar in Chainpur area, and the Kasgor, the Utial, the Palamara, the Girma, the Saijor, the Banda, the Dangajar in Simdega and Kurdeg areas. Tradition says that formerly diamonds were found in the Sankh. Ptolemy states that diamonds were found in Kokkomaji, a region which probably included Chota Nagpur, and the reference in Muhammadan writings and

the possession of diamonds by the local chiefs go to substantiate the tradition that the river did yield a number of more or less valuable gems.*

The North Koel.—Though rising within a very short distance of the Sankha, it flows northward through the narrow valley of Bishunpur into Palamau, where after a course of 186 miles, it joins the Son under the plateau of Rohtas.

The aforesaid four rivers fed by numerous small streams from the hills by which they pass, effectively drain the whole district and are sufficient to carry off even the heaviest rainfall. No part of the district is liable to flood. The South Koel alone has a drainage area of 3,600 sq. miles and the Sankha and the Subarnarekha of 1,100 sq. miles each within the district. For the greater part of the year they are easily fordable, but in the rains they frequently come down in violent and sudden freshets which for a few hours or it may be for days, render them unpassable even for primitive *dongas* which serve as ferries.

WATERFALLS.

Of the waterfalls in the district, the most picturesque is the *Hundrughagh,* 24 miles east north-east of the town of Ranchi where the Subarnarekha descends from the edge of the plateau over a cliff with a sheer drop of 320 ft. In the rains, when the river is in flood, the falls present a most impressive spectacle, as the waters red with the soil through which they flow, fall thundering over the cliff in a cloud of spray. From the top of the falls one can have a magnificent view of the river winding through a narrow gorge in the forest-clad hills to the plains of Hazaribagh. *Gautam-dhara* or the Jonha falls near Jonha is comparatively a smaller fall. The *Dasomghagh,* 22 miles south-east of Ranchi near Taimara, is formed by the Kanchi river falling over a ledge of a rock in a sheer descent of 114 ft. amid rocky and sylvan scenery. Among the smaller falls there are two *Peruaghaghs,* one in Basia thana and the other in Kochadega thana, so named because numerous wild pigeons nest in the crevices of the rocks. The *Saddnighagh,* formed by the drop of the river Sankha from the Rajadera plateau into the plains of Barwe, is noted for scenic beauty.†

Some other waterfalls which deserve a mention are : *Hapad,* about 24 miles from Bishunpur, is the source of the river Ghagra. *Kelaghagh,* about 2 miles south-east of Simdega, has a perennial water channel running through two hillocks. *Pairanghagh* is about 3 miles from Tapkara. *Panchghagh,* about 9 miles from Khunti, has a tragic story woven round its five streams. Serka fall, about a mile to the east of Bisunpur, is in

* Capt. Hawkins in-charge of the Ramgarh Battalion at Chatra had been commissioned to give a report on Chutia Nagpur. His report submitted in 1777 refers to the rivers carrying gold dust and the Raja of Chota Nagpur dredging the river for diamonds.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 7.

the course of the river Serka. *Sugakataghagh,* about 15 miles from Simdega is a fall of the river Sankh where it passes between villages Hardibera and Purnapani.

LAKES.

Lakes are conspicuous by their absence in this district. Artificial lakes and tanks have been formed at some places by erecting embankments across the beds of rivers. The largest of these are the Ranchi lake in the centre of the town, the lake near the former Maharaja's palace at Ratu and one near Toto. A small water reservoir known as 'Kanke lake' supplies drinking water to Ranchi town while one at Hatia is designed to serve the Heavy Engineering Plants at Dhurwa.

GEOLOGY.*

The geological formations which are found within the borders of the Ranchi district, are as follows:—

Recent			Alluvium, Conglomerate and Carbonaceous shale,
Tertiary to Recent			Laterite, bauxite and lithomarge.
Upper Cretaceous			Deccan trap — Basaltic lavas Infra-trappean — Calcified-silicified rocks. Grit
Gondwana			Raniganj Barren measures Barakar Karharbari Talchir
Cuddapah or earlier			Newer dolerite
Archean	Chota Nagpur granite gneiss		Vein rocks ; pegmatite or graphic granite, aplite, quartz veins and quartz-tourmaline rock. Pseudo—diorite Granite and gneisses Diorite Ultrabasic igneous rocks
	Dharwar	Iron-ore series or older metamorphics.	Phyllites, mica-schists, quartzites, lime-silicate rocks and basic rocks.

Archeans.—The oldest geological formation of this district is represented by Dharwar sediments with the basic intrusive. These, being later intruded by the *batholithic* mass of Chota Nagpur granite, were metamorphosed into various types of schistose and gneissic rocks. The remnants of the earlier sedimentary and igneous rocks are known from the inclusions of phyllites and schists of varying dimensions in the granite mass and extensive areas of Khondalites. The Ranchi Hill is made of Khondalite. It is a garnetiferous sillimanite schist decomposing easily into an earthy soil.

* *See, Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India,* Vol, VII, pp. 285—342.

Phyllites and Mica schists.—Phyllites are by far the predominant rock type in the south-east portion of this district. It is finely foliated, silvery grey rock with silky texture and of a varying lithological character. At some places it is earthy and at others chloritic and elsewhere it merges imperceptibly into mica schist. The phyllite is often associated with slaty rock and impersistent bands of quartz schist and quartzite. As a general rule, however, mica schists and phyllites are separated from each other by *tongues* of granite. Local silicification of phyllite has taken place, when it is seen to be replaced superficially by a cherty rock.

In the granite body itself, mica-schists occur more abundantly than the phyllites, having been subjected to the vicissitudes of metamorphism and granitisation, depending upon the proximity of the later intrusive bodies, they are seen to grade into *felspathic* schists and gneisses, injection gneisses and hybrids. Muscovite and biotite are the essential minerals in these rocks, while garnet, kyanite and sillimanite make their appearance with due regard to the position in the metamorphic aureole.

Quartzite and Lime Silicate Rocks.—Out-crops of quartzite are seen in many places in this district. They are usually intimately associated with the silicate rocks, showing all signs of gradation into each other. Mostly, the quartzites are schistose due to the presence of sericitic mica. Recrystallised quartz veins are also noticed to resemble the quartzite. Lime silicate rocks varying in texture and granularity can be broadly classified into calc-schists and calc-granulites. They occur as fairly persistent bands and share the general trend of the gneissic foliation. The lime-silicate rocks vary in colour from pale grey to dark greenish, depending upon the proportion of the ferro-magnesian minerals, such as, diopside, actinolite and tremolite. Potash and Soda felspars and quartz are present. The rocks show the characteristic pitted or ribbed type of weathering on exposure. Bands and lenses of saccharoidal limestone are also present.

Basic rocks.—Basic rocks are represented by linear inclusions of unaltered dolerite and the more common epidiorite and hornblende-schists and granulite. They crop out as dark coloured bands, elongated strips and lenticular patches of varying lengths and widths. Occasionally the larger exposures attain considerable thickness and run for miles, but mostly they are 100–200 ft. wide and can be traced for a mile or so. Gradual fanning out of the inclusions of basic rocks in the gneisses is a characteristic feature. There is considerable doubt whether some of the linear out-crops of dolerite rocks are mere inclusions or dykes of Newer Dolerite age.

Dalma lava.—Dalma lavas are found in the south-west portion of Ranchi district, as epidiorites and hornblende-schists and strike with the neighbouring schists and phyllites. The typical epidiorites are generally

fine-grained, dark-grey rocks, consisting almost entirely of green hornblende and quartz. Occasionally plagioclase felspar is present, with epidote, iron ore, leucoxene as the usual accessory minerals. At places, the epidiorite frequently gives rise to hornblende and harblende-chlorite-schists. It is also seen to alter to epidosite and sericite-chlorite schist.

Chota Nagpur granite gneiss.—This forms the country rock of the district and is a part of the enormous intrusive mass. It shows wide variations from fine to coarse-grained and porphyritic types, and from massive to highly gneissic types.

The main granite boundary as a rule shows a remarkably regular intrusive relation against mica-schist, but against epidiorite and hornblende-schist, the mode of intrusion is highly irregular. The *granite rock* is rather fine grained towards its border. The rock more frequently contains hornblende towards its margins and plagioclase is also more abundant in the marginal areas than well within the mass. Along its margin, the granite rocks grade into micro-granite gneiss and 'wood gneiss'.

Within the main body, the granite gneiss varies from a normal medium-grained rock to a porphyritic material with large crystals of potash felspar. Quartz, biotite or hornblende are the other essential minerals; apatite, zircon, sphene and rutile are the accessories. The granite gneiss invariably shows fine banding due to the linear disposition of the ferromagnesian minerals.

Epidotisation is seen occasionally in the granite-gneiss, more particularly in the coarser varieties approaching pegmatites. Inclusion of mica and hornblende-schists are profusely distributed in the body of the granite-gneiss, giving rise, at the contact zones to hybrid rock types, such as epidote-gneiss, biotite-sericite-gneiss, garnetiferous hornblende-schist, etc.

Vein rocks.—Vein rocks are found extensively among the older rocks of the Ranchi district. Coarse *pegmatitic* intrusive are quite abundant, though they tend to cluster at places and result in irregular distribution. Lit-par-lit injection of graphic granite has rendered the gneisses a *streaky* character. Veins of aplite, quartz (blue and white), *quartz-tourmaline* rocks and massive biotite-granite are also of common types.

Gondwanas.—About 40 sq. miles of the Gondwana rocks of the Karanpura Coalfields occupy a section of the Ranchi district, where it joins up with the Palamau and the Hazaribagh districts in the north. Of this area, 24 sq. miles lie in the north Karanpura and the remaining portion in the south Karanpura coalfields. Gondwanas are represented by the rocks belonging to the Talchir, Karharbari, Barakar, Barren measures and Raniganj types. Although the Barakar and the Raniganj rocks are well-developed in this area, it is the former which is the storehouse for a number of coal and fireclay seams. No workable seams of coal or fireclay have so far been found in the Raniganj formation.

Upper Cretaceous—Infra-trappean rocks.—There are a few small exposures of gritty impure limestone and ferruginous grit at the base of the Deccan Trap flows. The main outcrops are on the narrow ridge south of Netarhat (23°38′ : 84°16′) southern slopes of Sisitougri (23°24′ : 84°13′) and on the northern slope of Jamira *Pat* (23°27′ : 84°00′). The exposure at Netarhat is more than 30 ft. in thickness and forms a well defined scarp. It is usually pale pink in colour with rounded or oblong pieces of concretionary lime-stone set in a calcareous matrix. Grit beds with rounded pebbles of quartz are more common on the ridges bordering the district of Surguja and are seen to lie between the granite gneiss and the trap.

Deccan Trap.—Outcrops of the Deccan trap lava flows are of a very limited occurrence in this district, even though most of the laterite-cappings on the high plateaus and ridges at the western side of the district are conclusively due to alteration of the former extensive trap formation. Remnants of the basaltic lavas still occur at the base of the laterite which caps the high ridges and plateaus. At the eastern portion of the plateau region, the presence of trap is ascertained from the geodic material in the laterite. At the western portion, however, the *in situ* trap, sandwiched between the overlying laterite and the granite gneiss at bottom, is common and at places, it continuously fringes the margin of the plateau.

Tertiary Recent—Laterite, Bauxite and Lithomarge.—Apart from the Chota Nagpur granite gneiss, laterite is the most abundant rock formation in this district. It can be broadly classified as the more widespread plateau (or high-level) laterite and the less common valley (or low-level) laterite. Actually most of the valley laterite is due to accumulation of the detrital material from the disintegration of plateau laterite. These cappings of *moorumy* laterite are spread all over the district.

The high-level laterite is the residual weathering product of the trap and occurs as blankets forming flat-topped plateau, locally known as *pats*. It is more or less of uniform thickness and seen to vary in extent from small detached summit beds to extensive cappings spread over vast areas. Segregation of bauxite at the upper portion of the laterite cappings and of bands and lenses of lithomarge at their base is a common feature.

Recent Alluvium.—Alluvium is mostly a residual soil derived from the decomposition of granite and its inclusions and the Khondalites. Generally, the soil capping is very thin, though in places it may be 20 ft. or more in thickness. Normally, the thickness of the soil at the base of the ridges is more than in the intervening valley portions. Alluvium derived from granite gneiss is a course sandy soil. It is a very rich soil, well suited for agriculture and is already under intensive cultivation for paddy.

MINERALS.

Asbestos.—Occurrences of quality asbestos have been reported from near Itki (23°21′ : 85°08′).

Barytes.—A series of veins of barytes occur in the granite gneiss, some 14 miles east of Ranchi, striking more or less east-west and running through the valleys Silwai (23°22′ : 85°26′), Bahea (23°23′ : 85°29′) and Bongetera (23°21′ : 85°31′). A little galena is also associated with barytes and it is probably for this reason that the deposits have not been exploited for paint manufacture. Veins of bluish grey barytes occur about a furlong east of Karamtoli (23°23′ : 85°31′) and about half a mile south of Supatoli (23°22′ : 85°33′) in granite gneiss in association with apatite. These are not of high quality.

Bauxite.—Bauxite deposits occur mostly as lenses or bands segregated along margins of the sheets or blankets of laterite capping the flat-topped plateaux and hillocks in the western portion of the district. At the edges of such plateaux, bauxite is found to be concentrated in the upper zone of the scarps, passing downwards into highly ferruginous laterite. Usually an overburden of pisolitic laterite or lateritic soil is observed. At the base of laterite, there are occasional lenses of lithomargic or ochreous clays. The bauxite is mostly massive and of a grey or pink colour.

There are numerous large occurrences of high grade ore on the plateaux in the western part of the district, Bagru hill (23°29′ : 84°36′) amongst them being well-known.*

Beryl.—Beryl (light green and bluish in colour) has been reported to occur in pegmatite about a furlong west of Kirkajaratoli (23°22′ : 85°32′) and about one and a half furlong to the west of Sugatoli (23°22′ : 85°33′).

Cassiterite.—Cassiterite occurs in the southern slope of the hills north of Paharsingh (23°22′ : 85°42′) in a decomposed vein of pegmatite as well as in the talus on the slopes as an alluvial deposit. The thickness of this 500′ long cassiterite bearing pegmatite vein varies from 2½ to 3½ ft. It is believed that this mineralised zone extends for about 15 miles from Johna (23°23′ : 85°37′) to near about Silli (23°22′ : 85°50′).

Chromite.—A small occurrence of chromite of mineralogical interest has been recorded from Hotag Hill, Silli (23°21′ : 85°50′).

Clay (Lithomarge).—Lithomarge is found in large quantities below the laterite on Serangdag Plateau (23°22′ : 84°28′), Bagru Pat (23°29′ : 84°36′), Dischmatia Pat (5 miles west of Lohardaga) and on the other plateaux in the western Ranchi district. Some of these are said to have certain properties of Fullers' earth.

* *See*, Chapter on 'Industry'.

Coal.—About 15 coal seams varying in thickness from 8 ft. to 60 ft. making a total of about 250 ft. of coal and carbonaceous matter are associated in the Barakar strata which attain a thickness of about 1,500 ft. in the Ray (23°41′ : 85°4′), Liapara (23°39′ : 84°56′), area of north Karanpura Coalfield. Thick seams of this area are invariably interbedded with a number of carbonaceous Shale bands. In some of these thick seams, e.g., the Buk Buka and the Dakra seams, workable sections with low ash content, not exceeding 15 per cent are present. Two other seams, the Karkata (18 ft.) and the Karkata (8 ft.) have an average ash content of about 15 per cent. The most important seams, namely, the Chuvi is associated with the Karharbaris. This seam gives a clean 15 ft. section of coal with its ash content below 10 per cent. The portion of the north Karanpura field, which falls within the Ranchi district, has approximately a reserve of about 275 million tons of coal down to a depth of 500 ft. In a small portion of the South Karanpura field lying in the Ranchi district, four coal seams of workable thickness have so far been reported. The coals of both these areas have a high moisture content, often as high as 10 per cent. All the coals are non-coking in nature.

Copper.—Intensive prospecting may trace economic occurrences of copper in this district.*

Gold.—Gold was found in the Sonapet valley (22°53′ : 85°40′) in the south-east corner of the Ranchi district on the Singhbhum border in 1888. The alluvial gravels and small quartz veins in this valley are too low in grade to sustain any highly capitalised mining establishment.† Alluvial gold derived from innumerable stray auriferous quartz veins occur in the *nalas,* especially in the bed of the Karkari *Nadi.* Fine gold dust and occasional specks of gold have been recovered by the washing of ferruginous soil capping the phyllite on the flanks of the hills near the village Bigagaon (23°3′ : 85°43′). Such occurrences of gold are rather erratic in nature.

Lead Silver.—Specimens of galena have been recorded from Silli (23°21′ : 85°50′) in the Ranchi district, whilst the mineral has also been found associated with barytes at Silwai (23°23′ : 85°27′). A quartz vein near Kubakera (22°29′ : 84°45′) has yielded 3 maunds of galena.

Mica.—A minor occurrence of mica has been reported from Sikriadpur (22°41′: 84°29′) near Simdega.

Mineral Pigments.—A fine purplish red clay is sometimes found along the edge of the Dalma Lava flows. Quite a large amount of this material occurs on the ridges to the south-west of Kubasa (23°57′: 85°48′), where the ochre is usually homogenous, but occasionally finely banded. Its inaccessibility appears to be the main drawback for economic utilisation.

* See, *Techno-Economic Survey of Bihar,* Vol. I, 1960, p. 48.

† *See,* S. M. Maclaren: Records, *Geological Survey of India,* Vol. XXXI, Part II.

Red ochres.—They are of poor quality and associated with phyllites, just south of Ray station (23°41′ : 85°04′). Deposits of lithomarge, suitable as yellow ochres, occur at places below the laterite blankets on the plateaux of western Ranchi. Close to the Dalma Lavas, there are fine jet black carbonaceous phyllites, which are soft and friable and might be suitable for use in black pigments. The principal occurrences are Pipirda (22°53′ : 85°39′) and belt between Kudda (22°57′ : 85°50′) in Ranchi and Gangokocha (22°54′ : 85°59′) in Manbhum district.

Steatite.—In the hill ranges extending along the whole of the western border of Singhbhum, from the Ranchi border to Midnapore district, steatite and talc-schist deposits are consistently found. They vary from tac-chlorite rocks, both massive and schistose, to deposits of almost pure, fine grained, massive tac rock. The larger deposits occur north of Kuddadih (22°53′ : 85°48′) and south of Bandudih (22°55′ : 85°49′).

Building materials.—Building materials are available in abundance in the Ranchi district. Mention may be made of the laterite, granite gneiss and epidiorite, etc. Certain varieties of granite gneiss and epidiorite can be used as ornamental stones for pannels, after polishing.

Limestone.—It occurs in Hosir (Hemandagtoli), Lachaura (Chargharwatoli)—Dundu Ray (23°40′ : 85°03′—85°57′). This deposit extends in part through the Hazaribagh district also. Limestone occurs interbedded with the calcareous schists and is cut through at places by dolerite dykes. It is used for the manufacture of lime. In Babhani—Hoyar—Khalari (23°38′ : 23°40′—85°00′ : 85°04′) area limestone bands can be traced from Babhani to Khalari on a general E. W. strike and form a prominent ridge in the Khalari area, where the width ranges from 500′ to 800′. All the requirements for the cement works at Khalari are drawn from these limestone deposits.

CLIMATE.

The climate of the Ranchi plateau is cool and pleasant. The general elevation of 2,180 ft. above sea-level gives it a uniformly lower range of temperature than the plains. It is only during the months of April or May that the temperature rises occasionally from 105°F to 110°F. However, in spite of the high day temperature, the nights are cool and the atmosphere is so dry that the heat is by no means so oppressive as that in plains. About 5 to 6 thunder-storms and nor'-westers occur in each of these months and cause refreshing fall in the temperature. The rains break usually before the end of second week of June. Skies are heavily clouded and mostly overcast during July and August. Unlike the Himalayan slopes, the plateau does not remain for days or weeks enveloped in fog and mist and visibility is very good. Due to excellent natural drainage, the rain water flows away very quickly. Occasional

breaks in the rains make life unpleasant, but they do not usually last for many days, and even during a long break the air is neither so saturated with moisture nor so enervating as in the plains. The rainy season usually ends by the last week of September, though there may be a heavy fall of rain during the first fortnight of October. The cold weather may be said to begin in the first week of November. In December and January the temperature on the grass sometimes falls to the freezing point, and in the early morning hoar-frost covers the grass in the higher and more exposed parts of the district. A strong cold wind blows throughout January, but the climate during this period is dry and extremely bracing. At the end of February the day temperature rises considerably and continues to rise till it reaches its maximum in April or May. In the lower plateau, the temperature is considerably higher than in the rest of the district and the climate is moist and enervating. The year may be divided into three main seasons. The cold season is from November to February and is followed by the summer season from March to May. The period, June to September, is the south-west monsoon season and October is a transitional month between monsoon and winter conditions.*

Temperature.—The only meteorological observatory in the district is at Ranchi. Temperature and other data for this station may be taken as representative of the conditions in the district as a whole. Temperatures begin to drop rapidly from November. December is the coldest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at 22.9°C (73.3°F) and the mean daily minimum at 10.3°C (50.5°F). The temperatures in January and February are slightly higher than in December. In association with cold waves, which affect the district in the winter months in the wake of western disturbances moving across Northern India, the minimum temperature may go down to three or four degrees above the freezing point of water and occasional ground frosts may occur in the higher and more exposed parts of the district. After February the temperatures rise steadily till May which is the hottest month. The mean daily maximum temperature in May is 37.2°C (99.0°F). In April, May and the early part of June the maximum temperature may be well above 40°C (104°F) on some days. With the advance of the south-west monsoon into the district by about the second week of June the weather cools down appreciably. With the withdrawal of the south-west monsoon by the end of September, temperatures begin to drop.

The highest maximum temperature recorded at Ranchi was 43°C (110.0°F) on May 22, 1948 and the lowest minimum temperature was 2.8°C (37.0°F) on February 11, 1950.

* On account of extensive destruction of vegetation in wake of industrialisation of the district since 1960 onwards it is likely that the climate may show drastic variation.

Humidity.—The relative humidities are generally high in the monsoon season. In the rest of the year the air is generally dry. The summer months are the driest with relative humidities, specially in the afternoons of the order of 30 per cent.

Cloudiness.—In the winter and the early part of summer, skies are generally clear or lightly clouded. The cloudiness increases in April and May, particularly in the afternoons. During the south-west monsoon season skies are heavily clouded to overcast.

The following table gives details of normals of temperature and relative humidity of Ranchi:—*

Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity (Ranchi).

Month.	Mean Daily Maximum Temperature. °C	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature. °C	Highest Maximum ever recorded. °C	Highest Maximum ever recorded. Date.	Lowest Minimum ever recorded. °C	Lowest Minimum ever recorded. Date.	Relative Humidity. 0830 Per cent.	Relative Humidity. 1730† Per cent.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
January ..	23.1	10.6	31.1	1931, January 14	3.9	1946, January 1	61	49
February	25.0	12.6	33.9	1956, February 11	2.8	1950, February 11	55	42
March ..	30.6	17.3	39.4	1955, March 31	7.8	1898, March 5 ..	39	30
April ..	35.3	21.7	41.7	1938, April 29 ..	10.6	1957, April 1 ..	38	38
May ..	37.2	24.0	43.3	1948, May 22 ..	15.6	1952, May 26 ..	48	38
June ..	33.5	24.1	42.8	1956, June 5 ..	15.0	1957, June 5	68	65
July ..	29.1	22.9	38.3	1902, July 1 ..	19.4	1951, July 7 ..	85	86
August ..	28.5	22.6	33.3	1945, August 7	19.4	1939, August 21	86	86
September	29.0	22.1	35.6	1944, Sept. 13 ..	16.1	1949, Sept. 19 ..	82	81
October ..	28.3	18.9	35.0	1957, October 21	10.6	1949, October 23	67	69
November	25.3	13.8	32.2	1896, November 1	5.6	1949, Nov. 14 ..	59	57
December	22.9	10.3	30.0	1950, Dec. 21 ..	4.4	1955, Dec. 29 ..	58	50
Annual ..	29.0	18.4	..	..	..	..	62	57

Winds.—The annual average of daily wind speed is 4 m.p.h. The mean speed is 5 m.p.h. in the months, April to July. Both easterly and westerly winds prevail in the monsoon months of June to September. In the morning during these months 50 per cent to 60 per cent of the winds are from the westerly direction and 30 per cent from the direction between east and south. In the afternoon, however, the westerly winds form less than 30 per cent, while winds between east and south account

* Source.—*Climatological summary of Ranchi*, supplied by the Deputy Director-General of Observatories, Poona on 11th January, 1961.

† Hours I. S. T.

for 30 per cent to 50 per cent of the total. During October to December west to north-west winds prevail in the morning while in the afternoon the winds are more northerly. Similar winds are experienced in the months, January to May also, though there is a tendency in the morning of April and May to have more winds from south-west also. It is interesting to observe that during November to April, nearly 60 per cent to 70 per cent of the afternoon winds come from a direction between north-west and north.

The following table gives the mean wind speed in Km./hr. for Ranchi:—*

Mean Wind Speed in Km/hr.

Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
5.3	6.3	7.2	7.7	7.9	8.7	7.9	7.2	6.3	4.5	4.2	4.5	6.5

Rainfall.—The district receives rainfall almost throughout the year, though the concentration is during the monsoon months, from June to September.

It has a good network of 18 raingauge stations, records of which extend from twenty-four to seventy-seven years. The average annual rainfall in the district as a whole is 1,481.9 mm (58.34″). The details of the rainfall for the district as a whole and at these stations are given in tables 1 and 2 respectively.†

The rainfall at the individual stations varies from 1,283.0 mm (50.51″) at Sonahatu to 1,608.3 mm (63.32″) at Khunti. The region around Tamar-Sonahatu-Silli near the eastern border of the district gets the least amount of rain compared to other portions of the district. During the monsoon months, June to September, the district receives about 82 per cent of the annual rainfall. July and August are the rainiest months. The variation in the rainfall from year to year is not

* SOURCE.—*Climatological summary of Ranchi*, supplied by the Deputy Director-General of Observatories, Poona on 11th January, 1961.

† *Ibid.*

large. In the fifty-year period, 1901 to 1950, the highest rainfall amounting to 127 per cent of the normal occurred in 1936, while the lowest annual rainfall which was 77 per cent of the normal was in 1918. During this fifty-year period there were only three years in which the rainfall in the district was less than 80 per cent of the normal. At some of the stations there have been one or two occasions when two consecutive years had rainfall less than 80 per cent of the normal. It will be seen from table 1 that the rainfall was between 1,200 and 1,700 mm (47.24″ and 66.93″) in 41 years out of 50.

On an average there are 80 rainy days (i.e., days with rainfall of 2.5 mm—10 cents—or more) in a year. This number varies from 69 at Sonahatu to 93 at Itki.

The highest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 261.1 mm (10.28″) at Chainpur on October 6, 1936.

TABLE 1.

Frequency of Annual Rainfall in the District.

(Data 1901—1950.)

Range in mm.	No. of years.	Range in mm.	No. of years.
1101—1200 ..	4	1601—1700 ..	4
1201—1300 ..	6	1701—1800 ..	2
1301—1400 ..	9	1801—1900 ..	3
1401—1500 ..	9	1901—2000 ..	0
1501—1600 ..	13	2001—2100 ..	0

TABLE 2.

Normals and extremes of Rainfall.

Station.	No. of years of data.		January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Annual.	Highest annual rainfall as per cent of Normal and year.†	Lowest annual rainfall as per cent of Normal and year.†	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours.* Amount (mm.).	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours.* Date.
1	2		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Lohardaga ..	50	*a*	31.2	42.9	29.0	18.5	35.8	188.0	355.3	359.7	192.0	93.7	23.1	5.8	1375.0	176	63	145.3	1906, July 27.
		b	2.2	3.3	2.2	1.8	3.1	10.4	18.0	17.9	10.8	4.7	1.2	0.5	76.1	(1936)	(1908)		
Ranchi ..	50	*a*	26.7	43.9	29.0	21.8	54.6	216.7	396.7	373.1	232.4	90.4	20.3	7.1	1512.7	139	65	231.1	1941, October 9.
		b	2.0	3.5	2.4	2.1	4.2	11.0	18.5	18.6	11.8	5.0	1.3	0.5	80.9	(1923)	(1935)		
Silli ..	50	*a*	21.3	19.6	22.3	26.2	56.6	210.1	355.3	342.9	201.7	82.8	16.3	3.3	1358.4	138	71	235.2	1898, June 18.
		b	1.7	3.1	1.9	2.3	4.1	11.1	17.9	17.4	11.1	4.6	1.1	0.3	76.6	(1917)	(1902)		
Palkot ..	50	*a*	30.2	41.4	24.1	21.8	46.5	213.6	411.7	433.8	253.2	101.1	18.5	5.6	1601.5	153	51	190.5	1930, July 8.
		b	1.7	3.0	2.1	1.9	3.6	11.7	19.9	19.6	12.2	5.1	1.1	0.4	82.3	(1936)	(1918)		
Beno ..	50	*a*	20.6	31.2	17·8	14.7	38.9	190.0	438.7	414.8	208.3	62.2	15.0	4.3	1456.5	136	53	247.7	1907, June 26.
		b	1.5	2.0	1.6	1.5	3.0	9.7	18.8	18.8	11.2	3.5	0.7	0.3	72.6	(1909)	(1947)		
Tamar ..	49	*a*	20.1	36.1	19.6	17.8	58.2	197.1	323.1	317.7	201.4	77.7	15.7	5.1	1289.6	174	62	204.5	1957, September 1.
		b	1.7	2.8	1.9	1.9	4.2	10.7	16.8	16.6	11.1	4.0	1.1	0.4	73.2	(1941)	(1934)		
Kurdeg ..	50	*a*	24.6	33.5	19.1	14.5	30.0	217.2	466.3	453.4	233.7	62.5	12.7	8.6	1576.1	160	74	205.7	1927.
		b	1.5	3.3	1.7	1.3	2.4	11.0	19.9	19.1	12.2	3.2	0.6	0.4	75.6	(1909)	(1902)		
Gumla ..	48	*a*	26.9	46.7	28.2	20.8	40.1	215.9	385.1	374.9	210.8	94.0	21.8	5.8	1471.0	136	76	233.2	1920, July 21.
		b	2.1	3.5	2.5	2.0	3.7	12.1	19.0	18.7	11.8	5.2	1.3	0.4	82.3	(1919)	(1928)		
Khunti ..	44	*a*	25.1	41.1	25.7	17.0	46.7	234.2	419.6	435.4	231.4	102.4	23.4	6.3	1608.3	148	67	212.1	1907, June 26.
		b	1.8	3.2	2.2	1.9	4.1	11.8	18.6	19.7	12.5	5.3	1.4	0.4	82.9	(1917)	(1938)		
Piska ..	29	*a*	31.0	43.7	23.4	20.3	45.7	186.2	404.1	353.6	205.0	99.8	22.3	6.1	1441.2	122	81	212.1	1921, July 27.
		b	2.2	3.7	2.3	2.2	3.8	10.8	20.2	18.6	11.8	5.3	1·5	0.5	82.9	(1937)	(1932)		
Palandu ..	36	*a*	28.5	41.9	24.1	23.1	61.7	230.4	418.3	383.3	255.0	106.7	20.1	5.6	1599.2	150	65	209.8	1941, October 8.
		b	2.2	3.4	2.3	2.4	4.6	13.0	20.2	19.3	13.3	5.7	1.4	0.5	88.3	(1919)	(1935)		
Kankey ..	36	*a*	29.0	35.8	22.6	19.6	43.7	201.9	374.7	359.2	222.3	108.7	19.1	6.9	1443.5	146	74	222.5	1941, October 9.
		b	2.2	3.1	2.0	1.8	3.3	10.5	18.2	18.5	11.3	5.7	1.6	0.4	78.6	(1917)	(1928)		
Sonahatu ..	33	*a*	23.4	31.5	19.8	16·3	48.5	178.6	338.3	333.5	196.6	71.9	18.8	5.8	1283.0	165	61	177.8	1931, September 23.
		b	1.8	2.6	1.8	1.7	3.3	10.0	16.8	15.6	9.6	4.2	1.1	0.5	69.0	(1923)	(1934)		
Simdega ..	32	*a*	21.3	35.6	22.6	16.5	36.8	204.7	487.9	421.4	223.0	82.5	20.8	5.1	1578.2	140	81	195.6	1921, July 29.
		b	1.8	3.1	2.1	1.7	3.8	11.3	21.7	19.7	13.1	4.4	1.1	0.4	83.9	(1919)	(1935)		
Bharno ..	22	*a*	27.2	51.8	21.1	22.6	37.9	195.8	364.5	387.1	208.0	128.8	17.3	5.6	1467.7	121	65	190.7	1929, July 23.
		b	2.1	4.2	2.4	2.3	3.4	11.7	19.1	19.5	11.3	6.2	1.4	0.4	84.0	(1930)	(1934)		
Itki ..	16	*a*	35.3	47.2	31.2	28.5	54.4	210.3	366.0	423.2	227.3	128.0	21.3	5.8	1578.5	122	85	152.4	1953, September 9.
		b	2.5	4.4	2.9	2.4	4.6	12.5	20.3	21.4	13.4	6.5	1.7	0.6	93.2	(1936)	(1940)		
Bishunpur ..	14	*a*	33.8	48.8	25.9	15.5	36.6	198.9	364.0	390.9	239.0	79.5	10.4	4.3	1447.6	132	70	136.9	1944, August 26.
		b	3.1	3.9	3.1	2.2	2.8	11·1	20.4	20.4	13.6	5.6	0.9	0.4	87.5	(1943)	(1950)		
Chainpur ..	50	*a*	31.5	52.1	26.7	15.5	44·7	215·1	449·1	399·8	236.0	87.9	22.9	4.3	1585.6	181	67	261.1	1936, October 6.
		b	2.2	3 2	2·1	1·6	3·3	11 5	20.1	19.5	11.9	5.0	1.3	0.4	82.1	(1937)	(1929)		
Ranchi (Dist.)		*a*	27.1	40.3	24.0	19.5	45.4	205.8	395.5	386.6	220.9	92.3	18.9	5.6	1481.9	127	77	..	
		b	2.0	3.2	2.2	1.9	3.6	11.2	19.1	18.8	11.9	4.9	1.2	0.4	80.4	(1936)	(1918)		

(*a*) Normal rainfall in mm.

(*b*) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).

*Based on all available data up to 1957.

†Years given in brackets.

Special Weather Phenomena.—Depressions originating in the Bay of Bengal during the monsoon season affect the district and its neighbourhood during their westward or west-north-westward movement after crossing the coast and cause gusty winds and widespread heavy rain. Thunder-storms sometimes accompanied by squalls and less frequently with hail occur during the period February to June. The rainfall in the monsoon months are often associated with thunder. A few thunder-storms occur in October also. Fogs occur occasionally in the winter season.

The following table gives details of the special weather phenomena of Ranchi:—*

Special Weather Phenomena (Ranchi).

Mean no. of days with—	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Thunder	2.0	3.4	3.8	4.9	6.1	9.2	6·5	9·0	9.0	3.9	0.3	0.0	58.1
Hail ..	0.0	0.2	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	1.5
Dust-storm.	0.0	0.5	0.2	0.6	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.7
Squall ..	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6
Fog ..	0.9	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	2.0

FLORA.

Botany.—In olden times the greater portion of the district was covered with dense forests. At the present day the central and eastern plateaux are almost denuded of forests, and only small scrub jungle, with few big trees, is found on the hills, while patches of jungles, known as *Patra,* still remain dotted among the cultivated lands and are the only traces of the forests which once covered the whole of this area. In the eastern plateaux, large blocks of forests now occur only in south-eastern corner in Tamar area bordering Singhbhum.

In the west and north-west of the district, there are still some areas of unbroken forests, but even in these parts cultivation is rapidly being extended at the expense of the forest. During the Second World War (1939—1945) forests were ruthlessly exploited for commercial purposes and only those escaped which were inaccessible.

* SOURCE.—*Climatological summary of Ranchi,* supplied by the Deputy Director-General of Observatories, Poona on 11th January, 1961.

At present the largest compact forest area occurs towards the north west and west of the district bordering Palamau and extending from Burmu and Khelari to Raidih beyond Gumla.

Character of Forests.—The forests of this district fall under *Dry Tropical type,* sub-classification being *Dry Sal type,* in which *Sal* (*Shorea robusta*) is gregarious.* The crop consists of almost pure crop of *Sal* except on steep slopes where *Salai* (*Boswellia serrata*) species replaces it. The only good specimens of *Sal* forests can now be seen round about *Sarnas* where on account of religious sanctity attached to them, the trees have been spared and may be 100 to 120 ft. in height with a girth of 10 to 15 ft.; in the hills and on the slopes of the ghats, the trees are short and stunted, and on the driest southern slopes *Sal* is supplanted by other trees of the so-called "Mixed Forest type"†. In the valleys specially in the sheltered situations, the principal companions of *Sal* are the *Asan* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *Gambhar* (*Gmelina-arboria*), *Kend* (*Diospyros tomentosa* or *melanoxylon, ebony*) and *Simal* (*Bombax malabaricum,* the cotton tree). The *Mahua* (*Bassia latifolia*) is known throughout Chota Nagpur, but in the forests is chiefly confined to the hills. *Tun* (*Cedrela toona*), *Sisum* (*Dalbergia-sissoo*), both valuable timber-yielding trees, are not native of Chota Nagpur but are frequently planted. *Hara* (*Terminalia chebula*), *Karam* (*Adina cardifolia*), *Kusum* (*Schleichera trijuga*), *Paisar* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*) are also important species of trees. In the inferior *Sal* forests in the hills are found *Dhaura* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *Piar* (*Buchania latifolia*), *Sidha* (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), *Khair* (*Acacia catechu*), *Amaltas* (*Caccia fistula*) and Bamboo (*Dendro-calamus strictus*). The undergrowth in the *Sal* forests consists principally of Woodflorida floribunda, *Kurchi* (*Holarrhena antidysenterica*), Croton oblongi-folius and species of Gardenia and Randia. Mixed with the *Sal* are also a number of characteristically Central India trees, which do not cross the Gangetic plain, such as Cochlospermum, Soymida, Boswellia, Hardwickia and Bassia. In the villages there are groves of mangoes (*Mangifera indica*), but few of the better fruit-bearing varieties are found. *Jamun* (*Eugenia jambolona*), *Karanj* (*Ponamia glabra*), *Tetar* (*Tamarindus indica*), *Bael* (*Aegle marmegos*), *Jack-fruit* (*Autocarpus integrifolia*), *Pipal* (*Ficus religiosa*) and *Bar* (*Ficus bengalensis*) are common round village sites. The *Palas* (*Butea frondosa* and *Butea superba*) is often gregarious in cultivated and waste lands, and its wealth of scarlet blossom in the hot season is a striking sight. The convolvulaceous creeper (*Porana paniculata*), the well-known bridal creeper, displays a mass of white flowers along the ghats in November, and a large variety of tree and ground orchids are to be found in the jungle. Palms are seldom

* *See,* H. H. Haines · *The Botany of Bihar and Orissa,* Part I (1925), pp. 39—45.

† *Ibid.*

found but the dwarf palm (*Phoenix acaulis*) or *Khajur* is found on the upper edge of the ghats.*

Flowers.—The district is rich in wild-growing flowers. *Palas* with masses of red flowers, commonly known as "Flame of the Forest", and *Gulgul* with its upraised yellow flowers present the forest in spring time as an enchanting panorama of beauty. *Kusum* with its tender leaves, ranging between all the subtle shades from red to green, also contributes to Nature's festival of spring. *Sal* saplings with their coniferous, glycerine green leaves and *Lata Palas* (*Butea superba*) with scarlet brilliance of its flowers pervade the entire landscape. Scarlet *Simal,* golden *Amaltas,* creamy *Champa* as also many of the species of *Orchids* and *Cacti* burst out in flowers in summer. Different types of Lilies blossom during the rains.

Winter is equally a good season for flowers when apart from season flowers in gardens, such as roses, Dahlias, Chrysanthemum, wild flowers also bloom profusely. The *Blue Pimpernel,* a shrub less than a foot high with small attractive blue flowers, is commonly found on the fringes of cultivated fields. *Indigofera pulchella* with deep shade of rose pink flowers, *Canscora diffusa* with cluster of small pink flowers, *Reinwardtia trigyna* with showy yellow flowers, *Exacum tetragonum* with azure-blue flowers are also noticed in the fields in winter. *Ipomea* and *Crotolaria* bushes also burst into flowers. Most of the grasses have their indigenous flowers in winter. The mustard and *surguja* fields remain covered with masses of deep yellow flowers while those of *tisi* provide a diversion with a dull blue hue.

Almost any English season flower can be grown in Ranchi during winter with a little technical knowledge and provision for water.

FAUNA.

It is said that in former times Ranchi used to be a happy hunting ground for the sportsman; but on account of progressive shrinkage of areas under forests, to make room for cultivation, the fauna has largely diminished. The ruthless exploitation of the timber resources of the district during the Second World War (1939—1945) and thereafter for commercial purposes has further diminished the forest areas which used to be inhabited formerly by game. Even from the few strongholds such as Banspahar in the extreme north-west corner of the district or the jungles of Samsera and Malsara on the border of Gangpur in the south of the Simdega subdivision game has practically vanished due to unrestricted depredation of native Shikaris who have little respect for age or sex, and with their bow and arrow or muzzle loading gun may shoot

* *See, Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 10-11.

any animal, large or small that comes within range. The wholesale destruction of smaller game has driven away the larger carnivorous animals to remoter parts of jungles beyond the border of the district. Gun licences have multiplied in recent years; but the high prices of shots have counter-balanced the mischief which would otherwise have resulted. The ordinary rewards* coming since long for the destruction of carnivora hold no incentive for the Shikari and this has been a boon in disguise for preservation of whatever wild life is left. The taking over of private forests by the State Government of Bihar under the Bihar Private Forests Act, 1946 has also helped arrest the disappearance of forests. A strict enforcement of the game laws, prohibiting slaughter of female and immature males during the year, and of all game during the hot weather may to some extent arrest the wholesale extinction of fauna. An effective method of preservation of wild life would also be through sanctuaries in forests which are still in existence.

This district is bordered on north, north-west and west by thick jungles of Hazaribagh, Palamau and Madhya Pradesh respectively. Therefore, big game like bison, tiger or wild elephants may wander across the borders and enter this district. Smaller game like Sambar, Chital and Blue Bull are frequent phenomenon. The different species are described below.

Tigers.—Tigers are stragglers or excursionists from outside the district. They are occasionally met with in the south-western corner of the district, mostly in the areas of Kurdeg, Thethaitangar and Bano thanas. Owing to the dearth of deer and small game, tigers are ordinarily cattle-lifters and on being wounded frequently turn man-eaters. During the last few years most of the deaths attributed to man-eaters have been recorded from Kurdeg and Bolba thanas. Kolebira has often been terrified by stray man-eaters. It may, however, be mentioned that many of the deaths attributed to tigers are often the work of leopards and panthers, specially among cattle. One sign to determine a tiger kill from that of leopard is that a tiger begins to eat its prey from its haunches while a leopard fancies the stomach and intestines.

In the early part of the present century, tiger menace had acquired great notoriety and in the thanas of the south-west of the district hardly a month passed in which a score or so of cattle were not reported to have been killed by tigers. In the three years 1911, 1912 and 1913, the average number of cattle killed by tigers in the district was 1,122. In these three years 177 persons were also killed by tigers, and at the beginning of 1913 there were six known man-eaters at large. To rid the district of these beasts, rewards of Rs. 500 were offered for every tiger

*Rs. 25 for a tiger; Rs. 5 for a leopard or wolf and Rs. 2.50 for a bear or hyaena.

killed in thanas Torpa, Bano, Kolebira, Kochedega and Chainpur. The offer of these rewards had the desired effect; no less than five man-eaters being killed soon after they were proclaimed. In the year 1915, no less than four tigers were killed in Biru, and rewards of Rs. 500 were paid for each of them. During the three years 1911 to 1913, 34 tigers were said to have been killed in the district.*

The aboriginal population has a traditional device of destroying a man-eater by means of a trap bow which was once very commonly used by them, but is now of rare occurrence, only occasionally met with in Biru. The trap bow is in two pieces of split bamboo lashed together with jute and jungle creepers. The longer of the two pieces is over 9′; the shorter, which takes the greatest strain, is 6′ to 6½′. The bow is laid parallel to the ground supported on three stones and is well camouflaged. For a leopard two or more often three arrows are aimed at a spot 14½″ off the ground, for a tiger 22″. The arrows heads are not tipped with poison, but the poison is plastered round the lower half of the arrow head, just below the barbs. The shafts are socketed to receive these heads and are not feathered. The poison used is a trade secret of the *Lohars*, who have the monopoly of these trap bows. The main ingredient is obtained from the ripe red seeds of the *Abrus precatorious* creeper (also known as Crab's Eyes). Pepper corns and capsicum are added, among others as irritants because it is imperative that the wounds should be licked. There is only one trip cord to shoot the bow, but two 'Mercy' or *'Dharma'* cords to safeguard the passage of man or cattle. Other traps are also used, i.e., the running noose, the pit, and the baited trap with weighted doors.†

Leopards.—Leopards or panthers (*Felis pardus*) are common in this district. No man-eating leopards have been reported, though maulings have been frequent due to the animals being wounded. The low rocky hills round Palkot and Biru are the favourite habitat of leopards. From Biru Pahar not less than 8 leopards were killed in one year.‡ The distinction between the rock and wood panther, though admitted by few naturalists is very clear in this district. The former is smaller, the spots closer and without any resemblance to a finger print; the head bullet-shaped and the ears small and pricked.** This animal is rarely dangerous and confines its depredations to goats, pigs, and even fowls. The larger species is frequently a cattle-destroyer, and in the years 1911—1913, leopards were reported to have killed 1,720 heads of cattle. During this very period 207 leopards were killed for rewards.

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 12-13.

† Rev. Fr. A. V. Rosner S. J.: *Monograph on the Fauna of Ranchi.*

‡ M. G. Hallett, *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 13.

** *Ibid.*

The Adivasis distinguish three types of leopards or panthers. The 'Dog-eater' or *'Kukur Khaia'* the smallest of the trio lives and hunts round villages and is bold enough to enter even into huts. The *'Bija Phulia'* is a menace to cattle. The *'Pahar Chita'* or *'Sone Chita'*—the hill leopard, the largest of the three measures up to 7′ and a little more. This is the real panther of the zoologists with its larger and pointed skull with a ridge running along the occiput. The former two may be classed as leopards (*Felis leopardus*). They have rounder skulls lacking the ridge. All these three specimens are far smaller than the Assam types.

Bears (*Ursus melursus*).—The rocky, boulder strewn hills, scattered all over the district used to be their rendezvous. Once they were rather numerous in Chutupalu areas. Now, they appear to have retired to remoter parts. In April the falling *Mahua* flowers and other fruits attract them to the neighbourhood of villages. The bear is held in greater dread by the local population than the tiger himself and specially in November and December shows a savage and vindictive temper. Cases of mauling and scalping are common, and the wounds are liable to set up blood-poisoning or tetanus, if not properly attended to.

Monkeys.—They have no fixed habitat, but are usually met with in the region of the Netarhat Plateau.

Lesser Felidae (*Pantheridae*).—Wild cats are fairly known, but the tiger and leopard cats have not come to notice.

The Banro or wild cat (*Felis chaus*) is found all over the district. It is a menace to poultry.

Wolves.—Wolves stray occasionally into this district from Hazaribagh.

Hyaenas.—Hyaenas are common. They are known as scavengers of the wild and follow in the wake of leopards. Formerly they were numerous and small rewards were given to the local *Shikaris* to kill them.

Wild dogs.—Wild dogs are not common. Some of their packs have, however, been reported in the jungles of Biru.

Jackals.—Jackals are found everywhere. They attack young calves and kids and account for many casualties among the village poultry.

Fox.—The Bengal fox is found throughout the district.

Wild boars.—Wild boars are native of Banspahar and Biru. Solitary boars may break over in beats though rarely.

Batels or Honey Badgers.—Locally known as 'Garra Bhalu' are common around Alu Pahar in Biru.

Percupines (*Sahis*).—They are found in ripening fields of *Urid* and *Rahar* and also near *Mahua* trees when ripe fruits begin to fall. Their flesh is a delicacy and much sought after by the Adivasis.

Pangolin (*Scaly Ant-eater*).—It is also known as 'Kahat' and has been reported in the forests of Kolebira and Kampolla in Biru. Rings are made from its scales and are supposed to be aphrodisiac.

Mongoose.—They are common everywhere.

Ungulata (*Hoofed Species*) : *Bison* (*Bos Gaurus*).—Formerly the district had a fair number of bisons, but they are now very rare and the visitors from the forests of Palamau or Surguja may occasionally stray into the jungles in the north-west of this district. One old bull was shot in March 1913, so exhausted that its last charge left it unable to rise. Its condition and the fact that it was accompanied by three calves clearly showed that it was a fugitive from some distant jungle.* The local bison is considerably smaller than the Assam variety (*Bos Frontalis*), being little over 14 hands in height. Before the World War II, there was always a small herd of bisons on the Netarhat plateaux, but owing to indiscriminate shooting, they are now rare. However, one bison was shot in Gumla town in 1949 where it had wandered down from the reserve at Netarhat. Were the jungles of Banspahar and the neighbourhood preserved for a few years, bison would soon fill the coverts, for the bison multiplies freely when undisturbed.

Sambar (*Cervus unicolor*).—In early part of the present century *Sambars* were reported to be fairly known in some parts, such as Kompolla, Udni, Onigara and Samsera. They used to be common in the jungles bordering Gangpur and Jaspur in the south, but have rapidly diminished in number, their extinction being due to shooting of hinds by the aboriginal *shikaris*. A lone bull or hind wandering across the Palamau border was seen about 1959 in Netarhat area. A few *Sambar* may still be met with in the forests near Rajadera.

Chital or Spotted Deer (*Cervus axix*).—Formerly these graceful animals were found in small bands or pairs in most of the lighter jungles. This is proved by many of their skins seen in villages. Its scarcity is probably due to tigers who have a special liking for this species.

Muntjac or Barking Deer (*Carvulus muntjac*).—It is locally known as *Kotra* and occurs in all jungles. These animals with pea fowl are the first to break cover in a beat. An animal which is often mistaken for *Muntjac* is the four-horned antelope (*Tetracerus quadricornis*), which is very much like the barking deer in size and colour. The four-horned antelopes are retiring animals, usually moving about in pairs, and unlike other antelopes keeping to rocky jungle. They are common in Kurdeg, Kompolla and Japlanga. They are solely found in India. Their jerky gait with small spurts of speed and then a sudden stop, their hesitant

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 14.

way of starting easily distinguishes them from the Barking Deer which is veritable jet on four legs. A good head of a four-horned buck is one with posterior horns measuring $3\frac{1}{2}$" to 4", and 2" to $2\frac{1}{2}$" being the length of the anterior horns.*

Nilgai or Blue Bull (*Boselaphus Tragocamulus*).—Another of the Antelope family to be occasionally found in this district is Nilgai or Blue Bull, frequenting jungles of Onigara in the north-west of Lohardaga thana. It is very destructive to crops and, therefore, its extermination is hardly a matter of regret.

Chinkara (*Ravine Deer*).—It is common in Hazaribagh, but does not appear to be found in this district. His fatal curiosity has no doubt made him an easy prey to the hunter.

Hog Deer.—They are not found, but the smallest of the deer tribe, the mouse deer (*Tragulus meminee*) has been found in the jungles inhabited by *Sambar*.

Hares.—Hares are common and in every beat some of them fall victim to the axes or arrows of the beaters. The large brown hares are frequently hunted by Adivasis.

Game Birds.

The most common of the game birds is the pea fowl whose strident cries are not only a harbinger of rain, but also a warning to the jungle of the presence of one of the big cats in their midst. Red jungle fowl are plentiful in the jungles of the south, as also in the bamboo clumps on the slopes of Neterhat. Painted spur fowl known as *'Askal Murgi'* are to be found in the rocky forests of Palkot and Kompolla. The cock bird of the species carries four spurs—two on each leg, whilst the hen is armed with only two spurs. These spur fowls often appear in beats and take short spurts of flight before going to ground. The grey partridge can be heard calling at dawn and dusk from the small *patras* and also from the borders of fields along the edge of the jungle. Green pigeon as also the Blue Rock are very common all over the district. Green pigeons are best shot by two guns as the birds fly from one fig to another. Their peculiar 'Mumbling' and noisy feeding always give them away. Snipes keep to water-logged patches in winter, but one has to hunt long to collect a good bag. The best snipe grounds are towards the south of the district in Targo in Thethaitangar thana as also round Kolebira. There are sand grouse, but not in large number.

* Rev. Fr. A. V. Rosner S. J.; *Monograph on the Fauna of Ranchi*; Cf M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 15.

In the line of wild fowl of the resident species the *Lasser Whistling Teal* is by far the most common and is found wherever there is an isolated *bandh* or pool. The *Nukta* or Comb Bill frequents the southern *jheels* and is common towards Samsera. Cotton Teal, the smallest of the wild fowl is to be met with everywhere, specially in winter. The Spot Bill is rare in the district. Of the migrant wild fowl the more common are : Gadwall, Garganey, Common Teal, Tufted Duck, White Eyes and Brahminis. Grey leg geese are often seen flying over Ranchi in early December and again in late March. These with the bar-headed geese, are sometimes seen on the Sankh river, as also on the Koel and Karo.

Hunting Birds.

The Kawars of Kurdeg thana on the Biru-Jashpur border as also some Gonds and Uraons still fly hawks and falcons. The *Baz* or Peregrine is rare, but the Goshawk, known as the *Sikra,* and the Sparrow Hawk are more popular. The birds are not slipped as is the custom among European falconers, but are thrown in much the same way as a javelin. The hawks are not hooded, nor do they wear bells. The whole process of hawking as practised by the Adivasis comprises two stages, flushing the quail or grouse and watching where they go to ground with the hawk still on its pole. The second stage consists in stalking up to the grouse or quail with the hawk held in the right hand ready to be thrown when the birds are flushed for the second time. There is hardly a miss if proper precautions are taken to avoid a wrong judgment. Hawking is also practised in Chainpur thana where hawks are used to truss up wild duck.*

Avifauna (Birds).

Apart from the game and hunting birds, the total number of species now recorded is over 400, as against 294 mentioned by V. Ball. It has been observed by experts that these 400 cover practically the entire range of families of avifauna, the only deficiencies being the absence of some of the larger aquatic migrants. Excepting the Ranchi lake and the lake at Ratu, which are in urban areas, there are no adequate stretches of water in Ranchi. The dams at Kanke and Hatia, which are of recent origin, may take time to attract aquatic migrants.

It has further been observed that Chota Nagpur is a common territory where both the Himalayan and the Peninsular forms are to be found. Thus we find in this district *Malabar Whistling Thrush, White-Winged Ground Thrush* and the *Southern Yellow-Cheeked Tit.* Some of the other common species found are the *Sand Grouse, White browed, Blue Flycatcher, Black-headed Bunting, Merganser* and *Hill Myna* or *Grackle.*

* Rev. Fr. A. V. Rosner S. J.: *Monograph on the Fauna of Ranchi.*

In winter we also find the *Grey-headed Flycatchers, Minivets, Harriers, Shrikes, Nuthatchs* and *Nightjars.*

The following birds have been recorded in the Ranchi district by V. Ball during 1864–1871:–*

Jungle Crow (*Corvus macrorbynchos*), House Crow (*Corvus splendens*), Treepie (*Crypsirina vagabunda*), Southern Yellow-checked Tit (*Parus xanthogenys aplonotus*), Chest-nut-bellied Nuthatch (*Sitta castanea*), Jungle Babbler (*Turdoides somervillei*), Striated Babbler (*Turdoides earlii*), Common Babbler (*Turdoides caudata*), Rufous-bellied Babbler (*Dumetia hyperythra*), Yellow-eyed Babbler (*Chrysomma sinense*), Common Jora (*Aegithinia tiphia*), Jerdon's Chloropsis (*Chloropsis jerdoni*), Red-vented *Bulbul* (*Pycnonotus cafer*), Red-whiskered *Bulbul* (*Pycnonotus jocosus*), Spotted Grey Creeper (*Salpornis-spilonotus*), Pied Bushchat (*Saxicola caprata*), Collared Bushchat (*Saxicola torquata*), Hodgson's Redstart (*Phoenicurus-hodgsoni*), Red-start (*Phoenicurus ochrurus*), Red-spotted Bluethroat (*Luscinia sveccica*), White-spotted Bluethroat (*Luscinia cyanecula*), Common Rubythroat (*Luscinia calliope*), Brown-backed Robin (*Saxicoloides fulicata*), Dhayal (*Copsychussaularis*), Shama (*Copaychus malabaricus*), *Black*-throated Thrush (*Turdus atrogularis*), Tickell's Thrush (*Turdusunicolor*), Orangeheaded Ground Thrush (*Zoothera citrina*), Blue Rock Thrush (*Monticola solitarius*), Malabar Whistling Thrush (*Myiophoneus horsfieldii*), Red-breasted Flycatcher (*Muscicapa perva*), Tickell's Blue Flycatcher (*Muscicapa tickelliae*), Verditer Flycatcher (*Muscicapa thalassina*), Paradise Flycatcher (*Terpsiphone paradisi*), Black-naped Flycatcher (*Hypothymis azurea*), White-throated Fantail Flycatcher (*Rhipidura albicollis*), Grey Shrike (*Lanius excubitor*), Bay-backed Shrike (*Lanius*

* *See*, Ball, V.: *Avifauna of Chota Nagpur, Stray feathers*, 1874, Vol. II, p. 355.

Also *see*, Jamal Ara: Count of Birds' Nests in a small town, Doranda, *Journal of the Bombay Natural History Society*, Vol. 51, no. 4, p. 1958.

vittatus), Black-headed Shrike (*Lanius scrach tricolor*), Rufous-backed Shrike (*Laniussohach erythronotus*), Grey-backed Shrike (*Lanius tephronotus*), Bar-winged Flycatcher-Shrike (*Hemipus picatus*), Wood Shrike (*Tephrodornis pondiceriana*), Scarlet Minivet (*Pericrocotus flammeus*), Small Minivet (*Pericrocotus peregrinus*), White-bellied Minivet (*Pericrocotus erythropygius*), Black Drongo (*Dicrurus macrocercus*), Grey Drongo (*Dicrurus leucophaeus*), White-bellied Drongo (*Dicrus . caerulescens*), Bronzed Drongo (*Dicrurus aeneus*), Tailor Bird (*Orthotomus sutorius*), Streaked Fantail Warbler (*Cisticolla juncidis*), Rufous-fronted Wren-Warbler (*Prinia buchanani*), Sykes's Tree Warbler (*Hippolais rama*), Orphean Warbler (*Sylvia hortensis*), *Lesser White-throat* (*Sylvia curruca*), Tickell's Willow Warbler (*Phylloscopus affinis*), Chiff-Chaff (*Phylloscopus collybitus*), Yellow-browed Willow Warbler (*Phylloscopus inornatus*), Green Willow Warbler (*Phylloscopus trochiloides*), Ashy Wren-Warbler (*Prinia socialis*), Indian Wren-Warbler (*Prinia inornate*), Golden Oriole (*Oriolus oriolus*), Black-naped Oriole (*Oriolus chinensis*), Black-headed Oriole (*Oriolus xanthornus*), Grey-headed Myna (*Sturnus malabaricus*), Black-headed Myna (*Sturnus pagodarum*), Common Myna (*Sturnus tristis*), Bank Myna (*Acridotheres ginginianus*), Pied Myna (*Sturnus contra*), Baya (*Ploceus philippinus*), Black-throated Baya (*Ploceus philippinus benghalensis*), Spotted Munia (*Lonchura punctulata*), Green Munia (*Stictospiza formosa*), House Sparrow (*Passer domesticus*), Little Bunting (*Melophus lathami*), Common Swallow (*Hirundo rustica*), Wire-tailed Swallow (*Hirundo smithii*), Cliff Swallow (*Hirundo fluvicola*), Sykes' Swallow (*Hirundo daurica erythropygia*), White Wagtail (*Motacilla alba dukhunensis*), Large Pied Wagtail (*Motacilla madraspatensis*), White-faced Wagtail (*Motacilla alba leucopsis*), Grey Wagtail (*Motacilla cinerea*), Blue-headed Wagtail (*Motacilla flava beema*), Grey-headed Wagtail (*Motacilla flava thunbergi*), Yellow-headed Wagtail

(*Matacilla citreola citreola*), Forest Wagtail (*Dendronanthus indicus*), Tree Pipit (*Anthus trivialis*), Indian Tree Pipit (*Anthus hodgsoni*), Brown Rock Pipit (*Anthus similis*), Paddyfield Pipit (*Anthus novae-seelandiae rufulus*), Skylark (*Alauda arvensis*), Red-winged Bushlark (*Mirafra erythroptera*), Ashy-crowned Finch-Lark (*Eremopterix grisea*), Whiteeye (*Zosterops palpebrosa*), Purple Sunbird (*Nectarina asiatica*), Tickell's Flowerpecker (*Dicaeum erythrorhynchos*), Thickbilled Flowerpecker (*Dicaeum agile*), Pitta (*Pitta brachyura*), Fulvous-breasted Pied Woodpecker (*Dendrocopus macei*), Mahratta Woodpecker (*Dendrocopus mahrattensis mahrattensis*), Pygmy Woodpecker (*Dendropopus hardwickei*), Rufous Woodpecker (*Micropternus brachyurus*), Golden-backed Woodpecker (*Dinapium benghalense*), Green Barbet (*Megalaima zeylanica*), Crimson-breasted Barbet (*Megalaima haemecephala*), Asiatic Cuckoo (*Cuculus canorus telephonus*), Indian Cuckoo (*Cuculus micropterus*), Papiha (*Culculus varius*), Pied Crested Cuckoo (*Clamator jacobinus*), Koel (*Eudynamis scolopaceus*), Large Green-billed Malkoha (*Phoenicophaeus tristis*), Punjab Sirkeer (*Taccocua leschenaulti sirkee*), Crow-Pheasant (*Centropus sinensis*), Large Parakeet (*Psittacula eupatria*), Rose-ringed Parakeet (*Psittacula krameri*), Blossom-headed Parakeet (*Psittacula cyanocephala*), Nilkant (*Coracias benghalensis*), Patringa (*Merops Orientalis*), Blue-tailed Bee-eater (*Merops philipoinus*), Chestnut-headed Bee-eater (*Merops leschenaulti*), Pied Kingfisher (*Ceryle rudis*), Common Kingfisher (*Alcedo atthis*), White-breasted Kingfisher (*Haloyon smyrnensis*), Grey Hornbill (*Tockus birostris*), Hoopoe (*Upupa epops*), House Swift (*Apus affinis*), Batassia (*Cypsiurius parvus batassiensis*), Western Palm Swift (*Cypsiurius parvus palmarum*), Crested Swift (*Hemiprocne longipennis*), Jungle Nightjar (*Caprimulgus indicus*), Sykes's Nightjar (*Caprimulgus mahrattensis*), Franklin's Nightjar (*Caprimulgus affinis*), Common Nightjar (*Caprimulgus esiaticus*), Barn Owl (*Tyto alba*), Brown Fish Owl (*Bubo zeylonensis*), Great

Horned Owl (*Bubobubo*), Spotted Owlet (*Athene brama*), Pondicherry Vulture (*Torgos calvus*), Long-billed Vulture (*Gyps indicus*), Whitebacked Vulture (*Pseudogyps bengalensis*), Scavenger Vulture (*Nephron percnopterus*), Shahin Falcon (*Falco peregrinus peregrinator*), Laggar Falcon (*Falco jugger*), Red-headed Merlin (*Falco chiquera*), Kestrel (*Falco tinnunculus*), Great Spotted Eagle (*Akuila clanga*), Bonelli's Eagle (*Hieraaetus fasciatus*), Black Eagle (*Ictinaetus malayensis*), Short-toed Eagle (*Circaetus ferox*), Crested Serpent Eagle (*Spilornis cheela*), White-eyed Buzzard-Eagle (*Butastur teesa*), Grey-headed Fishing Eagle (*Icthyophaga incthyaetus*), Brahminy Kite (*Haliastur indus*), Pariah Kite (*Milvus migrans*), Black-winged Kite (*Elanus caerulens*), Pied Harrier (*Circus melanoleucos*), Marsh Harrier (*Circus aeruginosus*), Shikra (*Accipiter badius*), Sparrow-Hawk (*Accipiter nisus*), Green Pigeon (*Treronphoneicoptera*), Rock Pigeon (*Columba livia*), Rufous Turtle Dove (*Streptopelia orientalis*), Spotted Dove (*Streptopelia chinensis*) Little Brown Dove (*Streptopelia snegallensis*), Ring Dove (*Streptopelia decaocto*), Red Turtle Dove (*Streptopelia tranquebarica*), Painted Sandgrouse (*Pterocles indicus*), Red Jungle Fowl (*Gallus gallus*), Black patridge (*Francolinus francolinus*), Grey Partridge (*Franclinus pondicerianus*), White-breasted Waterhen (*Amaurornis phoenicurus*), Little Ringed Plover (*Charadrius dubius*), Spur-winged Plover (*Hoplopterus spinosus*), Red-wattled Lapwing (*Lobivanellus indicus*), Common Sandpiper (*Tringa hypoleucos*), Little Stint (*Calidris minuta*), Fantail Snipe (*Gallinago gallinago*), Large Cormorant (*Phalacocorax carbo*), Shag (*Phalacocorax fusicollis*), Little Cormorant (*Phalacororax pygmaeus*), Darter (*Anhinga anhinga*), White-necked Stork (*Dissoura episcopus*), Adjutant (*Leptoptilos dubius*), Grey Heron (*Ardaa cinerea*), Large Egret (*Egretta alba*), Smaller Egret (*Egretta intermedia*), Little Egret (*Egretta garzetta*), Cattle Egret (*Ardeola ibis*), Pond Heron (*Ardeola grayii*),

Little Green Heron (*Butorides striatus*), Bittern (*Butaurus stellaris*), Nukta or Comb Duck (*Sarkidiornis melanotus*), Silli or Cotton Teal (*Nettapus coromandelianus*), Mallard (*Anas platyrhyncha*), Widgeon (*Anas penelope*), Common Teal (*Anas crecca*), Shoveller (*Anas clypeata*), Garganey (*Bucephala clangula*), and Little Grebs (*Podiceps ruficollis*).

Reptiles.

Edward Thornton writing about this district in the middle of the last century* says: "The huge boa-constrictor is sometimes met with; and venomous snakes are common as are scorpions, centipedes and tarantulas. Bees are numerous and the lac insect abounds in the jungles everywhere". Owing to denudation of natural vegetation in wake of the growth of population these observations have rather become obsolete. Snakes are not very common in the district, but are most numerous in the lower plateau†. The Cobra and *Karait* are the most common species which account for quite a few death annually. *Dhamins* or rat snakes of considerable size are still found. Rock pythons have been reported from Barwe, but seem to be more common in rocky areas of Kolebira and Biru, in the south. A large number of less poisonous and harmless snakes are often met with, specially during the monsoon.

Inguanas of various sizes, but never attaining anything like six feet are found all along rocky ridges of the rivers, specially along the river Sankh. Crocodiles, locally known as 'Mungers' used to be common in the South Koel and the lower ridges of the river Sankh in Biru. Occasionally one or more may still be seen in some *bundh* close to these rivers.

Fish.

The main types of local fish are: Pothia (*Barbus saps*), Gachua (*Ophicephalus gachua*), Mangure (*Clarius batrachus*), Tangra (*Mystus*

* See, Edward Thornton: Gazetteer (1954).

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 16.

tungra), Bhula (*Glossogobius jiuris*), *Rohu* (*La leweohita*), Ketla (*Catla catla*), Naini (*Cirrhina niragala*), and Kalbas (*Labeo calbasu*).

The rivers and streams of this district are well stocked with fish during the monsoon and remain so till about January when smaller ones get dry and the larger ones have but little water. However, lakes and embankments, which contain water throughout the year, have potentiality for development of fish-rearing on a long-term basis. Among such, the Ranchi lake, water-reservoir (Ranchi), Kanke tank, R. K. Mission Sanatorium reservoir at Dungri, Ratu lake, Toto bandh (Gumla) may be mentioned. The larger tanks in Angara and Silli thanas have developed some fisheries to meet the local demands. The larger rivers, e.g., the Sankh contains Mahseer (Barbustor), Bachua and Goonch.

The aboriginal inhabitants of the district amuse themselves at some seasons of the year by catching fish in the water-logged *don* lands and streams with a bamboo trap known as Kum or *Jhimri*, and on the occasion of Sarhul festival, the youth of a village make a fishing expedition to a tank or stream.

Fishermen use nets of various dimensions, i.e., *Banwarjal*, triangular *pilni*; round '*gira*', square *reca* are used in tanks and bandhs.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

Pre-history and Archaeology.

Ranchi possesses remnants of numerous pre-historic stone implements. Its monuments, some of which are credited to the Asuras by the Mundas, yielded such a mixed assortment of finds as polished stone tools, Carnelian beads, wheel-made pottery, copper and bronze objects, copper and gold ornaments and even iron slags, that it is impossible to date them to any one age [1]. Although relics of Palaeolithic period are not so well marked in Chota Nagpur, there appears to be abundant relic of the Neolithic period, particularly in the southern and south-eastern part of the Ranchi district [2]. Archaeological excavation and exploration of all the ancient sites may furnish valuable data for pre-historic period. The first recorded discovery of stone implements appears to be one of a beautifully-made solitary stone celt found by Professor Valentine Ball at the foot of a small hill near village Burhadih, in Tamar P.-S. in 1867.[3] The finds of W. H. P. Driver, consisting of a few small stone arrow-heads, both of leaf-shaped and chisel-edged patterns, polished celts, cores and flakes and a number of stone beads have been described by Professor J. Wood Mason[4].

The subsequent finds by S. C. Roy between 1915 and 1920[5] and his other works and *Note on Ruins at Majhgaon* (Chainpur)[6] by Rai Saheb Chunilal and others support the view that Chota Nagpur contains the relics of all ages.

Whereas traditions about the ancient Asuras are still widespread in the Ranchi district and implements and ornaments of copper dug up are invariably attributed to those pre-Munda inhabitants, no traditions have survived of the earlier races of men who made those stone celts for use as common implement of everyday life. The bulk of the stone implements collected are unconnected with Asura sites, and would seem to belong to an antiquity more remote than that of the Asura period.[7] These celts

1 *History and Culture of Indian People (Vedic Age)*, p. 138.
2 *J. B. O. R. S., Vol. II* (1916), p. 65.
3 *Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, 1870.
4 *The Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, 1888.
5 See, *J. B. O. R. S.*, Vol. I, 1915, p. 229 and Vol. II, 1916, pp. 82—86.
6 See, *J. B. O. R. S.*, Vol. I, 1915, pp. 117—124.
7 *J. B. O. R. S.*(1916), p. 62.

are attributed to divine origin. These implements have been made mostly of quartzite and various kinds of schistose and gneissose rocks. Stone implements, stone sculptures, stone beads and copper ornaments have been discovered from the numerous Asura sites in the Ranchi district[1]. Microlithic tools and dolemens have also been discovered in the valley of south Koel and at Sonahatu[2].

Further south on the Ranchi plateau, at Bartola in Basia P.-S., a mound of 21 axes was found and another 5 axes discovered at Dargama near Khunti [3]. There are traces of copper age also. Cinerary urns are occasionally found in the shape of large earthenware *gharas* containing pieces of brass and bits of copper ornaments.

Gold coins have been found in village Belwadag near Khunti. Dr. B. Spooner ascribes them to be of the Kushanas of the Huvishka type [4]. Recently a gold coin has been found during the archaeological exploration by the side of the river Koel. Besides, miniature variety of the facetted chisels and jadite tools have also been found. The former are said to be imports, probably from Yunan as objects of trade. Thus they seem to establish a link between Chota Nagpur and Yunan in south-west of China. The gold coins of Huvishka type were probably also an object of trade.

S. C. Roy has given an exhaustive list of finds from the Asura sites of Chota Nagpur and has tried to prove that Chota Nagpur belongs to the same age of culture as the Indus Valley[5]. On most points the two finds resemble to a most surprising degree. The absence of a few features, namely, the picture-signs for writing, artefacts of gold and silver and human figure in *yogic* form does not preclude the probability of the discovery of these finds in the unexplored or partially explored tracts of the country. The evidence of the Chalaolithic stage of culture in Chota Nagpur has been furnished by a fairly recent collection of copper artefacts, varying in shapes and sizes, specimens of which may be examined in the State Museum at Patna. They comprise of copper ornaments of various patterns, copper and bronze vessels and plates, toys and magical figures, both of men and animals. The specimens of copper axes found in the Basia thana of the Ranchi district as well as in the districts of Palamau and Manbhum were sent in 1915 to J. Goggin Brown of the Geological Survey of India, who reported that they belonged to the period of transition to the Copper Age from the later Neolithic Age, or, in other words to the Chalaolithic stage of culture. They were skilled potters and

[1] *J. B. O. R. S.* (1915), pp. 229—248.

[2] *Indian Archaeological Review* (1955), pp. 60, 60-61 and 61-62.

[3] D. H. Gordon: *The Pre-Historic Background of Indian Culture*, 1960, p. 142.

[4] *J. B. O. R. S.* (1915), p. 232.

[5] *Man in India*, Vol. XVII, pp. 220-221.

workers in copper, bronze, iron and stone beads. The finds of shells and small round thick pieces of copper suggest that they had a coin currency as well. Their burial grounds on excavation indicate that the Asuras buried their dead with food and drink. This suggests that they probably believed in after-life. Their pottery and ornaments suggest a fair development of culture. It is said that the Asuras passed through a neolithic culture as well as those of copper and iron age. The Asuras of Ranchi have been sought to be identified with the ancient Asuras mentioned in the *Rig Veda* and other classical Sanskrit works; but this identification has yet to be based on more solid foundation. The Asura civilisation continued at least up to the Kushan period as indicated by the finds of Kushan coins in two Asura sites.

Recent Archaeological finds.*

Sl. no.	Coins.	Period.	Locality of finds.	Date of finds.	Remarks.
1	3 gold coins ..	C. 2nd Century B.C.	Belwadag, P.S. Khunti.	1915 ..	These coins are of Huviskha type.
2	Silver Panch Mark	C. 2nd Century B.C.	In the river Koel.	October, 1955.	Of Vima Kadphises.
3	2 gold coins ..	1st Century A.D.	Kumharia, P.S. Lohardaga.	February, 1960.	Of Vima Kadphises.
4	2 copper coins ..	C. 1st or 2nd Century A.D.	Saradkhel, Khunti on the bank of the river Tajana.	1965 ..	..
5	141/2 Base gold ..	12th Century A.D.	Khokhra Kurhatoli, P. S. Bero.	Not known	Of Gahadwal dynasty.
6	164 copper coins	Medieval ..	Kulebira (Gumla)	1915	They bear the marks of Sultans of Jaunpur.
7	1 silver coin ..	,,	Id. P.S. Angara	1916 ..	Sultan of Delhi.
8	18 copper coins ..	,,	Getalsud ..	1916 ..	Sultan of Jaunpur.
9	5 copper coins ..	,,	Dargaon, Lohardaga.	Not known	Sultan of Jaunpur.
10	20 gold coins ..	,,	Mundari, P.S. Mandar.	,,	12 coins are of Sultan of Delhi, 3 of Malwa dynasty.
11	90 silver coins	,,	Sarwa, P. S. Mandar.	,,	..
12	38 silver coins ..	Modern ..	Bero, P.S. Bero	,,	..

* These finds are preserved in the Patna Museum.

Sl. no.	Sculpture.*	Period.	Locality of finds.	Date of finds.	Remarks.
1	Sand-stone bull of Siva, length 1′ (broken).	Medieval ..	Sonepurgarh ..	5-3-1918	
2	Sand-stone bull of Siva, length 15′ (broken).	,,	,,	5-3-1918	
3	Sand-stone slab containing Surya in relief 3″×2½″ seated in a car with his charioteer in front driving seven horses, below a big wheel.	,,	Chutia, P.-S. Ranchi.	5-3-1918	

Early History.

There is no reference to Chota Nagpur region in the Vedic or Pauranic literature[1]. But the name 'Munda' is found in the *Vishnu Purana* as the appellation of a dynasty of eleven princes who succeeded the Tusharas or Tokhari. In the *Vayu Purana*, however, the name is omitted and we find only Muranda. who is most probably a variant for Murunda, Monedes and Mondalai, Ptolemy places Marunda, as the name of a people to the north of the Ganga, but to the south of the river he definitely mentions Mundali who may be the Mundas of Chutianagpur, as their language and country are called Mundala. They were probably the same people as the Monedes of Pliny, who with the Sauri occupied the inland country, to the south of Polibothri or Patna[2].

Buddhism and Jainism have made little impression on the primitive people of this district, but this tract is mentioned in the Jain Canon. Choraya, identified with Chorey in the Ranchi district was visited by Mahavira. Lohardaga is also referred to in the Jain scriptures as Lohaggala. Two other places, Maddanagama and Bahusalaga, visited by Mahavira were also probably in this district [3].

References to the country, now called Chota Nagpur, are to be found in the works of the earliest historians. Ptolemy has mentioned Mundalai dominions which Cunningham is inclined to identify with the Munda country of Chota Nagpur whose language and country are called Mundala and also with Malli of Pliny[4]. Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese pilgrim places the capital of Kie-lo-na-su-fa-la-na or *Kirana Suvarna* at 700 *li*, or 117 miles, to the north-west of Tamarlipti, and the same distance to the

* These finds are preserved in the Patna Museum.

1 R. R. Diwakar: *Bihar Through the Ages*, p. 51.

2 Cunningham: *Ancient Geography of India* edited by S. N. Majumdar, pp. 581-582.

3 M. S. Pandey: *The Historical Geography and Topography of Bihar*, 1963, p. 185.

4 Ptolemy: *Ancient India*, edited by S. N. Majumdar, p. 168.

north-west of Odra or Orissa. As the capital of Orissa in seventh century A. D. was Jajpur on the Vaitarni river, the chief city of *Kirana-Suvarna* must be looked for along the course of the *Suvarna-rekha* river, somewhere in the districts of Singhbhum and Barabhum. The region was inhabited by a number of wild tribes, of whom Munda and Oraon may be taken as the typical representative[1].

It is debatable whether Chota Nagpur acknowledged the sovereignty of the Kushanas and the Guptas or it remained independent throughout the Hindu period. Though the finds of the gold coins of the Kushanas may not establish their lordship over it, it may be inferred that this region might have come under the pale of the Kushanas. The rule of the Kushanas in some parts of West and Mid-India was supplanted by the Nagas, contemporaneously with the Guptas of Prayag, Saketa and South Bihar[2]. The name Murunda is mentioned in two inscriptions of the second and third centuries A.D. [3] Thus we may assume that the Chota Nagpur region might have submitted to the might of the Guptas.

Besides, the period under review is otherwise also important for this region. The Nagas, a group of Asuras who once ruled Gosrnga in Khotan came to seek shelter in places still bearing their name, e.g., Nagpur, Chota Nagpur and were completely absorbed among the local aborigines inhabiting woods, mountain fastnesses and desolute regions. They migrated to the jungles of Chota Nagpur and Vindhya ranges and even to Assam. [4]

The early history of Chota Nagpur is shrouded in obscurity, and only this much is certain that the Mundas supplanted the Asuras at a date which has not been fixed with precision. There is a tradition among the inhabitants of Lohardaga thana that the aborigines first entered the district through the Saharghatia pass in the north-west of the district. This tradition is probably correct. The Mundas, the reclaimers of the land, have numerous traces of their early settlements in the north-west of the district. They have left trails of their advance from the west all over the district in the *sasandaries* (burial grounds), the remains of which are still to be found in the line of their supposed advance towards their present settlement in the Munda country in the east and south-east of the district [5]. The primitive Munda community had no king, but they were regulated by their own organisation called *Parha council*. It is believed that the *Parha council* elected of their own free-will the Khukhra Chief

1 Cunningham: *Ancient Geography of India*, edited by S. N. Majumdar, pp. 378—380.

2 R. C. Mazumdar, H. C. Roy Chaudhary and K. K. Datta: *An Advanced History of India*, 1948, p. 122.

3 Cunningham: *Ancient Geography of India*, edited by S. N. Mazumdar, p. 581.

4 Anant Prasad Banerji Sastri: *Asura India* (1926), p. 96.

5 J. Reid: Survey and Settlement Report of Ranchi (1902—10), p. 13.

(the ancestor of the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur) as their feudal superior in the early sixth century A. D., after the lapse of several centuries of Munda settlement. The finds of the gold coin of Huvishka type and the inscription of the early Guptas of second and third centuries A. D. also support the hypothesis that the Mundas might have settled in the country before the beginning of the Christian era.

The inaccessible region full of dense forest and treacherous terrain coupled with its wild inhabitants, appears never to have been completely subdued. It is said that the *Atavi* (or Forest States) too acknowledged the supremacy of Magadha during the reign of the Mauryas. After the downfall of the Imperial Mauryas, King Kharavela of Kalinga led his army across this forest region and sacked Rajagrih and Pataliputra. Both the Kushanas and the Guptas had probably connection with this region.

Medieval Period.

Besides *Atavi* (forest tract), the whole of Chota Nagpur was called *Jharkhand* by the Aryans and later by the Muslim chroniclers. It was also known as *Khukhra*. It appears that this inaccessible tract remained independent throughout the Turko-Afghan rule (i.e., 1206–1526 A. D.). The fortress of Rohtas was the farthest limit of actual penetration by them towards the Jharkhand region. Shamsi-Siraj Afif tells that Firoz, after his second campaign against Bengal in 1359-60 A. D. marched from Jaunpur against the Rai of Jajnagar (Orissa) and after making peace with him, returned by some routes through Jharkhand.*

Afghan Invasions.—A Chero Raja named Maharta gave Sher Shah some trouble and, therefore, in 1538 A. D. troops under the command of general Kawai were despatched against him. Abul Fazl mentions this Raja as principal Zamindar in Chai Champa (Ramgarh) and Pundaj (Palamau). He states that when the Chero Raja heard of the approach of the imperial army, he could not fight against it and went away by way of Jharkhand.

The chronicles, *Tarikh-i-Sher Shahi* of Mohammad Yadgar and *Tarikh-i-Salatin-i-Afaghani* mention that Sher Shah sent an expedition against the Raja of Jharkhand to secure possession of a famous white elephant named Shyam Chandra†. K. R. Qanungo does not believe this story and states that though the credulous chronicler makes both himself and Sher ridiculous by making him run to Jharkhand for a fabulous 'white elephant', the expedition might be a fact nevertheless. From a strategic point of view, it was essential for Sher to explore and occupy Jharkhand, whose fringes touch the hills of Rohtas as well as afford secret

* *Tarikh-i-Firuz-Shahi*, Bibleoth Indica edition, pp. 162-64.

† Cf. Hodiwala mentions it as Shyam Sunder, vide Elliot and Dawson: *The History of India as told by its own Historians*, Vol. IV (Allahabad, 1964), p. 368.

access to the borders of Birbhum district in West Bengal*. The capture of Rohtas on 6th April, 1538 A. D. opened the gate for Sher Shah to invade Jharkhand bordering on Bihar, Bengal and Orissa.

Moghul Invasions.—Akbar sent an expedition under Shahbaz Khan Kamba in 1585 A. D. against the Raja of Kokrah or Chota Nagpur. The Raja was subdued and became a tributary of the Muhammadans. The subjection, however, appears to have been merely nominal.†

The Muhammadans were attracted to the country by its reputation for diamond and occasionally raided the district, and carried off plunder and a small tribute in the shape of a few diamonds, which were found at that time in the river Sankh.‡

In 1591 A. D., a detachment commanded by Yusuf Chak Kashmiri marched over Jharkhand to Medinapur to join the imperial army under Man Singh.**

In 1616 A. D., Emperor Jahangir sent his Lieutenant Ibrahim Khan, Governor of Bihar, with a large force against Raja Durjansal who had failed for several years to pay his tribute to Delhi. The Raja was defeated and captured and was taken to Delhi along with diamonds and twenty-three elephants and later interned in the fort of Gwalior for twelve years. He was restored to his kingdom in 1628, having, it is said, ingratiated himself with the Emperor by his skill in testing diamonds; and it was settled that he should pay an annual tributes of Rs. 6,000. The Raja's subsequent relations with the Muhammadans appear to have been peaceful and he was allowed to develop his own kingdom, as he thought fit.†

In the reign of Muhammad Shah, Raja Nagbandi Singh was the Zamindar of Nagpur and the *Ghatwals* of Palamau, Ramgarh and Badam were subordinate to him. In 1724 A. D. when Subedar Sarbuland Khan was on his way to Nagpur, one Bedwan Das Thakur, an agent of the Raja met him and made peace with him by paying him a *nazarana* of a lakh of rupees, in cash and diamonds. The next Subedar Fakiruddoula also invaded the country, but met with considerable resistance. Ultimately he had to be satisfied with an amount from the *Ghatwals* of Palamau. In 1735 A. D. Alivardi Khan enforced the payment of tribute with some difficulty. This district was again attacked by Sujauddaula (1730–40). He, however, suffered reverses and ultimately Subedar Alivardi Khan had to appear on the scene to maintain the dignity of the Moghul Emperors. But he had to satisfy himself with a reduced tribute

* K. R. Qanungo: *Sher Shah and His Times* (1964), p. 181.

† J. Reid: *Survey and Settlement Report of Ranchi* (1902–10), p. 14.

‡ *Ibid.* Also *see* Journal of Historical Research, Ranchi University. Vol. X, no. 2, 1966 pp. 38–43.

** Dr. James Burger: *The Chronology of India* (1913), p. 56.

of Rs. 5,000 from the *Ghatwals* of Palamau and Rs. 12,000 from the *Ghatwals* of Ramgarh. It appears that subsequently the right of Moghul suzerainty over Palamau and Ramgarh was leased out to the zamindars of Tikari and Sanaut and on that strength those chiefs are said to have marched against Ramgarh and compelled the *Ghatwals* to pay Rs. 80,000 as arrears of revenue. However, the hilly region of Chota Nagpur, though conquered from time to time, was never completely subdued. The enormous power of the Moghuls was strictly limited in the hilly tracts of Chota Nagpur where their orders could not always be easily enforced.*

Maharaja of Chota Nagpur.—During the period under review the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur wielded great influence in the district. The Zamindars of Bundu, Tamar, Baranda, Rai, Silli and Bārwe were subordinate to the Maharaja and paid tribute to him and acknowledged him as their overlord.† When the British occupied this tract, they acknowledged the dependent status of these local chiefs under the Maharaja. Up to 1772 A. D. the Chiefs of Ramgarh, called *Ghatwals,* also received investiture from the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur, who performed the *tilak* ceremony by putting a mark on the forehead of the recipient with sandalwood paste. Maharaja Dripnath Shahi and Jagarnath Shahi also led invasion against the Hos of Singhbhum.

British Occupation.

On the 12th August, 1765, the Dewani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa was conferred upon East India Company by Emperor Shah Alam. The tract of Chota Nagpur was included in Suba Bihar and had several feudal lords. Their mutual rivalry gave the British opportunities to occupy the territories. The Raja of Gidhaur and the Raja of Ramgarh were trying to dominate the scene in 1768. Captain Jacob Camac, appears to have been the first British Officer who penetrated the country in 1769 which is now known as Chota Nagpur. He first subdued the Zamindar of Kharakdiha. Palamau was reduced early in 1771 and then Nagpur and Ramgarh.

The Raja of Nagpur at this time was in difficulties, not only from the petty Rajas who had made themselves independent of his authority, but also from the Hos or Larka Kols of Singhbhum who were ravaging the southern parganas, in revenge for the attempts which he had made to subjugate them. He had also a long standing feud with the Raja of Ramgarh, Machchan Singh, who, he asserted, had acquired power by being employed for the Nizamat and had usurped authority over him. Raja Dripnath Shahi, accordingly, went to Captain Camac in 1772 and, after exchange of turbans with the Company's representative, duly acknowledged himself a vassal of that power, gave a *nazarana* of Rs. 3,000 and

* *An Advanced History of India* (Supra), p. 555.

† Cuthbert's letter (Judicial, Criminal Consultation, the 14th June, 1827, no. 58).

agreed to do service against the Marathas. In return for this Captain Camac recommended that he should be allowed to pay his revenue direct to Government instead of through the Raja of Ramgarh, and represented to the Council at Patna the importance of securing in their interests the Raja of Chota Nagpur "whose country would form an effective barrier to the incursions of the Marathas, thus covering Bihar and Birbhum and at the same time giving them the command of the passes into the Deccan". The Raja also offered to pay Rs. 12,000 in lieu of Rs. 6,000 which had been previously extracted from him. The Council at Patna accepted the offer and made a settlement with him for three years (1772–75). The Raja assisted the British troops in subduing Ramgarh, but subsequently fell into arrears over the payment of his revenue owing to the incursions of the Marathas and the refusal of the petty Rajas of Silli, Tamar, Bundu, and Barwe to pay their tribute, and in 1773 Captain Camac was forced to send troops into the country to make him fulfil his obligations. In 1774 the settlement was renewed for a further period of three years, but the Raja stipulated to pay an enhanced amount, viz., Rs. 15,001.

The Raja was, however, a constant defaulter in the payment of revenue and refused to meet the officers of Government who were sent to induce him to pay his dues.* Ramus, who succeeded Captain Camac in charge of the military collectorship of Ramgarh, reported to the Board of Revenue, in 1778, that "many of the zamindars have paid no attention when summoned to attend. The Raja never hears. Whenever any force is sent into his country, he immediately flees into the Maratha country. He is very capable of paying his revenue but always evades and can never be compelled to obedience, save by force". To assist the Ramgarh Collector in his dealings with these Zamindars, a force of five companies of sepoys had been established at Chatra in 1778, and it was only the presence of these troops who were operating in Barwe under Captain Camac that induced the Raja in that year to execute his agreements.

Capt. H. Crawford was deputed to the command of Ramgarh in 1781. He submitted a general report on Chota Nagpur which gives a lurid picture of the state of affairs of the country.† The subordinate Raja of Tamar had revolted and shaken off subjection about twenty-five years before and the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur unsuccessfully attempted to bring back Tamar under his fold. He even sought help from the Marathas, but Tamar was not regained.

* The traditional reason for this conduct is said to be that on the occasion of the meeting of Captain camac and the Raja the latter was wearing a jewelled turban of great value. Captain Camac persuaded him to exchange head-dresses and the Raja was so wrath at being deprived of his jewels in this way that he vowed not to meet the British Representative again.

† Public Proceedings—June, 16th July, 1781, Serial no. 48, pp. 465—517.

Military Collectorship.—The military collectorship of Ramgarh embraced the whole of the present districts of Hazaribagh and Palamau and parts of the districts of Gaya, Manbhum and Monghyr, as well as Chota Nagpur proper. This was formed in 1780 with headquarters at Sherghati in the Gaya district and at Chatra in the Hazaribagh district. The Raja was allowed a free hand in the internal administration of the country, though it was nominally included in the military collectorship of Ramgarh. The internal condition of the district during this collectorship was marked by incessant rivalries among *Jagirdars,* incursions of the Marathas and occasional infiltration of the Larka Kols of Singhbhum into Chota Nagpur, and above all the incompetence of the Raja to keep in subjugation the dependent Rajas and the turbulent elements. Therefore, in absence of peace and order, discontent among the masses increased, suggesting the failure of the Military Collectorship. It may, however, be observed that the District Officer combined the functions of Judge, Magistrate and Collector, but paid little attention to matters other than the collection of revenue.

The concentration of so many functions in one single authority was cumbrous from the point of administrative expediency. To relieve the officer a little in his judicial work, a Hindu Law Officer was appointed in 1793 to expound the *Shastras* and a Muhammadan Officer to expound the *Koran.* Incidentally, this was the first Junior Covenanted Civil Service opened to the Indians. The Board of Revenue ordered the incorporation of the Collectorship of Ramgarh with that of Bihar in 1799-1800. From now onward, the Collector of Bihar began by degrees to intervene into the internal affairs of the Raja of Chota Nagpur and suggested measures to introduce excise tax and issue of licences. Instead of striking at the root of popular discontent, the officers posted in these parts looked more to the collection of revenue than to the amelioration of the grievances of people. To facilitate collection an Assistant Collector of Bihar was appointed in 1809 and posted at Ramgarh. From 1816 this officer was directed to correspond direct with the Board of Revenue and not through the Collector of Bihar as hitherto before.

The Collectorate of Ramgarh was placed under the Bihar-Benares Board of Commissioners which became the Board of Revenue, Central Provinces since 1822. Owing to the repeated risings of the Mundas and Oraons, Chota Nagpur, as a part of the Ramgarh district was brought under the administration of the East India Company and the Maharaja was no longer a Tributary Chief. In 1819 a Political Agent to the Government in South Bihar was appointed. This synchronised with a great drought in the Tamar Pargana, and the transfer of the police administration from the Raja to the British under the Superintendent of Police. The administration took an untimely measure in imposing a tax on *hanria* (rice-beer) when a Munda rising in the pargana of Tamar, Rahe, and Silli was gaining ground. This added to the discontent among

the aborigines. The revolt against the administration compelled it to withdraw the tax on *hanria* prepared for home consumption.

Administration of the Raja.—Under the terms of his *kabuliyat,* the Raja agreed to be responsible for the safety of travellers and to arrest thieves and dacoits and bring them to justice. There were no police thanas and matters were left pretty much to his discretion. "He administered", says Col. Dalton, "justice and the police under the feudal system that had previously prevailed, working through his vassals, some of whom were Rajas like himself of the old race, holding extensive estates, some of whom were brethren of his own in possession of maintenance grants and some persons on whom he had conferred *jagirs* on condition of their supporting him." His administration was hardly successful. In 1793 the Collector invited him to Chatra with the object of making some arrangements for punctual payment of his revenue and also to persuade him "to adopt some scheme for checking the excesses which had been and are practised in his zamindari, which has been for a long time past the receptacle for murderers, thieves, vagabonds and all disturbers of the public peace". Signs of unrest among the aboriginal population of the country were also in evidence and occasionally attracted the notice of the authorities. In 1789, there was an insurrection in Tamar, which was only put down by an expedition, and disturbances in this part continued till 1795.

A lurid picture is painted of the disorders prevailing in the district by Captain Roughsedge, Commandant of the Ramgarh Battalion, in a letter, dated 27th October 1806, and his description of the murder of the Raja of Barwe by the agents of the Raja of Nagpur throws a flood of light on the state of the country. He says, "I cannot avoid mentioning, however, the treacherous and cruel murder of Hariram Singh, the Raja of Barwe, in the year 1801. This person's pargana was overrun and conquered by the neighbouring Raja of Sirguja, and being unsupported by his immediate superior, the Raja of Chota Nagpur, he was obliged to submit to the invader, whose troops kept possession for some years but retreated on the intelligence of Colonel Jones' approach. The Raja of Chota Nagpur availed himself of these circumstances to attempt the recapture of Barwe; but his troops would have had no chance of success, had not Captain Jones and Mr. Smith (at that time Magistrate of Ramgarh) addressed letters to the Raja of Barwe, inviting him to submit on an assurance of personal safety. On the faith of these letters and the solemn promises of his captors, he was induced to place himself in the hands of the Raja of Chota Nagpur, whose officer sent him two days afterwards under an escort to Palkot. Within one mile of this place, he was taken out of his palanquin and put to death in cold blood by the party who attended him and who had been sent by the Raja for this particular purpose. I do not believe that any judicial enquiry was ever made or complaint instituted on account of this

atrocious act; and, as the present Raja of Chota Nagpur is not concerned, I should not have thought it applicable to my subject, did it not seem to prove that the want of proper authority in the district is of no recent date, and that the protection accorded to this person by the chief local officers of Government was thus contemptuously rendered ineffectual by an individual calling himself a British subject and in a district declared to be amenable to British Laws".

In another letter Captain Roughsedge wrote about the Raja—"I hope I have not unsuccessfully shown the necessity for reforms, and to these facts and arguments brought forward I will only add that the slightest mark of attachment or loyalty to the Government shown by any individual in Chota Nagpur at the present day is sufficient to bring down upon him the undisguised and serious displeasure of the Raja and his officers". An attempt was made to remedy this state of affairs and in 1806 Blunt, the then Magistrate of Ramgarh, obtained the sanction of Government for the introduction of a system of police under Regulation XVIII of 1805, but the measure was never carried into effect, the Raja being evidently opposed to the proposal.

Disturbances of 1807 *and* 1808.—Further disturbances occurred in 1807 and 1808. Owing to the disputes of the Raja with his brothers, Captain Roughsedge again marched into the country. The Raja's Diwan, Din Dayal Nath, who had established a complete ascendancy over him and was primarily responsible for the disputes, fled the country with his followers and was arrested in Calcutta and brought to Chatra. The Raja met the British officer, paid up his arrears of revenue and settled his quarrels with his brothers. To secure better administration in future, he was ordered to keep up police thanas, six of which were established in 1809. The year 1809 is thus noteworthy in the history of the district, for it marks the beginning of the disappearance of the feudal authority of the Raja.

Introduction of Police.—The police system then originated was, however, at first no more successful than the feudal system which it had superseded. The Raja was not unnaturally opposed to a measure which diminished his authority and increased his expenditure and did all he could to nullify its effects. In 1819 he was deprived of his control over the police, in consequence of his failure to render any assistance to the Magistrate in the detection of a case in which a woman was murdered for having practised magical arts against the Raja's son and daughter. Another cause of the failure of this system of Government was that the new police officers were mostly foreigners from the North-West, who had joined the alien *jagirdars* in oppressing the people. The aboriginals had no hope of obtaining justice. The Raja by no means satisfied at his own loss of dignity and authority gave but surly answers to complainants who came before him. The *darogas*, the highest

resident police officials under the British Government, declared that it was not competent for them to decide on the grievances which most harassed the Kols, who complained that they had been dispossessed by foreigners, Muhammadans, Sikhs and others. It often happened that the unfortunate Kol who with difficulty made his way to the far off station of Chatra or Sherghati found the tables turned on him when he got there. A host of witnesses in the pay of the opposite party were already on the spot, prepared to prove that he had not only no rights in the land but was a turbulent rebel besides.

Typical of the state of country were the disturbances which broke out in Tamar in 1820. Major Roughsedge, who had been appointed in 1819 to be the first "Political Agent to Government in South Bihar as also the recently ceded districts adjacent to that Province" and was responsible for the tranquillity of the country, reported that the disturbance was due to the oppression practised by the Raja of Tamar upon one of his vassals, Raghunath Singh, who in the hope of redress went to the court at Chatra, but the evidence kept in readiness for him by the Tamar zamindar caused his committal to the Court of Circuit and his condemnation to transportation or imprisonment for life. Tamar had been in a disturbed state for some years and in 1820 two Mundas, Rudu and Kantu, at the head of three hundred followers, attacked a Manjhi whom they regarded as responsible for a drought in the previous year, murdered his son, burnt his village, and then proceeded to vent their wrath upon other landlords. For a long time they defied the authorities and were not reduced till military operations on a large scale had been taken against them.*

Kol Insurrection.—In spite of the suppression of the previous risings with the aid of military, the real grievances of the tribals remained unattended by the administration and ultimately they found expression in the insurrection of the Kols in 1831-32. The genesis of the event was that Kuar Harnath Sahi, younger brother of the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur, who had received some villages as *khorposh* in the Pargana of Sonpur in the Singhbhum district, gave them in farm to certain Muhammadans, Sikhs and others over the heads of the Mankis and Mundas. These new entrants began to act as upstarts and did not hesitate even to offend the prestige of the local Mankis and thus they brought themselves into contempt of the local people. Twelve villages belonging to one Singhrai Manki were leased to a Sikh who, not content with taking away his lands, carried off his sisters as concubines. A graphic description of their grievances is given in the statement of Bindra Manki, Singhrai's brother, before the Magistrate of Chatra. He narrates that a *bania* of Sonpur carried off all their cattle in return for two old buffaloes which they had borrowed

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 81-82.

from him; that they took the law into their own hands and recovered two bullocks with the aid of some men lent by the Raja of Bundgaon; that a complaint was lodged against them at Sherghati and that they were seized by the Munshi and Jamadar of Chakradharpur, but after being kept in the stocks for fifteen days they effected their escape; that in revenge for their escape, the Munshi and Jamadar carried off and ravished their wives; that they told their grievances to the Raja of Porahat who merely told them to do as they pleased, but to be careful not to get him into trouble. He further says, "We returned home, invited all the Kols, our brethren and caste, to assemble at the village Lanka in Tamar, where we had consultation. The Pathans had taken our honour and the Sikhs our sisters and the Kuar had forcibly deprived us of our estate of twelve villages. Our lives we considered of no value and being of one caste and brethren, it was agreed upon that we should commence to cut, plunder, murder, and eat. We said if any were hanged, it would be we four; if any put in irons, we should be the four. It is with this resolution that we have been murdering and plundering those who have deprived us of both honour and homes, conceiving that committing such outrages our grievances would come to light and if we had any master, notice would be taken of them and justice rendered."*

The indignities and oppressions suffered by the tribals at the hands of the alien *thikadars* and indifference of the local potentates to redress their grievances had driven them to desperation. The spirit of revenge spread like a wild fire throughout the length and breadth of the Kol country. Two of the leading Sardars of Singhbhum, viz., Bindrai of Kutuma and Soyee Munda of Gobindpur, who had been ill-treated by the *thikadars* of Sonpur, asked for assistance of the Larka Kols and all took a solemn vow to get rid of the hated middlemen who enriched themselves at the cost of the local people. The meeting of the Kols of Sonpur, Tamar and Bandgaon at Lanka in Tamar set the pace of the movement.

The insurrection started with a cattle raiding incident on 11th December, 1831 at village Kumang in Sonpur. On 20th December, villages held in farm by two Sikhs, Hari Singh and Diyal Singh were plundered and burnt to ashes by a body of seven hundred Kols under Surja, the aggrieved Munda of Singhbhum and Singhrai. A number of villages leased to Kale Khan and Saifulla Khan were also burnt and one of their servants was thrown into the fire. One village belonging to one Muhammad Ali was plundered. A village of one Jafar Ali Khan, farmer of village Gangaria in pargana Sonpur was burnt and ten inmates of his house, including some Munda women whom he had seduced were burnt alive.

* *Ranchi Settlement Report* (1902—10), p. 22.

All *Sads, Dikhus* and *Thikadars* including the zamindars of Tamar, Rahe, Bundu and Barwe fled to save their lives. The Commissioner of the Circuit in his report has said, "Their vindicative spirit did not confine to those to whom their injuries were ascribed, but madly extended to unoffending females and helpless infants, apparently with the subtle determination of extirpating a whole race. Their spirit of revenge was so strong that the foreigners who fell into their hands were given seven cuts, each representing one of the seven obnoxious taxes imposed upon them, i.e., on *hanria, dak, bata* (commission in lieu of exchange of larger coins into smaller ones), *salami, begari* (forced labour), *jarimana* (fines) and taxes on opium by Government." Cuthbert reported: "All the Kols in Chota Nagpur and the five parganas of Tamar, Bundu, Barenda, Rai and Silli had taken up arms and driven the respectable portion of inhabitants from the villages, plundered and burnt their houses and murdered such of them as they could get hold."

In January, 1832 the number of insurgents was estimated to be 1,000 to 1.200, but the arrows of war circulated through the whole country, drew immediate response and by the middle of January the Oraons joined the Hos and Mundas. The police were badly outnumbered and disappeared at the first alarm. No army was available nearer than Banaras, Dinajpore or Barrackpore. The indiscreet arrest of one of the influential leaders amongst the Mundas by the Nazir of Sherghati Court, who was sent to tranquilize the country only inflamed the riot by Mundas, who resolved not to leave a single foreigner alive in Nagpur, declaring at the same time that except the Maharaja they would obey none.

The British authorities were entirely unprepared for an attack of such magnitude. Captain Wilkinson, with a few troops, reached the outskirts of the plateau by the middle of January and had several engagements with the rebels : at Pitoria on 1st February, 1832, Tikoo on 2nd and 10th February and at places in Bundu and Tamar and at Arkighat and in Sonpur. He had to fight a tough battle round Nagri. By the middle of February sufficient troops were collected to form three lying columns which swept the country in parallel lines, as they advanced from south to north. The columns met with strong resistance in Sonpur where the insurgents had abandoned their villages and taken to the hills. All the columns concentrated in this country. The resistance given by Bundhu Bhagat and his sons and men at Silligaon on 13th February is memorable. They stood firm with their bows and arrows against the muskets of the British troops until they perished to the last man. The leaders of this insurrection, viz., Bindrai Manki, Singrai's brother and Surja surrendered on 19th April, 1832. The official report mentioned that 226 Hindus and 78 Muslims were killed; 4,086 houses burnt; 17,058 heads of cattle seized and 8,22,992 maunds of grains burnt. This uprising witnessed the first and perhaps the last alliance

of the Larka Hos, Oraons and Mundas of Sonpur and Tamar. This combination of Kols and Oraons remains an unparalleled event in the history of Munda uprisings in the 19th century.*

After the insurrection was over the *thikadars* returned and carried their tirade of revenge against the Mundas. The process of the break-down of the traditional agrarian order continued apace. Many Kols fled the country and some years after when they returned home, the *thikadars* refused to return their lands which they had occupied in the meantime. It was this class of uprooted tribals who constituted the hard core of the Sardari Movement later on.

The policy of repression failed to suppress the movement, which was not against the Government but against the Zamindars and *thikadars*, seeking the wild justice of revenge. Capt. Wilkinson now changed the policy of confrontation by Government to one of conciliation and friendship. He learnt the local language and held a *Durbar* near Tamar and made friends with some Larka Sardars (i.e., Kol leaders) and with their help arrested two turbulent leaders, Katey and Binji Rai and sent them in chains to Calcutta and thus the rebellion of 1832 ended. As a measure of conciliation the tax on *hanria* (rice-beer) was entirely abolished in 1833 and this made Capt. Wilkinson a legendary figure in Chota Nagpur, who is still remembered as 'Al-Kisun Sahib'.

Though the immediate cause of the insurrection was the ill-treatment of the Sonpur and Porhat Mundas by the Sikh and Muhammadan *thikadars*, the causes were rather deep-seated, as the following extract from the report of the Joint Commissioners, Dent and Captain Wilkinson, will show:—†

> "The Kols throughout Nagpur had within the last few years had their rents increased by their *ilakadars*, Zamindars and *thikadars* by 35 per cent. They had made roads through the pargana without payment, as *begarries* (forced labour). The Mahajans, who advanced money and grain, managed within a twelve month to get from them 70 per cent, and sometimes more. They disliked the tax upon liquor, which was fixed at four annas a house, but more than that amount was levied very generally, besides a rupee *salami* on almost every village and a *khasi* or goat. The thana establishments were also complained of, and a *dak* establishment

* The Kol Insurrection was followed by the Bhumij rebellion (1832-33) in Dhalbhum and Manbhum under Ganga Narain who was joined by Bindrai Manki. The uprising was put down towards the end of 1833, Ganga Narain having been killed on 7th February, 1833.

† *See*, Report by Dent, dated 4th September 1833, regarding the disturbances in Barabhum and the neighbouring *pargana*.

was kept up, the expense of which fell upon the Kols of those villages which were situated on the lines of road traversed by the *dak*. The *raiyats* of the Raja's *bhandar* (*khas*) villages complain that the present Diwan had within the last five years taken from them double the quantity of *saika* grain (produce-rent) which he did formerly. The peons collecting rents in the *bhandar* villages formerly received one *paila* of rice or one anna per diem. They now take four since the present Diwan came into power. The *dhangars*, who go as labourers into Bengal and other parts of India, are on their return forced to pay one rupee to the owner or farmer of the village. Many people from below the *ghat* have settled in Nagpur and it was one of the subjects of complaint among the Kols that within the last five years several of these settlers, to whom they had become deeply indebted, had pressed so hard for payment that many of the Kols had executed *sewak pattas*, that is, had sold their services till the debt was discharged, which was in fact binding themselves to give their whole earnings to their creditor, receiving from him food and clothing, or to work for him exclusively, thus becoming his bondsman for life. The complaints against the thana *amla* were loud in our progress through the country, but the number of instances of exaction are by no means as numerous as we anticipated."

The Commissioners did not consider that there was any truth in the allegation that the Raja had stirred up insurrection, though there were many reasons why he should have wished to be rid of British interference. He had been deprived of his influence and authority over the *Jagirdars*, who now merely paid him rent, but formerly, before the country became subject to the Regulations, had been liable to forfeit their estates if they failed in rendering him services. He had also been a pecuniary loser, as he had been prohibited, in 1788, from collecting *madad* in addition to the rent, and also the *panchpownea*, or tax on certain castes and trades, and contributions on occasions of mourning and rejoicing in the royal family.

Administrative Reforms.—The suppression of the revolt was followed by a number of administrative reforms. In Sonpur, the Mankis and Mundas were all reinstated in their villages on reduced rentals, and the *thikadars* were referred to the Kuar for the adjustment of their claims. The proposal to introduce opium cultivation was dropped, and collections on account of excise and the *dak* cases were temporarily suspended. But the insurrection brought home the necessity for a closer administration and more effective control by British officers on the spot. Accordingly, the whole system of administration was changed, and the South-West Frontier Agency was established in 1834, with headquarters at Kishanpur

(Ranchi). The Agency included all Chota Nagpur proper as well as Palamau, Kharakdiha, Ramgarh, Kundu, the Jungle mahals (except Bishenpur, Sainpahari, and Sherghar), pargana Dhalbhum and the dependent Tributary Mahals. Within the territory so constituted, the operation of the Regulations and of the rules for the administration of civil and criminal justice and the collection of revenue was suspended. By the rules framed under the Regulation, the Agent was given very wide powers. He was vested with the same powers as were exercised by Commissioner of Revenue and by Civil and Sessions Judges, but was enjoined to conform to all orders from the Sadar Dewani and Nizamat Adalat, the Sadar Board of Revenue, and the Board of Customs, Salt and opium. Subordinate to the Agent were the officers styled "Principal Assistants to the Agent to the Governor General", who were in charge of the divisions known as the Manbhum, Lohardaga and Hazaribagh Divisions. Captain Thomas Wilkinson was appointed the first Agent, and one of his Principal Assistants, Lieutenant Ouseley, was placed in charge of the Lohardaga division, which corresponded roughly to the present districts of Palamau and Ranchi, with headquarters at Lohardaga. The most important result of the establishment of the Agency was that, for the first time since the cession of the *Diwani*, a regular system of Police and Courts for the administration of justice by British officers was instituted. For the administration of Criminal Justice, the Assistants had powers similar to those exercised later by the Deputy Commissioners. In addition to ordinary magisterial powers, they were able to pass sentence of imprisonment for a period of seven years. Their proceedings were subject to revision by the Agent, who had power to confirm, annul, or modify them at his discretion. For the administration of Civil Justice, there were two Munsifs, one at Lohardaga, and the other at Ranchi. The Principal Assistants tried some original civil suits and heard appeals from the decisions of the Munsifs. For the guidance of the Courts, a simple Code of rules was drawn up by Captain Wilkinson, which, though not sanctioned by Government, appears to have been followed till the introduction of the Code of Civil Procedure (Act VIII of 1859). Two salutary rules, drafted by Captain Wilkinson, may be mentioned. One, with the object of discouraging vexatious litigation, prohibited Vakils from practising in any courts and allowed suits to be conducted only through the agency of Mukhtears, or authorised agents; the other, declaring that no sale, mortgage or transfer of landed property was valid without the consent of the Agent was intended to prevent disputes over transferred property and to discourage the old landlords from running into debt. A rule prohibited the Munsifs from granting *ex-parte* decrees against Mundas, Mankis, Kols, and other such ignorant people. The Principal Assistant, Dr. Davidson, first issued and enforced this rule in 1838, but this rule was later superseded by the Code of Civil Procedure resulting in numerous fraudulent *ex-parte* decrees against the Mundas, which were one of the causes of the subsequent agrarian discontent.

Defects of Administration.—In spite of the administrative reforms, outlined above, the *jagirdars* still continued to oppress the cultivators and extort illegal contributions and *abwabs* from them. In order to improve the administration of justice, the Agent was relieved of his duties as Civil and Sessions Judge, and in 1843 an officer was appointed, under the title of Deputy Commissioner, who carried out these functions. The Deputy Commissioner of the present day corresponded to the Judicial Commissioner and received that title in 1861*. The Court of Justice was transferred from Sherghati to Lohardaga which was raised to the status of a district extending over an area of 12,500 square miles. The headquarters of Principal Assistant to the Agent had previously, in 1842, been transferred from Lohardaga to Ranchi. By Act XX of 1854 the Agency was abolished and the duties and powers conferred by Regulation XX of 1833 were vested in an officer appointed by the local Government, and thus Chota Nagpur came to be administered as non-regulation province under a Commissioner.

Zamindari Police.—Some effective measures were taken to improve the Police administration. In addition to the Sadar thana maintained by Government at Lohardaga, Zamindari thanas were established at Palkot where the Raja resided and also at Bundu, Tamar, Silli, Barwe and Banta-Hajam, the cost being defrayed initially by the Raja, but in 1838 the Zamindars agreed to pay an additional 4 per cent to meet this charge and by a subsequent arrangement the Raja and his subordinate Zamindars were authorised to collect a police cess of Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 from each village from their under-tenure holders and *raiyats*. The Raja exercised the powers of a *daroga* in Palkot thana while the Zamindars did so in their respective jurisdiction, the post being one of very great responsibilities and powers. However, the Zamindari Police System did not improve matters. The Zamindars were generally unwilling or unable to perform their duties and the establishments employed under them were so underpaid that it was impossible to expect efficient services from them.† The Principal Assistant was of the opinion that for the sum paid by the Zamindars a more efficient establishment could be kept up, were the police directly under the Assistant. Ricketts, Member of the Board of Revenue reporting in 1855, observed that an honest, able and active Zamindar with the power of a *daroga*, might afford most efficient assistance to good Government, while the powers of a Zamindar of opposite character to do mischief was measureably increased by leaving the police in his hands†. However, this system continued till introduction of the new constabulary in 1863, when according to the provisions of Act V of 1861, the police powers of the Zamindars were abolished.‡

* Capt. Hannyangton was the first Deputy Commissioner and Civil and Sessions Judge of Ranchi.

† *J. Reid*: Survey and Settlement Report of Ranchi (1902—1910), p. 81.

‡ *Ibid*, p. 82

Christian Missionaries.—The Christian Missionaries arrived at Ranchi on 4th November, 1845. They were four German Lutheran pastors sent out to India by E. Gossner, Director of the Missionary Institute, Berlin. Their first adult converts were baptized in 1850. Soon about a hundred convert families settled at Ranchi round the residence of the missionaries and by 1869, the number of converts rose to about 11,000 when a split occurred among them, leading to the establishment of the Anglican Church at Ranchi. This, however, did not affect the growth of the Lutheran Church, as in 1909 they had 55,000 adherents in the Ranchi district.

In 1868 the Berlin Curatorium, managing the Lutheran mission, decided to impose a new constitution on the Ranchi mission. This proved unacceptable to some of the elderly pastors. Together with about 5,000 of their converts they presented a petition to the Bishop of Calcutta to be accepted in the Anglican Communion. After due enquiries and an understanding with Berlin and the other missionaries, the Bishop received them in March, 1869. They were given the eastern part of the original mission property and since they were put under the society for the propagation of the Gospel, they became known as the S. P. G. Mission, and in 1875 counted 8,156 baptized members, rising to 18,117 in 1909.

On the outbreak of the first World War (1914—18), the British authorities took precautionary measures against the missionaries of the Lutheran mission. Those who were of military age, were recalled to the headquarters of the mission at Ranchi and not permitted to take any part in the missionary work. The older missionaries, many of whom had spent the greater part of their lives in Chota Nagpur, were allowed to remain in their mission stations and were placed on parole. In 1915, in accordance with the decision of the Government of India to intern or repatriate all German subjects, these missionaries were removed from the district, those of military age were sent to the concentration camp at Ahmadnagar and the older missionaries with the women and children were detained for a few months at Danapur (Patna) and later repatriated to Germany. Thus the parochial work of mission fell on the Indian pastors and Catechists, who were thus by circumstances, entrusted with the responsibility of managing their own affairs without the foreign missionaries except in respect of the educational side of the mission which was supervised at the time by the Bishop of Chota Nagpur and by members of the S. P. G. Mission.

The first Jesuit in Chota Nagpur settled at Chaibasa in 1869 and from there sought contacts with the aboriginals of the Ranchi district. From 1873 onwards they made some converts at Doranda and elsewhere, their number rising to about 2,000 in the whole district when Father C. Lievens S. J. took up residence at Torpa in December, 1885. He

attracted converts on mass scale from amongst the aboriginals when he took up their defence in law courts against the Zamindars during the agrarian unrest. The early Christian missionaries like Rev. Onash and Rev. Uhlman also advised them in legal matters. Another reason of the popularity of the Catholic Church was that it took a more tolerant view of the traditional tribal habits of dancing and drinking and did not insist on commensality with Christians not belonging to one's tribe (this meant 'losing one's caste'). The conversions were specially numerous in Barwe and Biru. It was not through preaching, but due to desperation that people came to the Catholic Church to seek protection against their economic disintegration. According to the census of 1931, there were 1,45,233 Catholics in the Ranchi district.

Great Revolt of 1857.—At the time of the Great Revolt of 1857, Ranchi was the headquarters of the Ramgarh battalion, which consisted of a full infantry battalion, with cavalry and artillery attached. About one-third of the battalion were men of Chota Nagpur, but of the higher castes, and the remainder were recruited from Bihar and other parts of India. A number of aboriginal Kols had at one time been recruited, but, though good and courageous soldiers in some respects, were found to be led by their intemperate habits into many derelictions of duty, and the commandant of the battalion anxious to have it as much like a line regiment as possible had discontinued recruiting them. At Hazaribagh there were companies of the 7th and 8th Infantry, which had been possessed with a spirit of unrest ever since the first news of the revolt had reached them from the north. News of their disloyalty reached Ranchi, and the British authorities decided to send two companies of the Ramgarh infantry, thirty horsemen and two guns, under Lieut. Graham, to disarm them. The force left Ranchi on August 1, but had not proceeded far on its march, when news was received that the Hazaribagh troops had actually mutinied and were marching towards Ranchi. On receipt of this news, the Ramgarh infantry, who were with Lieut. Graham, mutinied, seized the guns, ammunitions and four elephants, belonging to Col. Dalton, the Commissioner and made preparations to march back to Ranchi. The cavalry alone remained loyal and went on with Lieut. Graham to Hazaribagh. News of the mutiny of this detachment reached Ranchi early on August 2. At first Col. Dalton and the military officers continued their preparations for meeting the men of the 8th infantry, who were said to be at Burmu, 20 miles north of Ranchi, in spite of the fact that the loyalty of the troops at Doranda was by no means certain. The same afternoon some of the mutinous sepoys of Lieut. Graham's detachment arrived at Doranda, and the Commissioner and the Commandant of the Corps, seeing that it was now hopeless to rely on the loyalty of the troops, decided to vacate Ranchi and left together with the Judicial Commissioner and another European Military Officer for Hazaribagh *en route* to Grand Trunk Road by the old Ranchi-Hazaribagh

road, *via* Pithauria and Badam. With troops still loyal, the party arrived at Hazaribagh without meeting any opposition; for this they were indebted to the *Parganait,* Jagat Pal Singh of Pithauria, who had set up earthworks across the road by which the Hazaribagh troops were marching on Ranchi. The troops, thinking that the entrenchments were held by men of the Ramgarh battalion and that Ranchi would be found to be well-defended, turned off in the direction of Lohardaga, and ultimately joined the rebels in the Tributary Mahals, taking no further part in the mutiny in Chota Nagpur.

Col. Dalton, with the few troops under his command and the men supplied by the Raja of Ramgarh, held Hazaribagh for a few days, but due to lack of reinforcement he had to vacate it and reached Bagodar on the Grand Trunk Road on August 13. He removed to Barhi on August 18 where 150 men of Captain Rattray's Sikhs under Lieut. Earle, commanding Bengal Police Battalion joined him on August 26* and he returned to Hazaribagh by the end of August with military force and re-occupied it.

Shortly after the departure of Col. Dalton and party, the rebel sepoys who had started the previous day under Captain Graham for Hazaribagh, returned to Ranchi with their new leader Jamadar Madho Singh, and dominated the local scene of disturbances. Two local Zamindars, who emerged as leaders of the movement, were Thakur Bishwanath Sahi of Barkagarh and Pandey Ganpat Rai of Bhaunro, ex-Diwan of the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur, the former being the Chief and the latter the Commander-in-Chief of the sepoys. The Maharaja and other important Zamindars, however, helped the British authorities to crush the movement.

The British rule appeared to have come to an end. The bazar was abandoned and the shopkeepers left the place and then the sepoys began setting fire to all the houses of the Europeans at Doranda. The court house of the Principal Assistant was destroyed. The *Katcheries* were put on fire and the files and papers were thrown into a well. The mutineers entered Chota Nagpur Zila School, broke the furniture and threw away the books. They also looted the treasury. The next day they forced open the gates of the jail and set free all the prisoners. The foreign missionaries with a view to save their lives had also fled in the wake of the flight of the European Officers, leaving behind their churches and schools. The rebels fired four cannon balls on the German mission and the church and one hit the tower wall.

The leaders, however, soon realised that without outside help they would not be able to sustain the movement in Ranchi. They had already received intelligence that the rebel troops of Hazaribagh, who were

* Bengal: Past and Present, July-December, 1941, pp. 41—43.

coming to join them, had gone into the direction of Lohardaga and thereby left the way clear for the European officers' return to Ranchi. They took stock of their resources and came to the conclusion that the local fighters would not be a match for the Government troops. In absence of a proper plan of action, confusion ensued and ultimately the rebel leaders decided to leave Ranchi and marched through Chandwa and Balumath to Chatra. They had intended to join the troops under the leadership of Babu Kunwar Singh at Rohtasgarh, but failed in their objective.

On October 2, they encountered a surprise attack at Chatra by the British army including Sikhs, led by Major English, when a section of them newly recruited, was under training and separated from their main body which had taken up position on the west of Chatra. The British army possessed a superior weapon in Enfield rifle, whose effective range was over 900 yards*. In spite of this handicap, the freedom fighters fought heroic battles on both fronts, having been confronted by the Sikhs on one. The tragic lack of intelligence regarding the movement of enemy and the treachery of the *mahajans* of Chatra cost them their victory. There were heavy losses on both sides. Ultimately they moved towards Sherghati and were heard of no more. The British army started a hunt for the rebels. With the help of the rural police, they arrested the collaborators who were in hiding and gave them exemplary punishment. On October 3, they captured Jai Mangal Pandey and Nadir Ali, Subedars of the Ramgarh battalion, who had fought against them the previous day and hanged them on a tree on October 4, though Nadir Ali had been wounded in the action.† They could not capture Jamadar Madho Singh whose destiny remained unknown. The recovery of the palanquin of Thakur Bishwanath on October 3 from the jungle and apprehension of two of his servants, confirmed that he together with Pandey Ganpat Rai were present on the scene of fighting on the previous day and had left in the night to avoid capture by the enemy.‡ Thakur Bishwanath returned to Chota Nagpur and organised a resistance movement against the British in the neighbourhood of Lohardaga.**

The victory of the British at Chatra not only secured the control of the territory between the river Sone and Calcutta for them, but also depressed the prospect of the movement against them in Palamau.

* 1857 in Bihar (Chota Nagpur and Santhal Parganas), 1957, p. 41.

† After country's Independence, a modest memorial has been erected in their remembrance by the citizens of Chatra on the embankment of a pond, close to the highway, where they were hanged on a tree.

‡ *See*, letter, dated the 4th October 1857, from J. Simpson, Principal Assistant Commissioner, Hazaribagh, Camp Kalapahari, near Chatra, addressed to E. F. Dalton, Officiating Commissioner, Chota Nagpur, reproduced in '1857 in Bihar' (1957), pp. 41—46.

** 1857 in Bihar (Chota Nagpur and Santhal Parganas) 1957, pp. 110-111.

A conjunction of the victorious Ramgarh battalion with the troops of Babu Kunwar Singh might have prolonged the course of war for the British.

Col. Dalton returned to Ranchi on September 23, with a strong force. Major English had arrived at Doranda the previous day with his troops, but he did not deserve any credit for suppressing the rebellion, because there was not a single sepoy in the station to give even a show of resistance. Everything was quiet. Only the ruins of the damage of the court buildings and the church reminded one of the risings that had come and gone. Courts were re-opened and the station resumed its normal life soon after.

Col. Dalton started a vigorous search to trace out the rebel leaders and placed prizes on their heads. In order to create awe in the minds of the people to deter them to rise against the British Raj for many years to come, vindictive punishments were given to them. More than two hundred sepoys were captured and hanged publicly on the trees near the courts. Bahoran Singh, convict, who had escaped from the jail and joined Thakur Bishwanath Sahi and Ganpat Rai with 200 armed men and taken a leading part in burning the Barwe thana, could not succeed in his plan to attack the Principal Assistant who was then camping at Lohardaga. He was captured, found guilty and hanged on January 5, 1858. In the middle of March, 1858 Col. Dalton proceeded to Lohardaga with the intention of attacking rebels, but falling ill deputed Capt. Oakes, who, with a party consisting of Madras Rifles, Ramgarh Cavalry and 160 of the Kol-Santhals under the command of Captain Nation, by rapid march succeeded in surrounding them. The leaders were so completely surprised that they could make no resistance. Through the betrayal of Bishwanath Dubey and Mahesh Narayan Sahi, Thakur Bishwanath was captured on the spot and Ganpat Rai also apprehended soon after.* Both Thakur Bishwanath and Pandey Ganpat were summarily tried by the Judicial Commissioner. The charges against the Thakur were that having joined the mutineers of the Ramgarh Battalion he had closed the ghats to prevent the return of the Government officers to the district and also that he had promised to give the sepoys *badshahi* pay and seized some wealthy merchants and ill-treated them with the purpose of exorting a sum of rupees twenty-five thousand to enable him to fight against the Government. Both Thakur and Ganpat were sentenced to death by public hanging. The Thakur was hanged on Friday, April 16 and Pandey Ganpat on April 21, 1858 on one† of the trees to the north of the Old Commissioner's Compound.

* Minute of the Lieut. Governor on the Mutinies as were effected in the lower provinces.

† The trunk of this tree is kept in the martyrs' Museum, Audrey House, in the compound of the Government House at Ranchi.

The Commissioner of Chota Nagpur moved the Government of Bengal for confiscation of the entire property of Thakur Bishwanath Sahi* and accordingly all his properties including the temple properties at Jagarnath Pur, comprising of 97 villages, were confiscated to the Crown in December, 1857.† On representation, the Government separated the temple property from the confiscated properties and handed it over to the priest for the service of the temple. In 1872, Kapil Nath Sahi, the only son of Thakur Bishwanath Sahi and heir to the estate of the deceased, brought a suit against the Government to obtain possession of his ancestral estate. His contention was that his father had only life interest in the estate and on his death the plaintiff (Kapil Nath Sahi), who, according to Mitakshara law of inheritance, had become co-owner from his very birth to the title and interest of the property, which could not be denied to him because of the sentence of the confiscation passed against his father. The suit was tried in Calcutta High Court and decreed in favour of the Government. The court held that the Mitakshara law did not apply to the estate and further that Bishwanath Sahi had an interest in the estate which survived beyond his life and his interest was forfeited. Thus the plaintiff did not become entitled to the estate on the death of his father. Bishwanath Sahi. It was further held that so long there were heirs to the Thakurship, Government would continue to hold the estate, but on failure of such an heir, the estate would revert to the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur.‡

The eleven villages of Pandey Ganpat were also forfeited to Government. Bhola Singh Zamindar of Chowriya, who had helped the sepoys of Doranda was ultimately captured and starved to death by being shut up in a closed room. Raja Asman Singh together with his companions was prosecuted on a charge of plunder, but in absence of evidence was acquitted. Tikait Omraon Singh and Sheikh Bhikari were sentenced to death on January 6, and executed only two days after.

Korban Ali, a Jamadar in the office of the Principal Assistant in the Collectorate, was sentenced to 14 years' imprisonment for "rebellion and causing proclamation of *Padshahi Raj* on or about the 4th August, 1857." It appears that he had not only actively joined the mutineers, but was a link between the mutinous section of the army and some of the Zamindars. He was also, as it appeared, the connecting link between the Zamindar Thakurai Kishan Dayal Singh and others in Palamau.**

* *See*, letter no. 9, dated 4th October 1858, from the Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, to the Secretary to Government of Bengal.

† The Report of Capt. Henry Gray on Settlement of Barkagarh Estate (1880) gives a connected history of this estate.

‡ The Maharaja of Chota Nagpur had created it as *khorposh* in favour of his brother, Aini Sahi and his legitimate male heirs, subject to the condition that on failure of such an heir the estate would revert to the Maharaja.

** 1857 in Bihar (Chota Nagpur and Santhal Parganas), 1957, p. 111.

The punishments to the leading freedom fighters were more than vindictive, particularly when the disturbances were over long before. The British power re-established itself with greater vigour than hitherto and tried to gain the goodwill of the loyalists, who had stood by it, by grants of assistance to them. Jagatpal Singh, Parganait of Lohardaga, was given the title of Raja Bahadur and *Khillat,* for holding the Pithauria ghat against two Companies of the mutinous sepoys of the 7th and 8th infantry and maintaining contact with the Commissioner of Chota Nagpur during his absence from Ranchi. Maharaja Jagarnath Shahdeo of Lohardaga, along with his nephew and cousin received thanks of the Government. The Raja of Jhalda, who was a prisoner in the Hazaribagh jail and was released by the mutineers, showed his loyalty to the British by closing the passages between Ranchi and Purulia to prevent the mutineers from moving in that direction. He received remission of his previous sentence. The Maharaja of Chota Nagpur and his three nephews were suitably commended for their steady loyalty. Baraik Hari Singh, Imam Bux Khan, Baraik Jabbu Singh, Thakur Bhim Singh, Chamman Singh and Bechan Mishra were also commended for their loyalty and recommended for *Khillat* of double-barrel guns. Besides, a number of other persons were also rewarded for their loyalties.* However, the persons who had betrayed Thakur Bishwanath and Pandey Ganpat could not dare to come up before the public to receive their prizes.

With the restoration of British authority, the Christian missionaries also returned to Ranchi and took up the conversion programme with great vigour. They were given all encouragement by the administration, which now concentrated on the policy of 'divide and rule' and tried to create a class of converts among the people, who would look to the British to promote their interests and, therefore, stand aloof from any freedom movement in future.

The pattern of the freedom movement was different in Palamau which was till 1892, part of the present Ranchi district. Due to its proximity to Shahabad, Palamau was influenced by the events which were taking place in that district under the leadership of Babu Kunwar Singh. There was a mass movement in which the Cheros, Kharwars and Bhogtas, who constituted bulk of the population of Palamau, had risen as a community against the British who had only a few allies amongst the landlords.

The imposition of the British rule had gradually led to the extinction of Chero Kingship. Thus a fire was smouldering in the hearts of the Cheros to restore their dynasty to power as soon as an opportunity came their way and the Movement of 1857 provided them one. The alliance

*Foreign Miscellaneous Records no. 383, preserved in the National Archives, New Delhi. Also *see*, 1857 in Bihar (*supra*), p. 115.

between the British and the Rajput Thakurais further provoked the traditional Chero-Rajput animosity. The economic condition of the Cheros and the Bhogtas had deteriorated fast during the British regime and the popular discontent found expression in a mass rebellion against the alien British power.

The movement in Palamau went on vigorously till the first week of January, 1858 when there was a turn in favour of the British. But two most prominent leaders, Nilambar and Pitambar, continued the struggle from their hiding for some months more and this could be possible only with the support of the civil population. However, they were eventually captured, tried and hanged while the loyalists were granted *jagirs* in recognition of their service to the British.

Unlike in Ranchi proper where the movement was dominated by rebel armed soldiers, different sections of civil population in Palamau had thrown their lot together and were led by their mature leaders, Zamindars and Jagirdars, who had taken up arms with a view to throw off the British yoke. Pitambar was in Ranchi when the movement started there and on return home, impressed by the advance of the Ramgarh Regiment through Palamau towards Rohtas, he gave a signal to the Bhogtas to rise, and thus the movement percolated to the masses. The impact of the movement in Ranchi proper remained limited to Ranchi town and the vicinity of Lohardaga, but otherwise the rest of the district remained peaceful and there was little response from the tribals. The object of the Kol rebellion (1831-32), was also to oust the British authority together with their local protege, Zamindars and intermediaries from this part of the country. Against this background the apathy of the tribals may perhaps be attributed to their lack of confidence in the leaders of the movement, who were all alien to them. It may, however, be observed that the movement was spontaneous and the leaders had little time to organise the tribal masses. Further, towards the later phase of the movement in Ranchi the insurgents had alienated the sympathy of the people due to their indiscriminate pillage of private properties and setting free criminals and unsocial elements from jails who had joined their rank and defamed the movement. Some of these elements had also become leaders and allured the sepoys with *Badshahi* pay. On their outward march the Ramgarh battalion along with these prisoners looted not only the well-to-do merchants, but also commoners.*

Agrarian unrest.—During the fifty years which elapsed since the Great Revolt of 1857, the history of the Ranchi district was one of agrarian discontent, culminating in the *Sardari Larai* and the Birsa rising. It is also the history of the spread of Christianity. During the movement of

*Letter no. 3118, dated 11th August 1858, from the Secretary to the Government of Bengal, to the Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, preserved in the State Archives, Bihar.

1857 the Christian community was broken up, but their dispersion over the district seems to have given a considerable impulse to Christianity. An impression rapidly gained ground that to become Christian was the best way of shaking off the oppression of the landlord. "The result of this", says Col. Dalton, "has been a great accession of strength to the ranks of nominal Christians. A reasonable desire to be reinstated in *bhuinhari* lands actuated some, a dishonest idea to become one of this favoured family of *bhuinhars* seized others. The next step was to profess Christianity, and coming to the mission at Ranchi they returned with their hair, puritanically, cropped and ready to assert their rights and defy their landlords." Conflicts between the Christian aboriginals and their landlords were of frequent occurrence; the Christians sought to take forcible possession of the lands, of which they considered themselves to have been dispossessed by the landlords, while the latter retaliated by bringing false charges of *dakaiti* and robbery against the tenants and subjecting them to illegal confinement and duress. Towards the end of 1858 the conflict assumed a serious aspect, and troops had to be sent from Ranchi to Gobindpur to preserve order in Basia and Sonpur. The authorities, however, realised that the only effectual method of preventing a repetition of such outbreaks was to remove the grievances that had caused them. Accordingly, in 1858, Lala Loknath Sahi, a Nagbansi Zamindar, was deputed to prepare a register of all *bhuinhari* lands. He continued to work till his death in 1862, and made enquiries in 572, and completed the register of *bhuinhari* lands in 429 villages. The work of Lala was criticised by the Mundas primarily on the ground that he was non-Munda and, therefore, perfect reliance could not be placed on the registers he prepared; he did not assign reasons for his orders; registered lands as *rajhus* on insufficient grounds; acted arbitrarily in many cases in taking lands out of *bhuinhars'* possession and making them over to Zamindars and registering them at *rajhus,* although accepting the prior right of *bhuinhars;* and did not sometimes record *bhuinhars'* claim against landlords. The Government did not accept these objections and held that the Lala did not constitute a Civil Court to adjudicate on matters of right, but was more of a Settlement Officer or an Executive Officer empowered only to hold summary enquiries into the *bhuinhari* question. The knowledge that an attempt was being made to restore them to their lands temporarily pacified the Mundas, and *parganas* Lodhma and Sonpur, where the greater part of the work was carried out, and which had previously been the most troubled, were reported to have become, since the completion of the register, the least disturbed of all the *parganas* in which such tenures existed. The decisions of the Lala were on the whole more favourable to the landlords than to the *bhuinhars,* but were to some extent a settlement of the question and placed a limit on further encroachments. When the survey was discontinued, disputes again broke out, and in 1867 a petition was presented to the Local Government, purporting to be signed by 14,000 Christians. Though this petition was grossly

exaggerated and contained many unfounded complaints against the Maharaja and even against the Commissioner, Col. Dalton, it served the purpose of impressing Government with the necessity of completing the survey begun by Lala Loknath Sahi. Accordingly, the Chota Nagpur Tenures Act (Act II B.C. of 1869) was passed. Under this Act, special Commissioners were appointed who had power to survey and demarcate the privileged lands of the tenants (*bhuinhari*) and of the landlords (*manjhihas*). The operations, which were begun on April 1, 1869, and were not completed till 31st March 1880, extended to 2,482 villages.

The operations undertaken under the Act, though successful to some extent in the areas in which they were carried out, were a mere palliation of the grievances which prevailed throughout the country. Government in their resolution on the final report of the Commissioners admitted that "the success of the Act has fallen short of the expectations generally entertained on its introduction. The operations have not removed every cause of disagreement, and disputes are still of frequent occurrence. This partial failure appears to be due to two causes; first, to the fact that *rajhas* tenures were not included in the scope of the Act, and, secondly, to the extravagant claims and expectations of a section of the *bhuinhars,* which rendered it impossible to satisfy them by any settlement which aimed at preserving the just rights of both parties". A third cause was that some landlords persuaded the *bhuinhars* to conceal their status by representing that Government intended to impose a special tax upon them. The Special Commissioner, Rakhal Das Haldar, had shown in his final report how the exclusion of *rajhas* had opened a door for further disputes involving expensive litigation in the criminal, revenue, and civil courts. The landlords, seeing that the exorbitant claims of *bhuinhars* had been disallowed, sought either to dispossess them of all lands other than the demarcated *bhuinhari* land, or to increase the rent payable for such lands. Further, small advantage was taken of the provisions of the Act permitting the commutation of praedial conditions and services for cash payment. Only 1,161 applications were received. The Mundas and headmen showed great indifference on the subject and the landlords resorted to all means in their power to render this portion of the Act nugatory; while the landlords, however, valued the services more highly than money payments, the *raiyats* also seemed to prefer giving the accustomary amount of labour to paying additional rent, specially when no remunerative employment was available. The Government, however, did not consider it necessary to undertake a thorough survey and settlement of the whole district, though this was recommended by the Commissioner. They considered that the settlement of the Chota Nagpur estate which was being undertaken would be a further step in the solution of the disputes over a large portion of the district, and that in the remaining villages, which were held by *jagirdars,* maintenance-holders, and farmers, the provisions of the Chota Nagpur Landlord and

Tenants Procedure Act of 1879, which had recently been passed, were sufficient for the protection of the *raiyats* against illegal enhancement, while securing to the *Zamindars* their fair rental. The new Act provided that the rent of *bhuinhari, khuntkatti* or *korkar* lands was not liable to enhancement, except under certain conditions and circumstances, and that the rent of other occupancy *raiyats* should not be enhanced, except on application to the Deputy Commissioner. The Act also repeated the provisions of the previous Act for the voluntary commutation of services. Like the Act of 1869, it disappointed the hopes of its framers. The landlords contrived to evade its provisions; rents were enhanced and praedial services increased frequently by the device of bringing a suit for arrears of rent at rates greatly in excess of what was actually paid, often by forcing or cheating the *raiyats* into agreeing to higher rates. The landlords, however, were not invariably successful; in many cases the *raiyats* succeeded in improving their position at the expense of the less powerful landlords. In villages where the majority of the inhabitants were Christians, *begari* (or praedial service) was not rendered, and in some cases the landlords were forcibly deprived of their *khas* lands.

Sardari Agitation.—The main grievances underlying the Sardari agitation and the agrarian discontent during the last fifteen years of the 19th century were the system of *beth begari,* or compulsory labour, the exaction of praedial conditions (*rakumats*), the illegal enhancement of rents of *rajhas* lands, and the question of the status of the Munda proprietors of *Khuntkatti* villages, which had not been included in the *bhuinhari* survey. With these very real grievances in the minds of the aboriginals, the Sardars found little difficulty in stirring up an agitation, and collecting money, ostensibly for the purpose of bringing their complaints to the notice of the authorities. They began to bombard Government with petitions in which the most extravagant claims were put forward. Their principal prayer, that of being allowed to form themselves into village communities directly under Government, was found to be unreasonable and extravagant, and the petitions were all necessarily rejected. The missionaries sought in vain to convince the Sardars of the futility of these petitions, with the result that they left the Church and set up a violent opposition to the mission work. During all the time that the earlier memorials were under discussion, the aboriginals did not do anything that was punishable under the law. By the beginning of 1887 the movement had assumed considerable dimensions. Many of the Mundas and Oraons refused to pay rent to their landlords. on the ground that they had got a decree declaring them to be the owners of the soil and only bound to pay rent direct to the "Sarkar". Meetings were held in various places with the object of collecting subscriptions and inciting the people to take possession of the *manjhihas'* lands and to dis pute the authority of the local officers, but the actual outbreaks were few in number and were easily suppressed by the civil authorities. At Tilma

the Christians opposed the cultivation of the *manjhihas'* lands, and in Tamar they seized and cultivated the *manjhihas'* land of the Rani, but the prompt arrest and imprisonment of the principals had the effect of stopping further trouble, and when the harvest of 1887 was reaped, no breaches of the peace occurred.

The Sardari agitation of 1887 was followed by disturbances in the west of the district in 1889. These were due to the spread of Christianity among the Oraons of these parts, who had hitherto been beyond the field of the work of the Lutheran and Anglican Missions. The Roman Catholic Mission had established stations at Burudi in the Khunti thana in 1874 and at Doranda in 1883, but no great progress was made till the Rev. Father Lievens began to preach among the Mundas, Oraons, and Kharias in the south-western and western parts of the district. Within three or four years over forty thousand tribals nominally joined the Church and the movement was, as before, viewed with fear and suspicion by the landlords. In the year 1889 a number of landlords sent up a petition to the Commissioner, alleging that the Roman Catholic Missionaries were unsettling the minds of their *raiyats* and converting them by thousands to Christianity. They complained that the Jesuits held out hopes to the aboriginals which were incapable of fulfilment and thereby induced them to join the Church; though this complaint was exaggerated, there is no doubt that the sympathy with which the missionaries listened to the complaints of the aboriginals about the burden of their praedial services, encouraged them to believe that the only way of escaping from oppression was to become a convert. The claim of the landlords to exact unlimited services from the *raiyats* was preposterous, and the missionaries advised the *raiyats* only to render those services which had received the sanction of custom. The immediate result of such advice was that a spirit of resistance filled both Christian and non-Christian *raiyats.* The landlords refused to abate their demands, and the *raiyats* refused to pay their ordinary rent or render their customary services. The disturbances were not very serious; and the officials, though apprehensive of disturbances on a large scale, had little difficulty in maintaining the peace of the district as a whole. The Christians in some villages tried to coerce their unconverted brethren into accepting the new religion, and forcibly cut off their top knots; in other villages they forcibly cut and carried off the crops from the *manjhihas'* lands. In 1890 the Lieutenant Governor, Sir Stewart Bayley, visited Ranchi and held a Conference, at which several missionaries, representative landlords, and officials were present and it was generally agreed that a wholesale commutation of services and praedial dues was the only true solution of the problem of agrarian discontent, but this measure was not undertaken. A proclamation issued by Grimley, the Commissioner, with the authority of Government, prescribed a scale of service renderable for each holding, according to the custom of the district. The total amount of labour

amounted to fourteen days in the year. These orders were in no way binding on the landlords or the tenants, and, though partially successful, the effect was transient as a solution of the problem. During the next four or five years, while Government was engaged in considering the question of the amendment of the Tenancy Act, the country was comparatively free from disturbances, but the Sardars still continued to collect subscriptions, in some cases extorting them by threats or violence, and between the years 1893 and 1895 several Sardars were prosecuted on charges of extortion and assault. Their operations extended throughout the whole of the Munda country and the northern portion of the Porahat estate of Singhbhum. The total collections are estimated to have amounted to over a lakh of rupees, the greater portion of which was paid over to certain lawyers of Calcutta for drafting a memorial to British Parliament.

Political Revivalism.—One phase of the Sardar Movement was political revivalism, i.e., restoration of freedom tribal people had enjoyed before the imposition of the feudal order on them. Initially it aimed to rid the country of the Zamindars and intermediaries, who had ousted the Mundas from their lands and virtually reduced them to serfdom.

A petition, dated 25th March 1879, signed by about 1,400 Mundas was filed before the Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, alleging that the Chota Nagpur Raj had not only usurped their country but was at the point of dispossessing them even of *bhuinhari* lands. It asked that the Mundas be relieved of all connections with their landlord, the Raja of Chota Nagpur and his tenure-holders. On enquiry, however, it was found that the memorial had been prepared by one or two agitators with the help of some local lawyers. In 1881, a party calling themselves the children of 'Mael' under one 'John the Baptist' forcibly established themselves and set up a *Raj* at Doisa, a former seat of the Raja of Chota Nagpur.* Among the Oraon Sardars, Masih Das of Baghi styled himself Raja of Chota Nagpur while from amongst the Mundas one Man Masih also declared himself as Raja. Bara Lal of Palkot, a scion of the ruling Nagbansi family, was stopped by a mob of Christians claiming for Raj for themselves. The party also sent a threatening "order" to the Munsif of Lohardaga. The Deputy Commissioner being apprehensive that this movement might spread among the excitable aboriginals, prosecuted the leaders and put them in jail.

* Up to about middle of the 19th century, the Chota Nagpur Chief was almost invariably referred to in official correspondence as Raja. It appears, however, that he was locally known as Maharaja; and, in 1872, the Government of India formally recognized the title of Maharaja as hereditary in the family. [*See*, Foreign Department no. 2892-P., dated the 23rd December 1872. Also, J. Reid: *Final Report on the Survey and Settlement Operations in the district of Ranch* (1902—1910), para. 84, pp. 86-87].

The agitators formulated a charter of Independence and their leaders filed a petition, dated 10th March 1886, before the Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, asserting that their forefathers had come to Chota Nagpur in very ancient times and cleared the jungles to make room for habitation and agriculture; that they never paid any rent to any Raja or Zamindar; that they would pay toll (or revenue) to the British Government, but wished to be free from the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur.

In November, 1889, a petition from certain Zamindars alleged that in uprising of Panari, Kasil, Nawagarh, Barwe, Ardhar and Karambe, a large number of Kol Christians were moving from village to village, converting people to Christianity by cutting their hair on threat of damaging their crops. The Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi, received a report, dated 10th November 1889, from the Head Constable of Kurdeg outpost saying that a mob of 2,500 Roman Catholics had rescued four persons from the custody of the police as the latter could not oblige them by removing the handcuffs of the accused.

On not getting support in their agitation from the G. E. L. Mission the Sardars had turned against their parent church. In a memorial, dated 21st October 1891, they called upon the G. E. L. Mission to refrain from interfering, in any way, with their religion, social and intellectual development and property rights, as it had done for about the last 15 years or so to the detriment of the aboriginals. Next the Sardars adopted violent means and planned an uprising on 17th September, 1891 against the *Thikadars* and missionaries, but it did not materialise on account of the internal differences among the Sardars. By 1892, their break with the Roman Catholic Church was also complete. They conceived of having an independent church as a corollary to their political revivalism, and failing this to revert to their old faith. The Oraon Sardars also set up their independent Church called *Jhandia* Mission independent of the foreign mission. They withdrew their children from the schools run by foreign missionaries and began to celebrate rites and festivities separately.

Rise of Birsa.—In 1895 the ferment in the Munda country again broke out, when a leader was found in the person of Birsa, a young Munda of about 20 of village Chalkad in Tamar thana. Under his leadership the revivalistic movement assumed a religious character. This may perhaps be attributed to the influence of Swansi Anand Panre, well-versed in Vaishnavism and Hindu epic lores and another Vaishnava monk on Birsa, who together with his followers renounced Christianity, took sacred thread, put on sandal paste mark on forehead, worshipped *Tulsi* plant, prohibited cow-slaughter, read Hindu scriptures and emphasised on austerity, purity and piety. He asked Mundas to give up worshipping and sacrificing to a number of *bongas* or subordinate deities and worship only one God (not Singbonga).

Birsa claimed that he had been blessed with divine revelation to get back for his people their lost kingdom and declared himself as a prophet. He advised his followers to adopt a religious approach to their struggle to recover their kingdom; but under the influence of the Sardars and the opposition of majority of the people to peaceful method of struggle, he approved of a violent strategy sponsored by the Sardars to gain independence for their country. He asked his people to defy the authorities, informing them that the *raj* of the Maharani (Queen Victoria) was over and that the Munda *raj* had commenced. He issued an injunction to the *raiyats* that they were to pay no rents in future, but hold their lands rent-free. These proceedings naturally alarmed the British Government. It was rumoured that on a certain day all the non-believers would be massacred. On 16th August 1895, Head Constable of Tamar who had been to Chalkad to arrest Birsa, was insulted and expelled from the village by a crowd. Birsa was, however, arrested in the night of 24th August while asleep in his house at Chalkad. He and fifteen of his followers were tried on a charge of circulating false statement and rumour with intent to cause mutiny or offence against the public peace and convicted under section 505 of the Indian Penal Code and sentenced to two years' rigorous imprisonment.

On release from jail Birsa soon reorganised the movement. In accordance with a plan, he with his party visited Chutia on 28th January 1898 to collect the record-of-rights and re-establish racial link with the temple there, which, he claimed, belonged to the Kols in ancient times. It was alleged that the temple was desecrated by the Birsaits and the images installed therein were thrown out. Some of his followers were arrested on the spot, but Birsa himself went underground for a period of two years. He, however, managed to visit Jagarnathpur temple where, it is said, he was blessed by the ancestors of the race, and also Nagpheni and such other places of symbolic importance. Secret meetings were held to prepare the people for uprising against the authorities and revolutionary rituals of shooting arrows into the effigy of Queen Victoria and killing enemies were also widely practised. Towards the end of 1899, Birsa reappeared and he and his chief followers began to tour round the country and stir up the people against the landlords and the British power. Indeed the mood of the people became very violent.

The first phase of the movement started on the Christmas Day, 1899, and was directed against the Christians who were to be terrorised to join hands with their rebel kinsmen. There was widespread lawlessness in various places in thanas Khunti, Tamar, Basia and Ranchi, resulting in 8 murders, 32 cases of assault and 89 cases of arson. The rebels attacked the Anglican Missionary at Murhu and the Roman Catholics at Sarwada. By 5th January, the objective of the first phase having almost been

achieved, the Birsaits declared that their real enemies were the *Saheb Log* and the Government and that one of the Munda origin, whether Christian or not, would go harmless.

There was a general rising in the Munda country on 5th January. Two constables were hacked to pieces by Gaya Munda and his men at Etkedih on 6th January. On 7th January a Birsait crowd attacked the Khunti police-station, burnt a part of its building, brutally killed a constable and set fire to a few straw houses of the local *Banias*. The Commissioner, Forbes, and the Deputy Commissioner, Streatfield, hastened to Khunti with 150 men of the local infantry stationed at Doranda and on 9th January encountered the main body of the Birsaits at Sail Rakab (Dumri hill) and on refusal by the Birsaits to surrender, stormed the hill, killing 10 Mundas and wounding 7 others. This incident broke the backbone of the movement. On 3rd February, Birsa himself was arrested in Singhbhum and lodged in the Ranchi Jail and placed on trial with his chief followers numbering 482. Birsa died of cholera in Ranchi Jail during the course of trial on 9th June 1900. 98 Birsaits were convicted, including three sentenced to death and 44 to transportation for life. Gaya's wife, Manki, was also sentenced to two years' rigorous imprisonment for taking an active part in the assault on the Deputy Commissioner. The home press took up the cause of the Birsaits and Surendra Nath Banerjee, a powerful nationalist leader of those days, supported their cause in the columns of the 'Bengali', then a leading paper of Calcutta.

The uprising of 1899-1900 was motivated by Mundas' urge to establish their own kingdom under the leadership of Birsa to the exclusion of all the enemies of their race, including not only the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur and his tenure and under-tenure holders, but also the foreign church and the British Raj. The religion of the Birsait Raj was to be one as profounded by Birsa. Birsa wielded extraordinary influence over the aborigines and, if there were no British Government to block his way at the time, he would perhaps have succeeded in establishing his religious order, which in due course, might have embraced the whole aboriginal population of Chota Nagpur. Though basically revivalistic, the movement was also reformist in nature inasmuch as it drew upon Hindu and Christian reformist elements to strengthen the racial order. But after Birsa's death his religious order broke down. Now the Birsaits are only a minority religious group spread over about 100 villages of Porhat (Singhbhum), Ranchi district and part of Orissa. They are divided into Thursday, Sunday and Wednesday schools, their followers taking the respective day off. The Thursday school of the Birsaits has been mixed up with Tana Bhagats in Karra and Torpa thanas. The Sunday school is the liberal and the Thursday relatively puritan. The Wednesday school follows the two major schools according to its proximity. Prayers as the means of salvation are common to all schools. The Birsaits are now a closed and dwindling community.

Agrarian Reforms.—The Birsa insurrection, following the Sardari agitation impressed upon Government the necessity for removing once and for all the grievances which had been the cause of all the agrarian discontent in the district. Before the Birsa outbreak, a fresh attempt had been made to remove the grievances about *rukumats* and *begari* by passing the Commutation Act of 1897. The Act reproduced the provisions of Act I of 1879, under which the courts had power to commute praedial conditions and services into cash payments, on the application of one of the parties, and power was also taken in it by the local Government to order a compulsory commutation when it was considered expedient to do so. But this Act, like its predecessors, disappointed the expectations of its framers. No commutation was ever ordered by Government, and, though a number of applications for commutation were received from both landlords and *raiyats*, they amounted to a very small percentage of the whole. The *raiyats*, specially those who became nominal Christians, preferred to cease to render services rather than enter upon expensive litigation, which usually resulted in a substantial increase of their rent, while the landlords were unable to prove to the satisfaction of the Courts that their demands were authorised by custom and hence were reluctant to apply.

It was at last recognised that the preparation of a complete record-of-rights for the whole district, and particularly for the Munda country, was absolutely necessary, and also that the compulsory abolition of the *beth begari* system must be taken in hand. Accordingly, it was decided, in 1901, to effect a survey and settlement of the Munda country. The work was taken up in 1902, and, after the Munda country had been dealt with, the operations were extended to the rest of the district. All praedial services were commuted throughout the district, and with them the praedial conditions (*abwabs* and *rukumats*) which were a secondary cause of dispute; and thus both questions were finally set at rest. The law relating to landlords and tenants was amended and improved in the light of the experiences gained in the course of the Settlement operations by Act V of 1903, which dealt principally with the *Mundari khuntkatti* tenancies and, finally by the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act (Act VI of 1908) which rearranged and consolidated the enactments previously in force and embodied certain provisions of the Bengal Tenancy Act and some additional provisions which confirmed local customary rights and usages. Apart from the advantage resulting from the abolition of *beth begari* and *rukumats* the *raiyats* had now a final and conclusive record of their lands. their rents, and their miscellaneous rights in jungle and waste lands and there was a general consensus of opinion that the settlement records had definitely put a stop to the harassing litigation which had ruined so many landlords and tenants. Criminal cases decreased in number, for many of the criminal cases of the district were paddy theft cases and cases of trespass on land in assertion of a supposed or real right. Civil suits,

which were usually filed by parties who had failed in the criminal courts, showed a similar decrease. In the Munsif's courts at Gumla and Khunti the number of title suits fell from 137 and 244 in 1907 to 62 and 70 in 1910, respectively. Suits for arrears of rent, which formerly involved protracted disputes as to the amount of rent and *rukumats*, were now easily disposed of at a single hearing, the only question to be decided being whether the rent had been actually paid or not, and, as most of the landlords were now in the habit of granting receipts, this question was easily settled. Both landlords and tenants were on the whole, satisfied with the result of the operations, though some landlords no doubt considered that they had been deprived of their prescriptive rights while some missionaries and other friends of the *raiyats* thought that more might have been done to restore the ancient status of the cultivators. The *raiyats*, appreciating the security of the tenure took steps to improve their lands.

Administrative Reform.—Apart from the Settlement operations, other important steps were taken to improve the administration of the district. It was realised that the outlying parts of the district were so far distant from the headquarters at Ranchi that the people preferred to submit to any compromise rather than undertake the trouble and expense of making a long journey to the courts. The result was that the Zamindars and the police were omnipotent in such out-of-the-way tracts as Barwe and Biru, and deeds of lawlessness were committed which were a disgrace to the administration. The control over the police was so ineffective that they were the real rulers of the country. The Chaukidari force was equally corrupt and was responsible for many of the cases of *dakaiti*, theft, or burglary. In order to bring the administration of justice nearer to the homes of the people, the Gumla subdivision was opened in 1902, the Khunti subdivision in 1905 and the Simdega subdivision in 1915. The areas included in these subdivisions which were formerly hot beds of lawlessness came to be among the most peaceable and law-abiding parts of the province.*

Tana Bhagats.—The Tana Bhagat movement was initiated in April, 1914 by Jatra Oraon of village Chingri, close to Bishunpur thana, in the Gumla subdivision. A lad of 20, he proclaimed that *Dharmes* (God) had asked the Oraons to give up the worship of *bhuts* (spirits), to abjure animal sacrifice, abstain from taking meat and liquor and cease ploughing the fields and labouring for other castes. It is said that he taught his followers divine *mantras* for the exorcism of spirits and curing of diseases. When he was arrested with seven of his followers and sentenced to 1½ years' imprisonment, other Gurus, such as Devmania of Batkuri, continued to preach his message and are said to have gained as many as 2,60,000 adherents to their faith in the districts of Ranchi, Palamau and

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 53

Hazaribagh. Primarily a reformist movement aiming to promote simplicity and purity of life among the Oraons, it was also a protest against their oppression at the hands of the landlords and *mahajans,* which in spite of the violent crusade by Birsa had yet to abate.

The Tana Bhagats first made a symbolic break with the past by a mass exorcism (*Tana*) of *bhuts* from the Oraon country and abandoning drinking, dancing, hunting and meat-eating which people had done since time immemorial. They replaced the old order by adopting vegetarian diet, ritual bath and sacred thread in emulation of their Hindu landlords. Further, they decided to worship God alone and set Thursday aside for congregational prayer and gatherings in imitation of Christian converts.

In its early political phase the movement manifested itself in protest against the local Zamindars as well as the British power. The Bhagats stopped cultivation of their lands and freed or sold their cattle. They started a No-Rent Campaign declaring that the land, originally reclaimed by their forefathers, was theirs. They also stopped payment of Chawkidari tax. The Government allowed their lands to be sold in auction for arrears of rent.

In the early twenties, they came under the influence of Mahatma Gandhi and joined his Satyagrah programme and courted arrest. They took to Khadi, donned Gandhi caps, and displayed the Congress tri-colour in their courtyards. They stood solidly behind the freedom movement in the country sponsored and led by Mahatma Gandhi. Their movement began to be felt so strongly that the D. I.-G. of Police, Chota Nagpur wrote to the Government on 20th April, 1919 : "It is very important that Tana Bhagat movement should be stamped out..... unless the movement received a check and the followers are made to realise that their so-called leaders are not *Bhagwans* and incapable of being punished, I fear a serious spread of the movement"*. The Deputy Commissioner of Ranchi informed the Commissioner of the Chota Nagpur Division on 9th March, 1921 : "The Tana Bhagat movement continues to give trouble and there is ample evidence that the efforts of agitators to associate it with Non-Co-operation has given the movement new life†". The Tana Bhagats attended the Gaya Session of Indian National Congress in 1922. They courted arrest during the *Satyagrah* and formed the backbone of National Freedom Movement in the Ranchi district throughout.

At present the Tana Bhagats count some 10,000 souls in this district. They are divided into a number of sects which ordinarily do not interdine.

* K. K. Datta : *Freedom Movement in Bihar*, Vol. I, 1957, p. 338.
† *Ibid.*

Birsaits and Tana Bhagats.—There is much resemblance between the two movements, one led by Birsa Munda and the other by Jatra Oraon. Both drew inspiration from the highest Hindu philosophy, eulogising the worship of one Supreme Being. They were reformist in character and prescribed a simple and puritanic way of life for their people. They had a common objective in the attainment of freedom for their country, not only from the local landlords, but also from the foreign Church and the British power. But while the Birsa Movement being ahead of time, remained an isolated local event for the Munda Community alone, the Tana Bhagat movement got itself integrated to the freedom movement of India. The Birsa movement adopted a violent approach to its political objectives while the Tana Bhagats followed the Gandhian way of *Satyagrah* and *Ahimsa* and kept their movement non-violent throughout. The Birsa movement was short-lived as it could not match the mighty power of the British, but the Tana Bhagat movement sustained itself throughout the struggle for country's independence and saw the fulfilment of its aspiration in national freedom.

National Freedom Movement.

Revolutionary Nationalism.—On account of its geographical position and easy communications with Calcutta through Manbhum, Ranchi naturally received some impact of the political movements taking place in Bengal. Though there were no visible impacts on this district of the agitation centring round the partition of Bengal in 1905 by Lord Curzon and subsequent Swadeshi Movement, the import of the Revolutionary Nationalism of Bengal appears to have permeated into Ranchi through the Bengali visitors to this town. Under the guidance of Ganesh Chandra Ghose Ranchi became an important centre of work for the followers of the Revolutionary Party. A section of an armed battalion, consisting of Kanaujiya Brahmans, stationed at Ranchi had sympathy for this party.*

Gandhi-Gait Parleys.—Ranchi was venue of a meeting between Mahatma Gandhi and Sir Edward Albert Gait, Lieut. Governor of Bihar and Orissa, on 4th June and again on 22nd September, 1917 in context of the Champaran indigo planters' repressive measures against the *raiyats* of that district.† Mahatma Gandhi had been known as a fighter for the rights of his countrymen in South Africa as also in India and his presence at Ranchi inspired some of the local gentry to the cause of national freedom.

Khilafat Movement.—On the conclusion of the First World War (1914—18), peace celebrations were sponsored by Government. However, people with nationalist sentiments not only abstained from these celebrations but also organised agitation to counteract them and record their

* K. K. Datta : *Freedom Movement in Bihar*, Vol. I (1957). p. 118.
† *Ibid*, pp. 245—247 and 256.

protest against the dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire. Due to the extraordinary influence of Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, who had been interned at Ranchi during the period, these agitations were very successful.*

Non-Co-operation Movement.—In contrast to the terrorist strategy of the Revolutionary Nationalism, Mahatma Gandhi launched Non-Co-operation Movement in India in 1920,† based on non-violence, with the object of advancing the cause of India's freedom among the people and also to bring home to the British power, the desirability to grant freedom to the country. The movement in the Ranchi district followed the pattern as elsewhere in India. A District Congress Committee was formed at Ranchi in 1920.‡ A large number of students from Ranchi attended the conference of Bihar students held at Daltonganj on 10th October, 1920 under the Presidentship of Rev. C. F. Andrews and in accordance with the resolution adopted at the conference, local students started participating in the Non-Co-operation Movement, boycotting their schools and colleges. Prominent among the Congress workers of those days were Gulab Tewari (formerly Typist in the Ranchi District Board), Usman (Head Maulvi in Anjuman Islamia Madarsa and a follower of Maulana Abul Kalam Azad), Ramtahal Brahmachari, Ramchandra Prasad and Nagarmal. Swami Viswanand, a labour leader of the time occasionally visited Ranchi.** On 27th-28th November, several meetings, public and secret, were held at various places, including Lohardaga and Doranda. On 31st January, Gulab Tewari addressed a meeting of Oraons and on 1st February Maulvi Usman addressed a meeting of Oraons, Mundas, Bhuinas, Ghasis as also barbers, *chamars* and other non-aboriginal classes. From 1st February to 13th February meetings consisting mostly of aboriginals were held at Ranchi town, Senha (P.-S. Lohardaga), Jamchua-Madhukan (Ranchi Sadar), Itki, Ghaghra, Ormanjhi, Kokar, Tamar, Gumla, Bundu, Doranda, Kadkum, Koro and Sousopa.§ These meetings carried the message of Mahatma Gandhi to the Adivasis to whom Charkha, i.e., the symbol of Swaraj was familiar. On 16th March 1921, there was a complete *hartal* at Ranchi as a protest against the settlement of excise shops.§§

* The Non-Co-operation and Khilafat Movements in Bihar and Orissa, p. 4.
Also *See*, K. K. Datta: Freedom Movement in Bihar, Vol. I, 1957, p. 298.

† *Ibid*, p. 303.

‡ P. N. Ojha: Pictorial Souvenir, 1964, p. 42.

** Non-Co-operation and Khilafat Movements in Bihar and Orissa, (1925), pp. 27-28.

§ Report, dated 3rd February 1921, from the Superintendent of Police, Ranchi, to the Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi. *See*, Freedom Movement in Bihar, Vol. I, 1957, p. 332.

§§ Letter, dated 19th March 1921, from Whitty, Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi, to F. F. Lyall, Commissioner of Chota Nagpur Division. Also *see*, Freedom Movement in Bihar, Vol. I, 1957, p. 338.

The movement caught the imagination of the people particularly the Tana Bhagats and a large number of them attended the Gaya Session of the Congress in December, 1922 which was presided over by Deshabandhu Chittaranjan Das. These Tana Bhagats returned home deeply impressed with the message of Freedom Movement. Bare-footed they used to trek over long distances with Congress flags in their hands and carry its message to the masses in the interior. They attended the meetings organised by Non-Co-operation workers.*

On 5th October 1926, a Khadi exhibition was opened at Ranchi in presence of Shri Rajendra Prasad in the local Arya Samaj Hall. Some Tana Bhagats also attended it.† This was part of the constructive programme launched by Mahatma Gandhi after he had suspended the Non-Co-operation Movement in 1922.‡ A *Charkha* demonstration was also organised in front of the Durga Mandap to promote the Khadi work. The Simon Commission was boycotted in 1927.

The Independence Day was observed on 26th January, 1930, with due solemnity. A large procession including many Tana Bhagats and the students of local institutions hoisted the National flags on several public buildings**. A meeting was held at Silli on 28th January 1930. The local leaders addressed several meetings in the district during February and March, 1930, and exhorted the people including Tana Bhagats to fully prepare for the impending Civil Disobedience Movement. March 30 was observed as a *Political Sufferers' day*. Some Santals from Ramgarh also attended this meeting.

On 4th April 1930, Tarun Sangh (Youth League) of Ranchi organised a meeting in the local municipal park. It was attended by a large number of students from different educational institutions. The leaders appealed to them to join the movement.§ On 4th February 1930 a national flag was hoisted in the kutchery compound of Gumla where sports had been organised by the local people. In the evening the Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi, with the help of police removed the flag and set fire to it in the open field. As a protest many members of the Sports Union left the field immediately.

Salt Satyagraha which was launched on the behest of Mahatma Gandhi, received great response. Packets of contraband salt were sold all over the district at meetings organised for the purpose. For picketting

* Letter, dated 15th April 1921, from the Commissioner, Chota Nagpur Division, to the Chief Secretary, Government of Bihar and Orissa.

† Report of the Superintendent of Police, Ranchi, dated 8th October 1926.

‡ Consequent on the murders of Police officers of Chauri-Chaura (Gorakhpur).

** K. K. Datta: *History of the Freedom Movement in Bihar*, Vol. II, p. 65.

§ *Ibid*, pp. 66-67

the liquor shops at Ranchi prominent local leaders were arrested during the weeks ending June and July, 1930, and they were put on trial and convicted to various terms of imprisonment.

As a counterpoise to the activities of the Congress and the Kisan Sabha* and to forestall their success in future elections the leading landlords of Bihar under the inspiration of Government held a meeting at Ranchi in the month of September, 1932 and formed a United Political party with the objective of Dominion Status for the country through constitutional means. This move, however, did not succeed.

In connection with the Harijan Uplift Movement Mahatma Gandhi spent four days at Ranchi at the end of April, 1934. On 2nd-3rd May 1934, he discussed the question of entry into the Legislatures under the anticipated new Constitution and the suspension of the Civil Disobedience Movement with the local Congress leaders. The All-India Congress Committee accepted his recommendation in regard to the suspension of Civil Disobedience Movement and entry into the Council at a meeting held at Patna on 18th-19th May 1934. In pursuance of the Government of India Act, 1935, elections to the Legislative Assembly in Bihar were held during 22nd–27th January 1937. The Congress achieved sweeping victory at the poll. Shri Shrikrishna Sinha, leader of the Congress Party, was invited by the Governor to form Government and accordingly the first Congress Ministry came into being on 20th July 1937.

In 1939, the British Government, on their entry into the Second World War, also declared war on behalf of India without consulting Congress. As a protest against this unilateral action Indian National Congress decided at a meeting held at Wardha in October, 1939 to withdraw its ministries and to concentrate on peaceful Satyagrah in non-co-operating with the war policy of the British Government. Accordingly, the Congress Ministry in Bihar resigned.

The annual session of the Congress was held at Ramgarh (Hazaribagh) in 1940 and the proximity of the venue drew a large audience from Ranchi. The Government started recruitment of nurses and men for the army in this district and due to vigorous efforts by some of the Adivasi leaders and the poor economy of the aboriginals the response was fair. Further, during the Second World War this district was turned into a camping ground for large British and allied forces to provide them training in the technique of warfare, under the cover of hills and forests of this district and in its bracing climate, while keeping them close to the eastern theatre of war. Their presence somewhat diverted the popular attention from the objective of National Freedom. But in the wake of 'Quit India' Resolution of 1942 the arrest of national leaders led to *hartals,* processions, demonstrations and also destructions

* During this period the *Kisan Sabha* movement was very strong throughout Bihar.

of lines of communications. Some students moving in a procession were arrested on 14th August near the Zila School compound and prominent local leaders were taken into police custody. The students of Nadma High School, Lohardaga,* hoisted the National flag on their school premises. Attempts were made to hoist the National flag on the police-station at Gumla. There was a *hartal* in the town and a procession was taken out. On 17th August a large procession was taken out at Ranchi and it was dispersed by police with the help of armed forces. The telephone and the telegraph lines were cut in between Tattisilwai and Namkum. On 18th August, a batch of Tana Bhagats burnt the Bishunpur police-station. There was a *hartal* at Bundu in the Khunti subdivision. On 19th August telegraph wires were cut near Ormanjhi police-station. On 22nd August the railway lines between Itki and Tangarbaisli were damaged. The total number of persons arrested in the Ranchi district up to 30th November 1942, was 199, of whom 173 were in jails and 2 were sentenced to whipping.†

Towards the end of 1943, Non-Co-operation Movement gradually abated and the Congress launched a constructive programme. The Government also relaxed their repressive measures. In May, 1944 Mahatma Gandhi was released on the grounds of health. In September, 1945 the Government removed the ban on the Congress.‡

The elections to Provincial and Central Legislatures were held from December, 1945 to March, 1946 and the Congress was returned to power by overwhelming majority and subsequently it formed a ministry in Bihar, as in other States for the second time.

With the formation of a popular ministry in the State, the old agrarian grievances of the Adivasis again came to the forefront. The Tana Bhagat Raiyats Agricultural Lands Restoration Act, 1947 and the Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950 (with subsequent amendments) provided an effective reply to them.

Social Transition.

Ancient Tribal Society.—The Mundas who first reclaimed the virgin jungle of the district had no idea of individual ownership of landed property. All land was in the joint ownership of a family, or a group of agnate families. Each family made its own clearances, which came to be called *hatu,* village, and later *khuntkatti hatu,* or village of the family of the original settlers. The original village family gradually branched off into a number of separate families belonging to the same *kili,* or sept.

* K. K. Datta: *History of the Freedom Movement in Bihar,* Vol. III, p. 74.

† R. R. Diwakar: *Bihar Through the Ages,* p. 671.

‡ *Ibid.*

Their organisation was patriarchal, the founder of the village, or the oldest representative of the founder, being the chief both in secular and religious matters. As religious head of the village community, he was known as the *Pahan* and was required to offer the public sacrifices in *sarna,* or sacred grove, to propitiate the gods and spirits of the village and so protect the community from the ravages of wild animals and secure for them satisfactory harvests. As the head in secular matters, he presided over *panchayats* for the settlement of disputes, inflicted punishment for offences against established custom, and represented the community in its dealings with outsiders. Gradually the secular and religious functions became distinct, and the next most prominent and influential man in the village became responsible for secular affairs and was known as the *Munda,* a term which eventually gave its name to the tribe. The two offices were hereditary; but neither the Munda nor the *Pahan* had any rights superior to those of the other *bhuinhars,* or descendants of the original founders of the village.

Over and above this village organisation, the *Mundas* in course of time came to have a tribal organisation. The descendants of the original settlers increased in number, the jungles and fields of the original settlement no longer afforded adequate subsistence for all, fresh hamlets were opened up and the inhabitants of the new villages, who had at the outset maintained their connection with the parent villages in respect of public worship in the *sarna* and burial-grounds and public sacrifices, and formed an independent village community. With the parent village, however, they continued to constitute, for social and political purposes, the group of allied villages, known as the *parha* or *patti* which was simply a wider brotherhood than the village, designed to afford greater protection to the communities against the aggression of other village units that surrounded them. A leader being required, the *Munda* of the parent village, or the strongest and most influential of the headmen, became the *Manki* of the *patti* and presided over the *panchayat* composed of the *Mundas* and *Pahans* from the villages which formed the group. A similar organisation was adopted by the Oraons, the head of the *parha* being known as the Raja, a title inherited by them from the days when they lived among the Hindus in Rohtas.

Election of a Feudal Chief.—According to the tradition of the two races, the aforesaid organisation was found to be defective and the *Mankis* and *Parha-Rajas* about the 6th century A.D. selected one of their numbers to be the Chief *Manki* or *Raja.* The *Manki* so selected was the *Manki* of Sutiambe, from whom is descended the present family of the Nagbansi Rajas of Chota Nagpur. The family legend of the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur agrees in many respects with the Munda and Oraon tradition. The first Raja is said to have been the son of the great snake-god, Pundarika Nag, by Parvati, the daughter of a Brahman of Banaras, and to have been born at the village of Sutiambe near Pitauria, while his

parents were on a pilgrimage to Puri. Pundarika Nag, being forced to reveal his identity to his wife, forthwith disappeared in his proper form in a pool of water, and Parvati, in great agony of mind over the result of her womanly inquisitiveness, immolated herself as a *Sati* on a funeral pyre, after giving birth to a child who was named Phani Mukut Rai. The tradition has it that the snake-god re-appeared and prophesied that the child was destined to be the Raja of the country which was to be named Nagkhand or Nagpur. The child was brought up by Madra, the *Manki* of Sutiambe, with his own son. When both the boys were about twelve years of age, Madra found the adopted son to be so much cleverer than his own son that he named him as his successor, and the other *Mankis* and *Parha-Rajas* unanimously elected Phani Mukut Rai to be their Chief.*

The Chief Manki, or Raja in whatever manner he may have been appointed, had originally exactly the same position in the group of *pattis* that the Manki had in the group of villages. By degrees he came to acquire the position of a feudal overlord. It is not difficult to picture the stages by which this position was reached. During the military expeditions, in which the Raja was the national leader, services were rendered, and contributions paid, by the Mankis; on ceremonial occasions and at festivals, presents, or *salami,* were given; gradually the contributions were increased and, instead of being given occasionally, came to be given regularly. The Rajas also became Hinduised, and formed marital alliances with families long recognised as Hindus; Rajputs and Brahmans were invited to settle in the country and to assist the Raja in his expeditions against neighbouring States or in controlling his own vassals. They were rewarded with grants of land or villages, and began to dispossess the village communities of their rights.

Rise of Feudalism.—Early in the 17th century Maharaja Durjansal was a dominant feudal overlord and under his patronage Hindus of various denominations were settled in this district. They mostly came from Bihar and the Central Provinces and were given land in lieu of their services to the Raj. The successors of the Maharaja continued this policy. Thus a group of landed aristocracy together with different systems of land tenure was strongly implanted on this district. This system of social and political hierarchy was basically inconsistent with the democratic set-up of the tribal society and undermined its very foundation. The Rajas were no longer satisfied with their old political position as *Primus inter-pares,* i.e., chief among equals, but began to assume absolute powers with display of pomp and grandeur in their courts in imitation of the Moghul

* This event is said to have taken place in Sambat 121 or 64 A.D., but this date is undoubtedly too early, and it may safely be put some five centuries later. It was certainly subsequent to the migration of the Hos into Singhbhum, as they have no such tradition among their legends.
See, M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 24.

Emperors of Delhi. In the first half of the 18th century, Raja Nagbandi Singh of Chota Nagpur Raj, who wielded great influence was the unquestioned overlord of the local Rajas.

The Moghul suzerainty over the Chief of Chota Nagpur was at best symbolical and in no way interfered with his position. But when the British came to this part of the country, they, in fact superimposed the paramountcy of the East India Company over the Maharaja. Henceforth there were four tiers in the administration : the paramount British Power at the apex; immediately below the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur as overlord of the local Rajas; then the Rajas; and ultimately the *thikadars* and intermediaries appointed by the Rajas. About that time there were six important tenure-holders under the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur, viz., Rajas of Tamar, Bundu, Rahe, Baranda, Silli and Barwe. On the death of a Raja his successor waited on the Maharaja, paid him homage and presented *nazarana,* generally of a sum of Rs. 1,000 and received title from him. On failure of a male heir to the holder, these estates reverted to the Chota Nagpur Raj.

The people, who received grants of land from the Maharaja were : (*a*) younger brothers of the Maharaja, called Lal Sahebs or Tikaits, who received grants of lands at a small rent from the Maharaja at the time of his succession to the Raj; (*b*) Baraiks, Rajputs, Rowtias, who were granted lands in lieu of military services;* and (*c*) people who came from outside and got grants of land at fixed rents or sometimes rent-free lands for religious purposes.

In addition to the above, a new class known as *thikadars* appeared on the scene. They were called *Dikkus* (or foreigners), a term denoting haughtiness, cruelty and exaction against the tribals. Raja Gobind Nath, who ascended the throne in 1822, made indiscriminate grant of land to such *thikadars* who comprised various communities such as, Mohammedans, Sikhs, etc., in lieu of cash or costly articles. These *thikadars* were not conversant with the rights and privileges of the original tillers of the soil. Their sole object was to make the maximum fortune in the shortest possible time and they showed scant regard for the local people and their customs. As already discussed, this social imbalance led to the struggle between the tribals and outsiders, centring round agrarian right for over a century. The alien landlords who loaned money to the local people, realized exorbitant interest from them, often up to 75 per cent per annum. Besides rent, they realized *abawabs, salamis* and other illegal gratifications. The needy Rajas and the greedy police officials virtually helped them to dominate the life of common man. They not only fleeced money from them, but also dishonoured their women folk and exacted

* Subsequently, when they were not required to render such services, they paid enhanced rent.

forced labour (*begari*). The tribals who were initially masters of their lands, were now reduced to the position of serfs, often to work on the very land which they had previously owned. They were denied even a bare share of crop raised by them and ultimately universal discontent and hatred towards the alien landlords found expression in the Kol Rebellion of 1832, followed by Munda risings in Tamar and Rahe, Sardari agitation under the leadership of Birsa and ultimately Tana Bhagat Movement.

Spread of Hindu Culture.—The temple of Chutia was established in 1684 and that of Lord Jagannath at Jagarnathpur, seven miles south-west of Ranchi in 1691. These two temples used to be visited by a large number of Hindu pilgrims from outside the district. Tradition has it that Lord Chaitanya passed through Chota Nagpur on his way to Puri in the 15th century. In that event, it is but natural that his sojourn should have influenced some local people. In fact, the Panch-Pargania region in the south-east of the district shows unmistakable signs of Vaishnav culture.

Social Assimilation.—Ranchi town had begun shedding its tribal character before 1857. Chutia, two miles east of Ranchi, was a part of it and had already been partially urbanized like Doranda and Ranchi itself. In 1855, Crawford, Agent to the Governor-General shifted the annual fair, which he had established in 1851 at Silli to Chutia where there were large mango groves and plentiful supply of water. The object of this fair was to establish an attractive centre for the general encouragement of trade, to improve the social relations between the different chiefs and to bring them into friendly communications with the European officers.* Some of the attractive features of this fair were, elephant, pony and push-push races; sack and three-legged races; greasy pole climb; broad jumps; cock-fighting, ram-fighting, etc. Luxury goods were also brought to this fair for sale not only from Calcutta, but from distant places like Kashmir, Lucknow, Jaipur and other important cities of India. The contemporary cattle market of this fair was estimated to be worth about Rs. 12 lakhs a year. The fair not only attracted a large concourse of Europeans and the Indians from other parts of the country, but also drew tribals from the remotest corners of the district. This fair also played a role in diverting popular attention from the prevailing tension in context of the agrarian agitation and also the effects of repression by the British administration in the wake of the great revolt of 1857. The local Zamindars looked forward to this fair as an occasion to display their pomp and grandeur in healthy rivalry with their neighbours. The fun and frolics not only amused the tribals, but also brought them closer to the outsiders. However, with the rise of permanent shops at Ranchi and elsewhere, the fair gradually declined as a meeting place for purposes

* M. G. Hallett : *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 245.

of trade, though it continued for some years as a venue of social gathering. Ultimately it was discontinued in 1874.* In 1907, the District Board held its first agricultural and horticultural exhibition on the site of the old fair and this exhibition grew yearly in popularity.† But its continuity could not be maintained. During 1952–54, Khasmahal Department organised agricultural exhibitions and sports in certain rural centres of the district, such as Nagari, Hatia, Kalimati, Rampur, Ratu, Sisai, Kuru, etc. Lohardaga was venue of inter-district athletics. The events drew large number of tribals and non-tribals and the meet contributed to social integration.

End of Feudal Era.—The Survey and Settlement Operations (1902–10) drastically moderated the despotic feudalism of the 19th century by securing the rights of *raiyats*. The spread of modern education in the district also corroded it. The Land Reforms Act, 1950 (and subsequent amendments), in fact, ended the Permanent Settlement and established direct contact between Government and tenants.

Advent of Industrial Age.—In the wake of Country's Independence, Ranchi has witnessed the arrival of modern industrial age rather too suddenly. Even in early sixties hardly any one imagined that a giant industrial complex would be set up at Hatia and a vast tract round about Ranchi would see the birth and growth of numerous modern industries. An ultra-sophisticated civilisation has superimposed itself on a primitive scene. In this context many socio-economic problems, such as, uprooting of the tribals from their homes in countryside; their employment in factories situated in towns; their habitat in urban slums; breaking up of family, etc., arise. Only time may show how tribals react to new environments.

An important trait in tribal character is that both men and women work, women being much more industrious than men, and they never seek charities from others. They work both in field and factory, being particularly good on plantations. Their Christian counterparts, by and large, are educated and incidence of female education among them is sufficiently high. The Indian Constitution has reserved their representation in legislature and public services. Since the independence of the country, they have been availing of these privileges and making their presence felt in various walks of life. The barrier of suspicion which has stood between them and the non-tribals is crumbling under the impact of modern times. Isolation is giving way and it may be visualised that the process of assimilation would make rapid strides in years to come.

* Funds in hand were diverted to other objects, i.e., the establishment of the Ranchi Industrial School.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 245.

CHAPTER III.

PEOPLE.

POPULATION.

W. W. Hunter in his Statistical Account of the Lohardaga district mentions that the first attempt at an enumeration of the people was made by Captain Depree at the time of the Topographical Survey in 1868. The population of 128 houses, selected at random, was found to be 811, average being 6.34 persons per house. The number of houses as ascertained by the survey was 139,116 and the total population of Chota Nagpur (i.e., Ranchi)@ with an area of 7,120 sq. miles, was estimated to be 881,995 persons.§ The figures disclosed an average of 123.9 persons per sq. mile. In 1869, an experimental census was conducted by the Deputy Commissioner and the population was returned at 1,396,471 persons, i.e., 16,485 less than Captain Depree's estimate. This census, however, was conducted by village chaukidars who were illiterates.*

In 1872 a proper census was made by a special salaried agency under the supervision of the regular police. The total population of that part of the Lohardaga district, which now forms the district of Ranchi was found to be 816,526†.

In 1881, the first regular simultaneous census in different provinces was carried out and the total population of the district of Ranchi was found to be 1,058,169, which showed an increase of 241,643 persons over the census of 1872. The census in 1891 recorded the population at 1,128,885 and the increase during the decade came to 70,716 persons‡.

@ Exclusive of parganas Tori and Palamau.

§ Total population of Lohardaga district was 14,12,956.

* *A Statistical Account of Bengal*, Vol. XVI. Districts of Hazaribagh & Lohardaga, pp. 246-247.

† *Report on the Census of Bengal*, 1872 by H. Beverley, p. LXXXI. This excludes the population of Baloomat thana which is now in the Palamau district but was then in the Sadar Subdivision of the Lohardaga district. M. G. Hallett, in the *District Gazetteer of Ranchi* (1917) quotes the figures 813,828 as given in Census of India, 1911, Vol. V, Part III, p. 6.

‡ *Census of India*, 1911, Vol. V, Part III, p. 6.

The following table gives details of the variations of the population in the district since 1901 till 1961*:—

Census year.	Persons.	Variation.	Net variation. 1901	Net variation. 1961	Males.	Variation.	Females.	Variation.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1901†	1,187,433	..	..	..	576,929	..	610,504	..
1911†	1,387,073	+199,640	..	..	676,526	+99,597	710,547	+100,043
1921	1,334,473	—52,600	..	..	658,591	—17,935	675,882	—34,665
1931	1,567,149	+232,676	..	..	777,063	+118,472	790,086	+114,204
1941	1,675,413	+108,264	..	..	835,689	+58,626	839,724	+49,638
1951	1,861,207	+185,764	..	..	938,255	+102,566	922,952	+83,228
1961‡	2,138,565	+277,358	+951,132		1,076,251	+137,996	1,062,314	+139,362

The analysis of above table shows that the population of the Ranchi district grew steadily between 1901 and 1961 except during the decade 1911—21 when the population recorded a substantial fall. As in other parts of Bihar the influenza epidemic of 1918-19 came at a time when the district was suffering from acute distress caused by the failure of crops, followed by an epidemic of cholera. These epidemics accelerated emigration considerably. The census of 1921 enumerated 347,688 persons born in this district as living elsewhere. It disclosed a fall of 3.8 per cent**. The net variation in population between 1901 and 1961 was +951,132, i.e., about 44.4 per cent.

Break-up of population subdivisionwise.—According to the census of 1961, the respective population of the subdivisions in this district was as follows :—

Subdivisions.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1. Sadar ..	898,911	461,396	437,515
2. Khunti ..	438,924	218,171	220,753
3. Gumla ..	484,924	239,913	245,011
4. Simdega ..	315,806	156,771	159,035

* *District Census Handbook of Ranchi* (1956), p. 8.

† According to the *District Gazetteer of Ranchi* (1917), p. 55, the population of the district was 1,187,925 in 1901 and 1,887,516 in 1911.

‡ *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-A, p. 23. Also *see*, p. 3 of 'General' Chapter on transfer of 39 villages to Singhbhum in 1954.

** *Census of India*, 1951, Vol. V, Bihar, Part I Report, p. 64.

The Sadar subdivision has shown a remarkable increase of 154,488 persons during the decade 1951—61 while the other three subdivisions, viz., Khunti, Gumla and Simdega have recorded increase of 41,369, 63,002 and 33,894 persons respectively. The increase in the Sadar subdivision is largely due to the industrialisation of the suburbs of Ranchi which has attracted a large number of immigrants, including some from abroad*.

Break-up of population revenue thanawise.—The table below will show the total population (1961†) of the revenue thanas in the Ranchi district :—

Sl. no.	Name of the revenue thana.	Total population.
	SADAR SUBDIVISION.	
1	Lohardaga	133,400
2	Kuru	38,963
3	Burmu	48,746
4	Mandar	74,556
5	Bero	56,558
6	Lapung	31,965
7	Ranchi	369,450
8	Ormanjhi	32,131
9	Silli	61,960
10	Angara	51,182
	KHUNTI SUBDIVISION.	
11	Karra	53,482
12	Torpa	71,258
13	Bundu	42,104
14	Khunti	98,687
15	Sonahatu	58,461
16	Tamar	114,932
	GUMLA SUBDIVISION.	
17	Bishunpur	27,970
18	Chainpur	75,732
19	Ghaghra	52,253
20	Sisai	84,180
21	Gumla	80,857
22	Raidih	39,754
23	Palkot	43,204
24	Basia	80,974

* *See*, Chapter on Industry.

† *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-A, pp. 110-111.

SIMDEGA SUBDIVISION.

Sl. no.	Name of the revenue thana.	Total population.
25	Bano	49,132
26	Kolebira	82,603
27	Simdega	118,992
28	Kurdeg	65,079

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION.

The volume of immigration was quite low before the industrialisation of the district which opened up avenues of employment by about 1960. The census of 1961 gives the statistics of the non-Indian Nationals as follows *:—

Total.		
Persons.	Males.	Females.
2,127	1,342	785

Nationals of countries in Asia beyond India (including U.S.S.R.)

Total persons	Males.	Females.	Afganistan.		Burma.	
			Males.	Females.	Male.	Female.
1,988	1,277	711	7	..	1	..

Ceylon.		China.	
Male.	Female.	Males.	Females.
1	..	10	5

Nepal.		Pakistan.	
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1,104	631	135	50

Singapore, etc.		U.S.S.R.	
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
..	..	..	..

Elsewhere.	
Males.	Females.
19	25

* *Census of India*, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-D, Table D-I. It excludes non-Indian Nationals employed in foreign embassies, missions, etc.

Nationals of countries in Europe (excluding U.S.S.R.)

Total			U.K. including N.Ireland.		Ireland.	
Persons.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Male.	Female.
124	61	63	13	37	..	..

Elsewhere.	
Males.	Females.
48	26

Nationals of countries in Africa

Nil

Nationals of countries in two Americas

Persons	Males.	Females.	Canada.		U.S.A.	
			Male.	Female.	Males.	Females.
12	3	9	..	1	2	6

Elsewhere	
Male.	Females.
1	2

Nationals of countries in Oceania

			Australia	
Persons.	Male.	Females.	Male.	Females.
3	1	2	1	2

The distribution of population on the basis of place of birth was as follows*:—

		Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5
A. Born in India	Rural	1,969,577	985,196	984,381
	Urban	154,078	83,959	70,119
	Unclassified ..	2,003	394	1,609

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-D, Table II, Place of Birth.

1	2	Persons. 3	Males. 4	Females. 5
(i) Within the State of enumeration	Rural ..	1,930,326	968,129	962,197
	Urban ..	138,160	75,215	62,945
	Unclassified ..	1,812	314	1,498
(a) Born in place of enumeration ..	Rural ..	1,398,532	880,826	517,706
	Urban ..	113,859	63,756	50,103
(b) Born elsewhere in the district of enumeration.	Rural	485,748	65,171	420,577
	Urban	11,289	4,385	6,904
	Unclassified ..	1,680	237	1,443
(c) Born in other districts of State	Rural	46,046	22,132	23,914
	Urban	13,012	7,074	5,938
	Unclassified ..	132	77	55
(ii) States in India beyond the States of enumeration.	Rural	39,251	17,067	22,184
	Urban	15,918	8,744	7,174
	Unclassified ..	191	80	111
B. Born in countries in Asia beyond India (including U.S.S.R.)	.. ..	6,836	4,239	2,597
C. Countries in Europe (excluding U.S.S.R.).	.. ..	144	85	59
D. Countries in Africa ..	..	2	1	1
E. Countries in two Americas ..	.. ..	21	7	14
F. Countries in Oceania ..	.. ..	8	4	4
G. Born at Sea	.. .. ..	..	..	..
H. Unclassifiable	.. .. ..	5,896	2,366	3,530

Distribution of Rural and Urban Population.

According to 1961 census there are 3,858 inhabited and 24 uninhabited villages and 9 towns in the district. The number of occupied residential houses was 374,185. The total rural and urban population was 1,936,087 (964,804 males and 971,283 females) and 202,478 (111,447 males and 91,031 females) respectively. The corresponding rural-urban

ratio comes to 9 : 1. There are nine towns, namely, Ranchi (122,416 persons), Doranda (17,837 persons), Lohardaga (13,203 persons), Khelari (5,779 persons), Muri (4,654 persons), Khunti (8,156 persons), Bundu (9,285 persons), Gumla (10,710 persons) and Simdega (10,438 persons)*.

The increase in urban population in 1961 census is due to a spurt of industrialisation in the district, leading to growth of new towns like Khelari, Muri, Doranda, Khunti, Gumla, and Simdega. The families of many ex-landlords moved to towns after the abolition of Zamindari. The expansion of communications developed the trade centres which in turn received more population. The block headquarters have developed into colonies while the expansion of the administrative departments in course of the Five-Year Plans has added to the population of the subdivisional and district headquarters. The highest incidence of urbanisation of Ranchi town was followed by Doranda, Lohardaga, Gumla, Simdega and Bundu†. Ranchi with suburbs has now many industries, big and small, and a large number of educational institutions. The courts and divisional and district offices of administrative departments have been expanding. The same trends are also found in respect of the subdivisional headquarters. The development of industries by the roads connecting Ranchi-Lohardaga, Ranchi-Chaibasa, Ranchi-Purulia, Ranchi-Hazaribagh and Ranchi-Bundu has naturally led to extension of the urban areas.

The rural population has also had an enormous increase. All the revenue thanas have recorded a rise.

Density of Population.

The density of population per sq. mile in the district has varied from census to census as will appear from the following table :—

Census year.	Density per sq. mile.
1881	148
1891	158
1901	166
1911	195

It generally diminishes from the north-east to the south, south-west and west, the Ranchi subdivision having 256, the Khunti subdivision 226, and the Gumla subdivision only 146 persons to the square mile‡. Except for a slight decline in 1921 census, it has shown a steady rise since 1931

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-A, pp. 57—59.

† *See*, Places of Interest.

‡ *M. G. Hallett*: *District Gazetteer of Ranchi*, (1917), p. 55.

onward. According to 1961 census the density per sq. mile in the different subdivisions was as follows*: Ranchi Sadar 436, Khunti 300, Gumla 235, Simdega 217.

The comparative density in the Ranchi district and that in the State of Bihar since 1921 is shown below†:—

	Density per sq. mile.				
	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961‡
1	2	3	4	5	6
Bihar	415	463	519	572	694
Ranchi	186	219	234	260	304

The percentage increase of population was as follows:—

	Percentage of increase.			
	1921—31	1931—41	1941—51	1951—61‡
1	2	3	4	5
Bihar	11.5	12.2	10.3	19.8
Ranchi	17.4	6.9	11.1	15.9

Displaced Persons.

The number of displaced persons in the district from 1946 to 1951 was 7,585 (3,945 males and 3,640 females), out of which 1,860 (1,070 males and 790 females) were from West Pakistan and 5,725 (2,875 males and 2,850 females) from East Pakistan.** Some of the displaced persons were rehabilitated in business, particularly in cloth trades. Loans ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 5,000 were given to displaced families. Bengali sweet-meat shops and Punjabi non-vegetarian hotels run by erstwhile refugees are now very popular in Ranchi.

* *Census of India*, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-A (1963), pp. 57—59.

† *Census of India*, 1951, Vol. V, Bihar, Part I—Report (1956), p. IV of the Subsidiary Tables.

‡ *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Part II-A (1963), pp. 18-19.

** *Census of India*, 1951, Vol. V, Bihar, Part II-A, pp. 388-89.

Language.

The language of the settled Aryans is a corrupt form of the Bhojpuri dialect which has undergone modifications partly by the influence of the Magahi dialect spoken on three sides, and of the Chhatisgarhi spoken to its west, and partly owing to the influx of words into its vocabulary which belong to the languages of the non-Aryan population. The dialect is generally known as Nagpuria or Eastern Magahi*.

On the east of the district, in the sub-plateau area of the Five Parganas, the dialect is not Nagpuria but a form of Magahi, known as *Panch Pargania*.

In the south-east corner of the district a colony of Jains speaks a variety of western Bengali known as *Saraki*.

In the north of the district the immigrants from Hazaribagh and Gaya still speak pure Magahi, the dialect of their original homes. *Sadan* or *Sadri* is a mixture of various dialects, Magahi being most dominant and is a *lingua franca* of the masses all over the district.

The languages of the aboriginal tribes of the district may be divided into two groups, namely, those which belong to the Munda family of languages and those which belong to the Dravidian family. Prof. Max-Muller was the first to distinguish between these two families and designate the languages spoken by the Mundas, Santals, Hos, Bhumijs, etc., as belonging to the Munda family. They have been called by other authorities Kolarian or Kharwarian. Sir George Grierson in the Linguistic Survey of India has adopted the denomination introduced by Max-Muller and places Mundari, Birhor, Turi and Asuri,† spoken in the Ranchi district in the Kharwari group of the Munda family.

Mundari.

Mundari is spoken by 94 per cent of the Munda race and also by the inferior artisan castes living in the Munda villages, such as the Pans and Lohras. The Oraons in the neighbourhood of Ranchi town also speak a form of Mundari which is known as *Horo-lia-jhagar*. According to 1961 census 436,244 persons (216,979 males and 219,265 females) were found speaking Mundari. They mainly inhabit south and south-eastern part of the district.

* Rev. E. H. Whitley: *Notes on Nagpuria Hindi*.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, (1917), pp. 59—61.

Also *see*, Rev. Ferd Hann: *Kurukh Grammar*, *Calcutta*, 1900; *Kurukh English Dictionary*, Part I, Calcutta 1903.

Birhor.

The Birhor dialect is spoken only by the Birhor tribe, which, according to the 1961 census, numbered only 947 (males 468, females 479) in this district. Traditionally they have been nomads though of late attempts have been made to rehabilitate them at Jehangutua and Beti in Bishunpur block of the Gumla subdivision.

Turi.

The Turi dialect agrees with Mundari in most essential points, though in a few characteristics it follows Santali. At the census of 1911 it was spoken by 2,300 persons.* The 1961 census did not return any person speaking this dialect.

Asuri.

Asuri, the dialect of the Asurs, was spoken by 3,167 persons at the time of 1911 census†. This dialect together with its kindred, *Agaria*, which was spoken only by 40 persons in 1911,‡ is now becoming extinct. Closely akin to Asuri is Korwa, a dialect spoken by the Korwas, who are found mostly in the west of the district. According to the census of 1911 it was spoken by 1,163 persons,** in this district. This dialect is now extinct.

Kharia.

The Kharia dialect is also included in the Munda family. It has largely been influenced by Aryan languages. The 1961 census returned its speakers at 90,668. It is spoken mainly in the western part of the Simdega subdivision.

Kurukh (Oraon).

Kurukh, the language of the Oraons, belongs to the Dravidian family which includes all the languages of Southern India. It is spoken in the central and western parts of this district. At the census of 1901, this language was found to be spoken by 315,000 persons in this district. At the census of 1911, the number rose to 358,000, the increase being probably due to the greater accuracy of the returns and not to any actual increase in the number of speakers. The Oraons, especially the men, usually know Nagpuria also, though they speak Kurukh in their own homes. The 1961 census returned 408,626 persons (198,493 males and 210,133 females) as speaking this language.§

* *Census of India*, 1911.

† *Ibid.* Vol. V, Part III (Tables), p. 60.

‡ *Ibid.*

** *Ibid*, p. 61.

§ *Ibid.* 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-C, pp. 195—197.

The following table shows the important languages and dialects spoken in this district and the number of their speakers*:—

	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1. Asuri	3,729	1,898	1,831
2. Bengali	23,429	12,525	10,904
3. Bhojpuri	2,285	1,562	723
4. Hindi	5,45,886	2,85,389	2,60,497
5. Karmali	8,114	4,220	3,894
6. Kharia	90,668	43,353	47,315
7. Kurukh/Oraon	4,08,626	1,98,493	2,10,133
8. Maithili	1,382	1,027	355
9. Marwari	2,118	1,289	829
10. Mundari	4,36,244	2,16,979	2,19,265
11. Nagpuria (Eastern Magahi)	89,011	46,212	42,799
12. Nepali	2,798	1,762	1,036
13. Oriya	6,067	3,419	2,648
14. Panch Pargania	57,946	30,029	27,917
15. Punjabi	5,086	2,836	2,250
16. Sadan/Sadri	3,54,719	1,72,813	1,81,906
17. Urdu	87,271	45,042	42,229

According to 1961 census Hindi language is spoken by about 25.53 per cent of the total population.†

SCRIPTS.

The *Deva Nagri* script is in vogue all over the district. Even in Mission schools children are taught through the medium of Sadri and script used is *Deva Nagri*.

RELIGION.

The Hindus, Christians and Muslims form the major religious communities in the district. The Sikhs, Jains and Buddhists constitute small minority. According to 1961 census the Hindus constitute 63.7 per cent. Christians 17.7, Muslims 5.8 Sikhs 0.1, Jains 0.1 and the other

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-C, pp. 195—197 (Mother Tongue Table C. V.).

† *Ibid*, Appendix III to Table C.V.

religious faiths 12.6 per cent of the population.* The number of each of these communities, in alphabetical order, is given below:—†

Buddhists.		Christians.		Hindus.	
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
296	67	1,87,194	1,91,525	6,90,165	6,72,830
Jains		Muslims.		Other Faiths.	
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1,053	961	63,529	59,279	1,32,062	1,36,621

CASTE.

The caste hierarchy is still a factor in determining the social status of a man. The Brahmans are still revered. They belong to different denominations, such as, Bengali, Oriya, Sakadvipi, Maithil, Kanyakubja, etc. It is said that the Hindu landlords and their vassals settled the Brahmans in this district for officiating as priests. The Rajputs, Vaisyas, particularly Banias, and Backward Classes are mostly immigrants to this district from Bihar and up-country; but they have been permanently settled here since long. The settlement of the Hindus in Ranchi was a potent factor in influencing the tribals to come under the fold of Hinduism. The Christian Missions also since the latter half of the nineteenth century converted a sizable tribal population into their faith.

Scheduled Castes.

The Scheduled Castes comprise of Bantar, Bauri, Bhogtas, Chamar, Chaupal, Dabgar, Dhobi, Dom, Dusadh, Ghasi, Halalkhor, Hari Kurariar, Lalbegi, Musahar, Nat, Pan, Pasi, Rajwar and Turi. The population of the Scheduled Castes according to 1961 census was 97,399 (49,284 males and 48,115 females).‡ Numerically leading members of the Scheduled Castes are noticed below.

Bhogtas.

Out of 97,237 Bhogtas, a Scheduled Caste in Bihar, 19,851 were enumerated in this district at the 1961 census.**

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-C, Table C, VII. Religion.

† *Ibid.*

‡ *Ibid.* Part V, p. 129.

** *Ibid.* Part V-A, pp. 30-31.

Risley has ranked the Bhogtas socially at par with the Bhuiyas and Kharwars, who are traditionally low in the caste-hierarchy and mentions that they worship *Masan Dak* and other inferior gods.* They now worship all the Hindu gods and goddesses, and freely participate in all Hindu *pujas* and *festivals*, e.g., *Diwali, Dasahara, Jitia, Makar-Snan.* An urge for social upgrading among them has manifested *inter alia* in the sacred thread worn by the Bhogta males. The well-to-do Bhogtas also engage Brahmans to conduct marriage ceremony.

Our investigations in villages Barabarpani, Saldega, Meremdega, Konmenyra and Jokbahar in Simdega thana reveal that an average family of Bhogtas consists of 4 to 6 members. A Bhogta family is of nuclear type. They are by and large monogamous. Re-marriage of a woman in *Sagai* form is allowed. In the event of the death of his wife, a husband may marry his wife's sister. The Bhogtas dispose of their dead by burial as well as by cremation.

The Bhogtas are mostly cultivators, but also supplement their living through work in fields and in factories. Out of their total population, 10,516 were enumerated as cultivators; 827 as agricultural labourers; 320 as workers in mines and quarries; 365 in household industries while 285 doing miscellaneous jobs.†

The incidence of education among the Bhogtas is low : Literacy without educational level—1,400 (including 106 females); Primary or Junior Basic—324 (including 18 females); and Matriculates—9.

The Bhogtas indulge in fire-walking ritual usually in the month of May. This was seen even at Tupudana within a few miles of Ranchi City.‡

Ghasis.

The Ghasis, a Scheduled Caste, are mostly found in the Sadar and Simdega subdivisions in the Ranchi district. They numbered 20,085 at 1961 census**. They are Hindus and worship the Hindu gods and observe the same festivals, e.g., *Phagua, Dasahara, Diwali,* etc.

Herbert Risley refers to the Ghasis as a Dravidian, fishing and cultivating caste of Chota Nagpur and Central India, divided into three sub-castes Sonnati, Simar-Lokha and Hari who attend as musicians at weddings and festivals.§ Apart from this they perform menial offices

* *The Tribes and Castes of Bengal, Ethnographic Glossary*, Vol. I (1891) by H. H. Risley, p. 104.

† *Census of India*, 1961, Part V-A, pp. 30-31.

‡ Source.—Investigation by Research Assistants.

** *Census of India*, 1961, Part V-A, pp. 30-31.

§ H. H. Risley: The Tribes and Castes of Bengal, Ethnographic Glossary, Vol. I, 1891, pp. 277—279.

of all kinds. Ghasi women act as midwives and nurses. Widow marriage and divorce are freely practised. The Ghasis eat beef and pork and are greatly addicted to drink*. They still retain their original occupation of fishing, cultivation and play as musicians. Their women act as *Chamain* at child-birth and cut the naval chord of the child.

The Ghasis have a nuclear type of family. They are monogamous, but polygamy is not unknown. With certain relatives, they have a restricted relationship. Marrying wife's younger sister is common. Their marriage ceremonies resemble those of the Bhuiyas. The bride is chosen by the groom's father or guardian and the Mahto's consent is asked for†.

The Ghasis bury their dead near some river. They still continue to be almost at the very lowest step of the caste-hierarchy.

Pans

The Pans, a Scheduled Caste, were 10,172 at 1961 census‡. They are found mostly in the Sadar and the Khunti subdivisions.

In feature, says Col. Dalton, these people are Aryan or Hindu rather than Kolarian or Dravidian. Their habits are all much alike, repudiating the Hindu restrictions upon food, but worshipping the Hindu gods and goddesses, and having no peculiar customs which stamp them as of the other races.**

The Pans are known by different names. In Manbhum they call themselves Baraik, the great ones, a title used by the Jadubansi Rajputs; Birjhias, Rautias, and Khandaits in western Lohardaga and Chik or Chick Baraik in Sarguja; in Singhbhum they are Sawasi or Tanti, and in western tributary states they are called Gauda, a name which suggests the possibilities of descent from the Gond, a tribe which appears to have extended further to the east and to have occupied a dominant position.§

Among the Pans the girls are married when they are of marriageable age. Child marriage is only resorted to among the well-to-do members. The widow may marry a second time, and it is deemed proper for her to marry her deceased husband's younger brother. Divorce is permitted with the sanction of the caste *panchayat*. Divorced wives are also allowed to re-marry.

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, (1917), p. 87.

† Rev. J. Hoffmann: *Encyclopaedia Mundarica*, Vol. V., p. 1433, (1950).

‡ *Census of India*, 1961, *Part* V-A, pp. 30-31, 52-53.

** *Dalton*: *Ethnology of Bengal*, p. 325.

§ H. H. Risley: *The Tribes and Castes of Bengal*, Ethnographic Glossary Vol. II, (1991), p. 157.

They worship *Paur Pahari* or *Bar Pahar* who inhabits the hills and jungles and is propitiated by the sacrifice of a he-goat in the month of *Falgun*. They also worship the snake.

An average family of the Pans consists of four members of which two or three are usually earning members. Their traditional occupation in this district is cotton weaving. But of late many have taken to agriculture as they cannot compete with cheap machine-made cotton goods. These cultivating Pans are mostly occupancy *raiyats* or small tenure-holders.

The Pans usually bury their dead.

Turis.

The Turis, a Scheduled Caste, are mostly found in the Simdega and Gumla subdivisions, numbering 9,029 according to 1961 census*. They are followers of Hinduism. They bury their dead.

They are mainly engaged in household industries, such as basket-making, cultivation and also as unskilled agricultural labourers.

The incidence of education among them is poor. According to 1961 census† only 661 persons (males 605 and females 56) were found literate, only 3 males being matriculates.

Scheduled Tribes.

The Ranchi district has the highest concentration of Scheduled Tribes in Bihar. Out of 4,204,784 tribals in Bihar 1,317,513 (650,668 males and 6,66,845 females) were found in the Ranchi district in 1961 census.‡ The break-up figures of the Scheduled Tribes in this district are as follows:—**

Name.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1. Asur	4,999	2,548	2,451
2. Baiga	238	87	151
3. Bathudi	5	4	1
4. Bedia	15,931	8,025	7,906
5. Bhumij	867	439	428

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 30-31 and 52-53.

† *Ibid*, pp. 206-207, 284.

‡ *Ibid*, Part V, p. 176.

** *Ibid*, p. 176.

Name.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
6. Binjhia	6,644	3,530	3,114
7. Birhor	947	468	479
8. Birjia	2,296	1,156	1,140
9. Chero	37	22	15
10. Chik Baraik	29,311	14,567	14,744
11. Gond	13,160	6,569	6,591
12. Gorait	3,177	1,588	1,589
13. Ho	98	86	12
14. Karmali	2,470	1,155	1,315
15. Kharia	95,956	47,587	48,369
16. Kharwar	7,639	3,864	3,775
17. Khond	15	15	..
18. Kisan	3,854	1,875	1,979
19. Kora	34	17	17
20. Korwa	1,801	899	902
21. Lohra	69,928	35,695	34,233
22. Mahli	24,359	12,483	11,876
23. Mal Pahariya	4	4	..
24. Munda	465,093	230,090	235,003
25. Oraon	564,774	276,139	288,635
26. Parhaiya	406	197	209
27. Santal	804	485	319
28. Savar	4	3	1
29. Unclassified	2,662	1,071	1,591

Asurs.

In Bihar the Asurs are confined to the districts of Ranchi and Palamau. Their population in the Ranchi district is 4,999.* They are concentrated round the Netarhat group of plateaus falling within the jurisdiction of Bishunpur, Chainpur, Ghaghra and Lohardaga police-stations and usually live on the top of the hills.

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V, p. 176.

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They consist of three sects namely, the Bir Asur, the Birjia and the Agaria. In Bihar, the Birjia has been classified as a distinct Scheduled Tribe, while the Agaria is a Scheduled Tribe in Madhya Pradesh.

There are references to the Asurs in the *Rigveda* describing them as great builders. They made fortified palaces called *Pur*.* Dr. K. K. Leuva has gone into some details to trace their origin and ramifications.† Sarat Chandra Roy in course of his field studies on the Asur of Ranchi in the twenties of this century had come across certain remains of the Asur habitations which indicated a degree of civilization. There are remains of a *garh* said to be one of an Asur Raja at village Bhelwadag, four miles south-west of Khunti. Other remains lie at villages Bihna, 6 miles from Khunti and at Lapundi, Digri, Ridari and Saridhkel in Khunti subdivision. There are remnants of ancient buildings.‡

Physically the Asurs are quite distinctive with high cheek bones and broad nose. They are stout, muscular and of medium height. The complexion of their skin is tawny brown, often a shade approaching chocolate brown. The Asur women have not that comely physique as that of a Ho or an Oraon woman.

Their houses are scattered and in the centre of the village there is an *akhara* or dancing arena. The *akhara* is also a venue for the sittings of the village council.

The Asur men ordinarily wear loin-cloth called *batoi* and use a piece of cloth as wrapper for the upper portion of the body known as *pichouri*. Now-a-days the younger generation wears *kurta* and shirt too. The women wear a long piece of cloth called *paria* round their waist. They rarely put on a blouse in their homes, but the grown-up girls wear blouses when they go to market or fair (*jatra*). They are fond of personal decoration. Bracelets, anklets, ear-rings and other cheap ornaments of silver, brass or lac and also coloured glass beads are used by the Asur girls. The poorer women wear in their ear *Tar-Saken*, i.e., a rolled bit of a palm leaf dyed red with lac and rings called *Dhela* in their toe. The women do not tattoo at all as they consider it annoying to gods.

Their usual diet consists of rice, maize, millets, vegetables and meat. Leaves of trees and plants such as *koinar, phutkal, kalia, zirhool, kachnar* and also their flowers are consumed by them. They do not milk their cows, as according to them it belongs to the calves. Rice-bear and *mahua* liquor are their important drinks. They use the root of *Ranu* or *Charpandu* (*Ruellia suffruticosa*) in brewing rice-beer.

* K. K. Leuva: *The Asur.*

† *Ibid.*

‡ D. R. Patil: *The Antiquarian Remains in Bihar.*

They believe in *Sing Bonga* and *Morang Bonga* as well as all the local *Bongas* known to the *Baigas*. Their festival is are : *Sohrai, Sarhul; Phagua, Kathdeli* and *Sarhi Kutasi*. The *Sarhi Kutasi* festival is observed with sacrifice of a chicken for the prosperity of their iron-smelting industry. The other festivals are common as with other tribals. The *Mati* and *Ojha* are also consulted in periods of unusual stress and strain.

The Asur society is divided into a number of *Killis*, or clans. A *Killi* is exogamous and totemistic. A marriage in some totemic clan is considered a sin.

After clan, the family is the most important social unit. The major types of the Asur family are nuclear, joint and extended families. Their community functions through the community *panchayat*. The office-bearers of the Asur *panchayat* are the *Mahto, Baiga, Pujar* and *Gorait*, etc. As soon as any objectionable matter arises, the *Mahto* asks the *Gorait* to inform the whole community to assemble at the village *Akhara* on a particular date and time. The decision of the *Panchayat* is honoured. The defaulter has otherwise to leave the village for ever.

The Asurs, like other tribals, follow taboos in respect of births and deaths. Till the new mother has her bath on the sixth day the family is taken to be polluted. If a previous child has died, the new baby is first put on a dung-hill and then brought to the mother by some relatives.

Sororate and *Levirate* forms of marriages are allowed. As bride price, usually a pig or cash and cloth are given. There are cases where marriages took place years after the pair had lived as man and wife and begotten children. There is no social stigma attached to it. A wife has her place in the society. Although divorce is allowed, it is not common. A re-marriage (*sagai*) is observed with the same ceremonies as the first marriage. In case of death, barrenness or desertion, the bride price is refunded. If a married woman acquires intimacy with another man, who belongs to some other clan groups, she is asked to join him after he pays compensation to the husband of the woman.

The disposal of the dead body by cremation is rare, and only resorted to in the case of old people. Some pice are put into the grave and one pice is put into the mouth of the deceased. They bury their dead with the feet to the south. The *kaman* or dinner in honour of the deceased takes place eighth day or a fortnight after the death. It may be postponed due to poverty.

Iron-smelting used to be the principal occupation of the Asurs, but now it has ceased to be so. In course of investigation only one furnace was found working at village Ramgaria in Bishunpur thana where only two families worked and earned a very meagre living.

The Asurs partially depend on forest produce for their subsistence. They collect fruits, tubers and roots. They also hunt wild animals for food. They are frequently engaged as wage labourers either in forest coupes where they find employment in the forest cutting or in earth-work. In recent years the Asurs have taken to potato cultivation which has some future. Now-a-days the Netarhat potato grown during rainy season fetches good dividends.

Bedias.

The Bedia, Bedea or Bejea, are a small Dravidian tribe,* supposed to be cousins of the Kurmis through maternal aunt. According to 1961 census their number was 15,931. Formerly, it is said, the Bedias and Kurmis inter-married, but a split occurred when it was discovered that the former ate beef, or more probably, when the latter gave up eating it. They do not claim any connection with the Mundas nor do the Mundas recognise them as cognates. Their septs are totemistic. In their marriages a barber officiates as priest. The Bedias take *Kachchi* food from Kurmis only and Khangar Mundas take similar food from them. The twelfth sept of the Santals, which is supposed to have been left behind in Champa, and has long been separated from the parent tribe, bears the name of Bedia, and it seems not improbable that the Bedias of Chota Nagpur may be actually a branch of the Santals who did not follow the main tribe in their wanderings eastward.†

Their women have the reputation of being skilful in the treatment of children's diseases and cure of nervous and rheumatic pains. They also tattoo but are not so expert in this art as the Nat women.

The Bedias now do not eat beef. They appear to have been influenced by Hinduism.

The Bedias are divided into totemistic clan groups. Each group is named after a tree or an animal and cutting or eating of that tree or animal is taboo for the group concerned. Marriage outside the community is not allowed‡. They adhere to their customary or traditional rules. They are patrilineal and patrilocal, the inheritance and succession going through the main line. They follow mainly the classificatory kinship system. The community *panchayat* consisting of the *Ohdar* (Sardar), *Mahto, Pahan* and *Gorait* (Chowkidar) decides the social offences.

Marriage is settled after the parties attain maturity. A bride can be arranged only after paying the bride price which is called *Dhalitakha*.

* H. H. Risley: *The Tribes and Castes of Bengal*, Vol. I, Calcutta, 1891, pp. 83—85.

† W. G. Archer, however, thinks that they are pre-Dravidian.

‡ *Land and People of Tribal Bihar*, 1961, p. 160.

It consists of Rs. 5 in cash, five *saris* and a basket of sweets (i.e. *Arsa* prepared from rice, oil and *gur*). The Bedias have a peculiar custom, i.e., the bride price items must be equal to the items at the *chatti* of the bride. Marriage is solemnised by putting vermilion mark on the head of the bride. The well-to-do Bedia employs Brahmans to officiate at the marriage ceremony.

The Bedias dispose of their dead by burial as well as cremation. Cremation involves more expenditure and so only the old and respected Bedias are cremated. The personal belongings of the deceased go with him and are deposited in the grave or on the funeral pyre along with the corpse. Persons dying of pox or some unnatural cause are buried. Five bones one each from the head, chest, and both knees of the dead are collected and put in the waters of a nearby river. It is the pious wish of the Bedias that these bones should be put in the waters of the river Damodar which is sacred to them; but the Damodar being far away and the family of the deceased being poor, the bones are put in the waters of some river in the neighbourhood. There are two places on the banks of the Damodar, namely, Sondhara in Mandar police-station and Kundru in Ramgarh police-station, in the Hazaribagh district, which are considered holy places for such deposit of bones. However, the well-to-do Bedias, now take the bones of their deceased to deposit them in the holy Ganga. A Brahman is engaged to conduct the death rites which last up to the 13th day from the day of death and for that the Brahman is given one *dhoti*, five seers of rice and Rs. 2.50 in cash.

The Bedias are at the cross-roads of their tribal religious creed and Hinduism. They worship their nature deities at the traditional *Sarna* and also the idol at the Hindu temple of *Bhagwati*. The important tribal festivals of the *Bedias* are, *Sohrai, Sarhul, Jitia* and *Karma*. They also observe *Dipavali, Dasahara* and *Makar-Snan*. They deny observing *Chath*.* When *Bhagwati* is worshipped, they fast on Sundays and Tuesdays which they think to be auspicious and then they offer milk and flowers and also sacrifice goat. In the *Sarna* worship fowl is sacrificed. Though they themselves drink *handia* they do not offer it on religious occasions except on the occasion of *Sarhul* in the *Sarna*.

Binjhias.

The Binjhias are found in the States of Bihar, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh. At the census of 1911 they numbered 3,825 while the census of 1961 returned them at 6,644 in this district.† They are mainly concentrated at villages Targa and Parba in Kolebira police-station under

* *Land and People of Tribal Bihar*, 1961, p. 171.

† *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, p. 176.

Jaldega block in the Simdega subdivision. The villages Hardag, about 12 miles south of Ranchi and Taimara near Bundu have also a number of them.

The Binjhias of Targa preserve a genealogy which shows that their ancestors settled there in *Samvat* 1600 (1657 A.D.), the original settler being one Jasmati Deo of *Kashyap gotra*. The Binjhias describe themselves as *Vindhyanivasi*, i.e., those having their original homes in the Vindhya valleys. They say that the name Vindhya was given to them by others when they had settled in Chota Nagpur. They claim to be Rajputs and use the title of 'Singh' or 'Pradhan'.

The arrival of Jasmati Deo in this district has a romantic background. It is said that on account of internal feuds between the ruling chief Surat Deo and his three brothers, the latter were ultimately forced to leave the valley of the Vindhyas and come to Ratanpur (now in Madhya Pradesh) where two brothers, Kalyan Rai and Gopal Rai settled, but later they fell out and ultimately Gopal Rai became the ruler of Ratanpur. A family feud caused his death through food poisoning and thereafter his followers migrated eastward in search of a new home. One party came to village Parba and the other led by Jasmati Deo arrived at village Targa then known as Basarh. Jasmati had the audience of the Raja of Chota Nagpur, who on being pleased with the martial prowess of Jasmati conferred on him the title of Baraik and also settled 12 villages with him in consideration that he would discharge the function of Ghatwal of the bordering areas of Orissa and provide police services for five days only in a year during the *Phagua* at the residence of the Raja and make an annual present to the Raja of five arches and arrows, five bundles of broom-sticks, five bamboo *pichkari*, five *pailas* of *haldi* (turmeric), *harwa* (bamboo) and *Tikur**.

They are divided into two sub-tribes, the Pahariya Binjhias and Dand Binjhias, so called from living, respectively, in the hills and the plains. The latter are divided into four exogamous septs. They observe a period of 21 days as one of impurity from the date of a birth in the family. On the 21st day from the birth, the child is named by the priest. The sacred thread ceremony of a male child is performed within 20 years of his age on which occasion he also undergoes the initiation ceremony. These two ceremonies are imperative and are generally performed on the eve of his marriage. The females also undergo initiation ceremony at the time of marriage.

The child marriage is not in vogue. The marriage is arranged by the parents of the boy through three brokers who are to pay three consecutive visits to the house of the bride with the message of marriage.

* *Land and People of Tribal Bihar*, 1961, pp. 210-211.

The sight of a jackal, a snake, an oil-pot, cry of a peacock, animal-fight, felling of trees or carrying of dry logs on shoulders are regarded as bad omen for the proposed union and the brokers are to report on them to the parties concerned lest the bride should die after marriage. When marriage negotiations are finalised, there is a *tilak* ceremony in which the parents of the bride present one *dhoti,* one silver ring and a flower garland to the bridegroom. Thereafter a date is fixed for marriage which usually takes place in the months of *Phalgun, Chaitra, Baisakh, Jeth** and *Asar.* The *saptapadi* and *sindurdan* are essential elements in a Binjhia's marriage. A bride price or dowry is not in vogue. Both parties share the cost of marriage gifts. There is no compulsion on the bride's parents to give gifts. There is no ban against polygamy, but divorce can be demanded by either party on certain recognised grounds such as desertion, sexual immorality of wife, etc. Re-marriage is prevalent. If a wife has faults her parents have to pay compensation to the husband before the divorce is allowed. The younger brother can marry the widow of his elder brother†. Otherwise she is revered like mother in the family. If a married woman has intimacy with some other person of the community not in prohibitive group, her husband is entitled to get full compensation from the other person before he divorces his wife to marry him.

The children dying before initiation and of unnatural causes are buried while others are cremated. The dead body is placed on funeral pyre with head towards the north in which direction the sacred Ganga flows and it is lit by a senior kin of the deceased. A period of mourning is observed and on the tenth day relations of the deceased get themselves shaved and *pind* is offered to him on the 11th day. Annual *sradh* is obligatory. The immersion of five bones of the deceased, collected from the funeral pyre, in the Triveni at Prayag and the Ganga at Kashi is considered meritorious. They observe *pitripaksh sradh* at Gaya and afterward a feast known as *gangbhoi* is given to the community and this is the last rite connected with the deceased.

Apart from their own community the Binjhias do not dine with others except Brahmans and Rajputs.

The goddess Vindhyavasini is regarded as the patron deity of the community while goddesses Chandi and Ganeshwari are the presiding deities of the village. Lord Jagannath is also worshipped. They employ Brahmans to worship the gods.

The Binjhias are an agricultural and land holding community. They are rather very backward in education. According to 1961 census there was only one matriculate, a male, among them. They have two

* No marriage in *Jeth* if either party be born in that month.

† *Land and People of Tribal Bihar*, 1961, p. 214.

hereditary leaders in their community *panchayat,* namely, Madi and Goddi, with their headquarters at Targa and Parba respectively. Incest, beef-eating, ill-treatment of parents and adultery are some of the offences in the exclusive jurisdiction of the *panchayat* which decides on the suitable mode of punishment in each case on its merit. The punishment usually consists of undergoing some prescribed ritual ceremony at religious places, compensation to the aggrieved party and community dinner. They have a representative assembly consisting of delegates from every household to decide questions of caste uses. The president of the *panchayat* is called *karta* and his office is hereditary. The statutory *gram panchayat* set up by Government does not interfere in the matters relating to social organisation of the Binjhias.

Birhors.

The Birhors are a jungly tribe with no fixed habitation, who roam from forest to forest living on game and monkeys and by the manufacture of drums and the sale of jungle products. They speak Mundari and the fact that their name Birhor (Bir—jungle; Hor—men in Mundari) includes the word *Horo,* which the Mundas apply exclusively to themselves, points to their being an offshoot of that tribe that has preferred a wandering life in the jungles to the settled life of a cultivator*. They are also described occasionally as choppers, i.e., makers of rope from chop.

At the census of 1911 the Birhors numbered 927 in this district†. The 1961 census returned them to be 947 (468 males and 479 females)‡. They are mostly found in the areas under the police-stations of Bishunpur, Simdega and Raidih.

The average size of a Birhor family consists of four members. The Birhors are divided into two sects, namely, the *Uthlus* (wanderers) and *Janghis* (settled). The *Uthlus* sects are mostly found in the areas of Raidih. The State Government have constructed colonies to rehabilitate the wandering Birhors at Jehangutua and Beti (both in Bishunpur police-station), Banabira in Simdega police-station and Raidih in Raidih police-station.

A Birhor settlement is known as *tanda* which consists of half a dozen or more conical shape huts. Collective hunting of monkeys is an important feature of Birhor life. The monkeys provide them meat as well as skin for drums which the Birhors manufacture. The hunting is done by putting a net about 8 to 10 feet in height and several hundred feet long. A number of these nets are placed, end to end, to form a

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 81.

† *Ibid.*

‡ *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, p. 178.

huge semi-circle. Some Birhors stand by the nets quietly and the rest go over a wider area, beating the trees and making the monkeys run towards the net. When a number of them come close to the net, the net is thrown upon them. The monkeys are trapped and beaten to death with clubs.

After child-birth a Birhor woman remains in her hut for six days and is supposed to have no food except medicinal herbs. The marriages are arranged by parents. The Birhors are exogamous.

The Birhors are totemistic. Their clans or *gotras* are as follows:—*

(1) *Andi* (wild cat), (2) *Bonga Sauri* (a kind of wild grass), (3) *Bhat* (name of a Hindu caste), (4) *Bhant* or *Bhunti* (a kite), (5) *Bhuiva* (name of a tribe), (6) *Chauti Hembrom* (Chauti—rice and Hembrom—betel palm), (7) *Gonda Garua* (a large species of vulture), (8) *Geroa* (a small bird), (9) *Gidhi* (vulture), (10) *Goar* (milkman caste), (11) *Gundri* (a kind of bird), (12) *Induar* (eel), (13) *Kauch* or *Horo* (tortoise), (14) *Keon duar* (a kind of fruit), (15) *Ludamba* (a kind of flower), (16) *Lupung* (myrobalan), (17) *Mureum* (Nilgai), (18) *Nag* (cobra), (19) *Sada* (white), (20) *Saunria* (a kind of wild grass), (21) *Sanduar* (horse), (22) *Suia* (a kind of bird), (23) *Guleria* or *Galaoria* (pellet bow), (24) *Here Hembrom* (rice husk), (25) *Jagseria Latha* (a cake made of *mahua* flowers), (26) *Khangar* (name of a Sub-tribe of the Mundas), (27) *Kharea* (name of a tribe), (28) *Khudi Hembrom* (broken grain of rice), (29) *Lundi Jal* (lakur chata), (30) *Maghaia Hembrom* (belonging to Magah or Bihar), (31) *Mahile* (name of a tribe), (32) *Modi* (name of a caste), (33) *Shaur-Jhakoa* (a composition used in whiting weapons), (34) *Singpuria* (Singhara fruit), and (35) *Toriar* (belonging to Pargana Tori).

The following clans or *gotras* are generally found in the Ranchi district :—

Andi, Bonga Sauri, Bhunti, Induar, Kauch, Ludamba and *Sanduar.*

The father of the bridegroom pays a sum of rupees three to the father of the bride as bride price. But this amount usually varies according to the financial condition of the bridegroom's family. At the census of 1911, of 927 members of the tribe in the district, five hundred were classified as Animists and the remaining 427 as Hindus. Their religion is said to be a mixture of Animism and Hinduism, and they are

* S. C. Roy: *The Birhors*, 1925.

said to seek to harmonize the two systems by assigning to *Devi* the chief place in their pantheon, and making out the animistic godlings to be her daughters and grand-daughters*. At the 1961 census 885 were described as Hindus and only 62 as following *Sarna* religion. Apparently this term has been used perhaps as a synonym of animism or tribal religion. When a Birhor slays a deer, he offers a bit of its half or skin to the gods of the forest to avert their displeasure. Apart from *Devi-Mai*, the lesser deity of the Birhor community is *Sing-bonga*. A few beast gods such as *Bagh-Bir* (tiger god), *Hundar Bir* (wolf god), *Bir-Banhey* (orang-outang god), *Bandar Bir* (monkey god) and *Hanuman Bir* (baboon god) are also propitiated. The trees, the streams and such other objects as are considered by them with the habitation of malevolent or benevolent spirits are also propitiated to give them assured game supply and keep the entire community prosperous and happy. Near every Birhor *tanda* a piece of rock or stone under some trees is fixed upon as the seat of the hunting god *Chandi* and his associates. Before undertaking a hunting expedition, the nets, sticks and axes which the hunters carry with them are arranged under the tree and the *Nava* offers sacrifices to *Chandi* to ensure success in the hunt. *Bandar Bir* and *Hanuman Bir* are believed to bring success in catching monkeys. They worship *Mahali chaali* (a female spirit), *Larankia Bhut* (fighting spirit), *Haprom* (ancestral spirit), *Manita Bhut* (acquired spirits of a family)†.

In respect of occupation the 1961 census classified the Birhors as follows:—‡

592 (277 males and 315 females) workers; 355 (191 males and 164 females) non-workers; 161 (60 males and 101 females: cultivation; 80 Birhors: agricultural labour; 3: mining, quarrying and forestry; 344 (174 males and 170 females: household industry; 4 (2 males and 2 females): other services.

As it would appear from the above data, the main occupation of the Birhors is household industry and not agriculture.

The Birhors are educationally very backward. Only two male Birhors are matriculates**. Only 45 Birhors (36 males and 9 females) are literate, but without any educational level.

Birjias.

According to 1961 census the population of Birjias in the Ranchi district is 2,296. Only one Birjia female was found in the urban area

* H. H. Risley: *Tribes and Castes of Bengal*, Vol. I, 1891.

† S. C. Roy: *The Birhors*, 1925, pp. 284—290.

‡ *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 68-69.

** *Ibid*, pp. 242-243.

while the rest in the rural areas.* Formerly the Birjias were enumerated along with the Agarias, a section of the Asurs. The Birjias are, however, a separate tribe although they have been commonly described as the Birjia Asurs. They are mostly concentrated in Bishunpur police-station.

They are a small pre-Dravidian tribe who have now abandoned their traditional occupation of iron-smelting. They were possibly associated at one time with the Agarias and Asurs, but they now disclaim any identity or connection with them.†

They speak their own dialect which is a mixture of Mundari and Sadari. There are two sections of Birjias, namely, *Senduria* and *Telia* and according to the latter they are divided into *Dudh* and *Rash* Birjias. The *Sendurias* solemnise their marriage with vermilion mark on the forehead of the bride. The *Dudh* Birjias distinguish themselves by abstaining from taking beef.

Birth brings pollution for at least 10 days. An elderly woman of the house or community attends to the mother and new baby. The new child is named after a dead ancestor.

Marriage is solemnised with vermilion as well as oil. Two friends, called *bisuts*, go on errand on behalf of the bridegroom's parents to the parents of the bride to negotiate for the marriage. If the marriage is acceptable to the bride's parents, they fix a date, generally within eight to ten days of this visit and invite the two negotiators to visit them on that date. The negotiators together with the prospective bridegroom and a few friends take rice-bear with them and go to the bride's house and the same evening in presence of the relatives and friends betrothal takes place. Next morning the bride's father fixes a date for marriage, generally one year after the betrothal. On the appointed date the negotiators, the bridegroom and his friends together with two drummers go to the bride's home with five earthen vessels full of rice-beer (*handia*), 12 *paseris* rice, 2 pigs and Rs. 6 in cash as present to the bride's father. A *sari* called *maisari* is given to the bride's mother and another to the bride herself. The negotiators then make the bride and bridegroom stand under a *marwa* in the courtyard and pour a little mustard oil over the head of the couple and comb their hair with a wooden comb. Thereafter a community dinner is given and later the married couple return home. Polygamy is permitted. Adoption is practised, but the community *panchayats* do not encourage it.‡ If a Birjia marries a girl of another tribe, he has to give a community feast.

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, Vol. IV, pp. 66 & 86.

† W. G. Archer: *Census of India*, 1941, VII-Bihar-Appendix-Caste Tables, p. 29.

‡ *Land and People of Tribal Bihar*, 1961, p. 226.

The dead are burnt. On removal of the corpse from the house, paddy is scattered in its trail to burial ground by the head male member of the family. No outsider touches the corpse.

In 1961 census, out of a total population of 2,296 in the Ranchi district, 2,033 Birjias have been described as Hindus and 236 as following *Sarna* religion and 24 *Sansari* religion. Only one Birjia was converted to Christianity.*

The deities worshipped by the Birjias are *Sing Bonga* and *Marang Buru*. They are superstitious and attribute disease and calamity to the displeasure of evil spirits and invoke the services of the *Baiga* to appease them. They use indigenous herbs as medicine. The festivals observed by the Birjias are *Sohrai, Sarhul, Phagua* and *Kathdeli.*

Their main occupation is agriculture. Out of 2,296 Birjias, 1,585 were employed on cultivation. Their traditional iron-smelting vocation drew only 80.* This is declining fast. They are badly indebted on account of heavy incidence of drink. They are also often exploited by forest contractors who usually cheat them of their wages. They are still quite primitive. The incidence of literacy is low. According to 1961 census there were 125 literates (115 males and 10 females) of whom 16 were of primary or junior basic standard and only one a matriculate.†

They have community *panchayat* consisting of the community elders under the *Baiga*. It is still active and popular among them and all disputes are settled within the community itself and no outsiders are engaged for settling the community matters. The *Mahto, Baiga, Pujar* and *Gorait* are the office-bearers of the community *panchayat*.

Chik Baraiks

According to the census of 1961, the population of the Chik Baraiks in the Ranchi district was 29,311*. They are scattered throughout the district. They claim to be Aryans and Hindus. In Risley's Tribes and Castes of Bengal, they have been shown to be a sub-caste of Pans. But apart from a common profession, namely, weaving, any further connection between them is doubtful. The Chik Baraiks are fairer and more Aryan in appearance than the Pans, who are mostly found in Munda villages, often speaking Mundari and following many of the Munda customs. They are most probably Dravidian in origin, though Colonel Dalton suggests that they are in all probability the remnants of the Aryan colonies which the Hos subjugated. This theory is doubtful, for there is little evidence to prove that there was an Aryan civilization in Chota Nagpur before the incursion of the Dravidian races, but it may

* See, *Census of India*,, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 280-281.

† *Ibid.*

be the Chik Baraiks who are considered locally to be the social superiors of the Pans are the descendants of some Aryan weaving caste who settled in Chota Nagpur at an early date*.

Both the Chik Baraiks and the Pans now claim to be Hindus. At the census of 1911, out of 20,000 Chik Baraiks and 14,000 Pans, only 3,400 and 600 respectively were classified as animists†.

In the census of 1961, the Pans (or Sawasis) were enlisted as a Scheduled Caste‡. The Tantis (or Tatwas) are a Backward Class**. Thus officially they have now been recognised as having shed all tribal character and become part of the Hindu Community. The Chik Baraiks, however, are shown as a tribe throughout the State of Bihar§.

There are certain customs common between the Chik Baraiks and the Pans, e.g., *Sindurdan,* i.e., application of vermilion mark on the forehead of a bride to solemnise marriage and also widow marriage. The caste Hindus do not accept water from either of them. The Brahmans have now volunteered to officiate at the marriage ceremonies of the Chik Baraiks, Pans, Sawasis and Tantis, but they would not accept cooked food or water from them.

The family of a Chik Baraik is nuclear in composition, consisting of husband, wife and unmarried children. As soon as children are married, they form their separate establishment. Joint family system is uncommon. They are divided among clans, such as, Tatia, Khamba, Tajna, etc. Marriage within the same *gotra* is not permissible. Sexual relationship between the boys and girls of the same clan is regarded as an offence.

A period of nine days after the birth of a child is observed as 'unclean' period. After this the father gets his head shaved and a name is given to the child.

The marriage is generally performed at bride's home under a *mandap* or canopy. It is solemnised with *Sindurdan.* Divorce is permissible to either party on recognised grounds, such as adultery, barrenness of wife or impotency of husband, etc. Polygamy is not encouraged. If a married woman has marital relationship with a man of another caste, she is ex-communicated but can be accepted back only on payment of a fine of Rs. 20 together with a community dinner. A party to adultery may be severely beaten and be liable to divorce.

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 89.

† *Ibid.*

‡ *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-A, p. 350.

** *District Census Handbook*, Ranchi, Published in 1956, p. 112.

§ *See*, Serial 10 of Scheduled Tribes, Census of India, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-A, p. 350.

The Chik Baraiks bury their dead in the *masan* with the head of the corpse towards north, as the holy river Ganga flows to the north of Chota Nagpur. A barber officiates at the burial and subsequent observances. They worship Hindu gods such as *Devi-mai, Durga* and *Shiva.* They perform ancestor worship, but no Gaya *shradh.* They celebrate a *Puja,* namely, *Bar Pahari Surjahi,* generally in the month of *Phalgun* or *Baisakh**.

The inheritance of property is patrilineal. After the father's death, it is partitioned equally among all the brothers. The daughters are not given any share in the immovable property. During his life time the father, together with all his sons, has equal share in the property.

The main occupation of the Chik Baraiks is agriculture, supplemented to some extent by weaving of cheap cotton textile. The competition from mill-made cloth has deeply affected their weaving trade and it is fast declining. Perhaps every household may have an old loom to remind one of this prosperous cottage industry in the past. Many of them work as landless agricultural labourers. Some go to the tea gardens of Assam to earn their living.

Like other tribals they drink rice-beer, but are not much given to dancing. They have no exclusive habitation and live an integrated life with other communities in the village. They speak Mundari and Sadri. Their womenfolk are fond of flowers and ornaments on festive occasions. The indebtedness is common among them. The incidence of literacy is very low. An investigation disclosed that in 1965 there was no matriculate among them. They have no *panchayat* of their own, probably because they have not much concentration in any village. Their social problems are solved by the elders of the community.

Gonds.

The Gonds are linguistically† a Dravidian tribe belonging to Madhya Pradesh. They have been declared as a Scheduled Tribe throughout Bihar.‡ They are found in the districts of Bihar bordering Madhya Pradesh, namely, Ranchi, Palamau and Singhbhum. They are mainly found in the western part of the Ranchi district with concentration in Simdega, Kolebira, Kurdeg and Thethaitangar police-stations. According to 1961 census they number 13,160.** They have a few pockets in Angara, Lohardaga and in Gumla police-stations also.

* The Bar-Pahari is a hill in the Ranchi district and is regarded as a mighty god who is propitiated with sacrifice of goats.

† Herbert Risley: *The Tribes and Castes of Bengal* (1891), Vol. I, pp. 292—294.

‡ *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-A, p. 356.

** *Ibid.*

The Gonds are divided into four sub-sects, namely, Gond, Raj Gond, Dhokhar Gond and Doroa Gond or Naik. The Raj Gonds constitute the bulk of the population. They claim precedence over other members of the tribe and have undoubtedly become more Hinduised than other co-sects. The Dhokhar Gonds are nomads. The Doroa Gonds were military adventurers and are now found in Singhbhum district only.

Their religion is a mixture of Animism and Hinduism. Risley has mentioned that they worship the gods of the Hindus with the assistance of a degraded class of Brahmans, who also officiate at their marriage. Those Gonds who have embraced Hinduism, also worship the deities of the non-Hinduised gods, namely, Bar Deo and Dulha Deo.* They have a whole set of gods and goddesses called *Pen*. They observe both tribal and Hindu festivals. They offer sacrifices in the village *Sarna*.

Like the caste Hindus the Gonds observe *Fagua, Chait Ram Navmi, Janmashtami, Jitiya* and *Durga Puja*. Along with the Scheduled Castes they also worship *Goreya* and *Bandi*. They are devotees of Lord Shiva and have a peculiar dance known as the *Gonr Nach* and they believe that they have got their musical instrument *Damru* from Lord Shiva himself. The Gonds are famous for their song and dance, but the female folk do not join the dance.

The women are to be segregated during the period of menstruation. It is believed that the violation of this causes failure of crops. The pregnant women have to observe various taboos. Birth brings impurity for twenty-one to thirty days. During this period a mother is not allowed to cook food or attend household affairs.

The rule of exogamy is rigidly enforced and a man must not marry a girl belonging to his own clan, nor should she be one of the groups which worship the same gods. For instance the Gonds belonging to *Besra gotra* will not marry a girl of the same *gotra*. Cross-cousin marriage, i.e., union between a brother's daughter and sister's son or between a brother's son and sister's daughter is common. In fact cross-cousin marriage is preferred. When a Gond wishes to marry off his children he looks first to his sister's children upon whom he has the first claim. When he takes a sister's daughter as a wife to his son, such an alliance is known as *Dudhlautana*, i.e., return of the milk. Such marriages are common because it is considered a sort of repayment of the obligation of the first generation, when one family gets the daughter of the other family as wife to some male member. In the next generation the family which gives the daughter receives the daughter of other family as a wife to a son.

* *The Tribes and Castes of Bengal, (Supra).*

The bride price is called *Dangani*, but whatever is given to the bridegroom is called *Dahej*. The bride price is avoided in cross-cousin marriage. The minimum bride price in cash is rupees three and maximum rupees nine. Besides the cash, a quantity of rice varying from 1½ maunds to 8 maunds is also given to the father of the bride. The rice is given only in the case where the father of the bride returns at least rupees two in *Dangani* to the father of the bridegroom. If the father of the bride is extremely poor, the bridegroom's party has to meet the entire expenses of the feast.

Risley's observation regarding marriage of the Gonds still holds good. The Gonds have both infant and adult marriage. ***Sindurdan*** and the first marriage of a bride to a mango tree form the distinctive features of the rituals. The marriage takes place in the months of *Chait, Baisakh, Jeth, Magh* and *Fagun*. At the time of marriage the boy applies vermilion on the forehead of the girl once by the little finger of his right hand and the girl repeats the same on the forehead of the bridegroom.

Divorce is allowed on certain recognised grounds, e.g., adultery, laziness in household duties, barrenness, and quarrelsome nature. Either party may avail of it any time for any of the aforesaid reasons.

The dead are either cremated or buried though cremation is more common. The dead body is disposed of at the earliest. Formerly, a stone pillar was erected in memorial of the deceased, but this is not in vogue now. Mourning is observed for three days. A community feast is given on the third day of the death when offerings are made to the deceased. After this the impurity ends.

The Gonds living on hills practise shifting cultivation called *Dippa*. They supplement their diet with fruits, flowers, roots, leaves and meat. Their holdings are small and not enough for their sustenance. The Gonds living on the plains are settled cultivators. But the number of owner cultivators is small. The majority of the Gonds are cultivators-*cum*-agricultural labourers. Besides cultivation, they fry grain and sell both fried grains and *sattu*. Some have migrated to the industrial belt of Birmitrapur and Rourkella in Orissa to work as industrial labourers.

The incidence of literacy among them is small. According to 1961 census there were 7 male and 3 female literates out of 91 males and 51 females in the urban areas while 825 males and 151 females out of 6,478 males and 6,540 females in the rural areas.* There was only one matriculate.

* *Census of India*, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 222-223 and 242-243.

The Gonds have their own council called the Gond *Mahasabha.* It settles all disputes connected with partition of property, cases of divorce, illicit connection and crimes against society and religion. The *Mahasabha* is convened by the President. The *Mahasabha* formulates the policy and propounds the rules of conduct for the Gond society. The verdict of the President after hearing the parties is binding. The Secretary assists the President. The members of the Gond *Mahasabha* at Simdega and those of the Gond *Mahasabha* at Raigarh in Madhya Pradesh hold joint sittings of their *Mahasabha* in case of grave offences against their society.

The village assembly is convened by the village elders to decide the social offences committed in the village. Statutory *panchayats* have been started in some of the Gond areas, but they are not so popular as the traditional village *panchayat.* The caste *panchayat* still entertains most of the cases.

Goraits.

The Goraits, a Scheduled Tribe, are mostly found in Sadar and Khunti subdivisions. They numbered 3,177 at the 1961 census.* They follow Hinduism.

Child marriage is still in vogue among them and polygamy is permitted. A widow may re-marry, but she is not obliged to marry her late hunband's younger brother. A divorce (*Chhora-Chhuri*) may be granted by the caste *panchayat* if the wife is proved to be unchaste, or if she frequently runs away to her father's home without the permission of her husband. Proceedings may also be initiated by the wife on the ground that her husband is too old for her or is an habituated drunkard. Divorced women may re-marry in *sagai* form†.

The Goraits usually bury their dead. They have not yet attained the dignity of employing Brahmans as priests. They worship *Devi-mai,* and a tribal spirit called *Purubia,* for whom a goat is sacrificed once a year. In cases of illness an exorcist (*mati-baiga*) is called to detect the demon or witch, who is giving trouble, and if he ascribes the visitation to the wrath of the tribal god, the *pahan* is sent for and a goat, pig, sheep or fowl is sacrificed to appease the evil spirit‡.

By profession they are musicians, comb-makers and cotton-carders. They also work as village watchmen and messengers. At least one family of Goraits is usually found in every village.

* *Census of India,* 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 68 & 86-87.

† Risley: *The Tribes and Castes of Bengal, Ethnographic Glossary,* Vol. I, 1891, pp. 298-299.

‡ *Ibid,* p. 299.

The incidence of literacy is poor among the Goraits. According to 1961 census only 191 persons were literate, 53 males and 4 females being matriculates.

Karmalis.

The Karmalis, a Scheduled Tribe, are found in Ormanjhi, Angara and Silli police-stations in the Ranchi district, their population being 2,470 according to 1961 census*. They follow Hindu religion. They speak Karmali dialect which is a sub-dialect of Santali and usually understand Mundari.

The Karmali youngmen are given scar marks on the left arm as a sign of their eligibility for attaining a social status, but this practice is on decline. They participate in songs and dances in the common *Akhara.* The Karmalis are divided into a number of exogamous clans or septs such as Tirkey, Samadwar, Kaithwar, etc. The clans are totemistic. They marry outside their clan or sept which are exogamous clans. Monogamy is the rule, but some are polygamous also. They are guided by good or bad omens in selection of a bride. Among good omens are a bear, a leopard, a corpse, a deer, a tiger, a pot full of water, a cow or a bullock and among evil ones a sheep, an empty pot or a jackal running across the path in front of the party, an animal being killed, sweepings of the house being thrown away and a dry branch falling from a tree. If any object of bad omen comes across their path, the journey for bride's selection is postponed but the negotiations are not abandoned. A Karmali can marry his wife's younger sister or the widow of the deceased elder brother. The practices of *sororate* and *levirate* exist among them.

Burial of the dead body is common. They perform a rite *Chai Bhitrack* when the spirits of the dead are invoked with certain ceremonials. Some of their festivals are *Sarhul, Karma, Sohrai, Nawakhani* and *Durga Puja.* The Karmalis have their own community *panchayat* to settle social matters.

In 1961 the occupational distribution of the Karmalis was as follows:—

1,451 (694 males and 757 females) were workers and 1,019 (461 males and 558 females) were non-workers. Out of 1,451 workers, 941 (429 males and 512 females) were engaged in cultivation, 253 (84 males and 169 females) in mining, quarrying, livestock and forestry, etc. The household industry, i.e., blacksmithy gave employment to 76 Karmalis (50 males and 26 females) mostly in Angara police-station, who manufactured sickle, axe, iron-head of arrows, ploughshares, etc., for local consumption. In other services

* *Census of India,* 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 68-69.

including manufacturing work 119 Karmalis were engaged.* The Karmalis are educationally backward. According to 1961 census there were 134 literates (127 males and 7 females) among them, of whom only 27 were of primary or junior basic standard and only one a matriculate†.

Kharias.

The Kharias are one of main aboriginal tribes. In the Ranchi district they are scattered in Gumla, Sisai, Palkot, Basia and Raidih police-stations of the Gumla subdivision and Simdega, Thethaitangar, Kurdeg, Bolba and Kolebira police-stations of the Simdega subdivision.

The Kharias are divided into three sections, namely, the Hill Kharias, the Dudh and the Dhelki Kharias. The Hill Kharias are mainly concentrated in the Singhbhum district. They live in villages situated on the hills or valleys surrounded by wooded hill ranges. They are a most primitive community and subsist mainly on the forest produce. The Dudh and the Dhelki Kharias have taken to cultivation and are somewhat better-off than the Hill Kharias. They do not have marital relationship with the Hill Kharias.

The 1961 census returned 95,956 Kharias in the Ranchi district. Of them 66,890 were described Christians (64,594 in rural and 2,296 in urban areas), 16,159 Hindus, 1,203 *Sansari* and 11,704 followers of the *Sarna* religion.‡

The non-Christian Kharia, men and women, take keen interest in personal decoration and ornaments, but the Kharia Bhagats discourage their women to wear ornaments except the sacred thread round their neck. They live on pure vegetarian diet while other Kharias are non-vegetarian. The Kharia Bhagats abstain from *Handia* which is an important drink of the Kharias. The impact of Hinduism on them is strong.

The Dudh Kharias consider themselves superior to Dhelki Kharias. They marry only their sons to the daughters of the Dhelki Kharias. The bride is allowed to enter her husband's house after "purification" including drinking the blood of a white cock or he-goat. When the married Dhelki Kharia girl goes to her parents' house, she has to cook her food herself and does not touch the cooked food of her parents. If she does not observe this restriction, she would not be allowed to enter her husband's home without purification.

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 68-69, 88-89.

† *Ibid*, p. 242.

‡ *Ibid*. pp. 280-281. *Sansari and Sarna* are not recognised creeds; they denote only tribalistic faith.

A distinctive difference between them is that the Dudh Kharias do not eat beef while the Dhelki Kharias do. There is also a difference in their respective tattoo mark. The Dudh Kharia women's tattoo mark is like III whereas the Dhelki Kharia's tattoo mark resembles a flower. The girls are tattooed. The Kharia boys of 10—12 years make nine spots in their arms as an emblem of the valour of their community. Their customs relating to birth, marriage and death do not differ.

Among the Kharias, clan system is strongly prevalent. The totem objects are not injured or eaten. The clan names of Dudh and Dhelki Kharias recorded by the investigator and found even today are as follows:—

Dhelki Kharias.	*Dudh Kharias.*
1. *Muru* (tortoise).	1. *Dungdung* (eel).
2. *Soren* (stone).	2. *Kulu* (tortoise).
3. *Samad* (deer).	3. *Kerketta* (quail).
4. *Barliha* (a fruit).	4. *Bilung* (salt).
5. *Charha* (a bird).	5. *Soren* (stone).
6. *Hansa* (eel).	6. *Ba* (paddy).
7. Topno (a bird).	7. *Tote* (a bird).
8. *Mail* (dirt).	8. Topo (a bird).
	9. *Kiro* (tiger).

Exogamy and totemism are the main features of the Dudh and the Dhelki Kharia clans. Marriage or sexual relations are taboo within the same clan and their disregard results in social ostracism of the offender and his family.

In the Kharia villages there are *akharas* or dancing places, *sarnas* or sacred groves and the *til jang* ground (burial place). In the *akharas* both males and females dance and sing.

The head of the village is *Pahan*. The *Pahan* is assisted by *Mahto*. If any trouble arises the decision of the *Pahan* and *Mahto* is binding on the community. In coming to a decision the *Pahan* is assisted by the village elders. The statutory *gram panchayat* has not much affected their traditional *panchayat*.

Agriculture is the main source of livelihood. Out of a total population of 95,956 Kharias, 56,416 (27,943 males and 28,473 females) were workers and 39,540 (19,644 males and 19,896 females) were non-workers. Out of 56,416 workers, 50,288 (24,418 males and 25,870 females) were engaged in cultivation, 3,428 as agricultural labourers, 890 in mining, quarrying, livestock and forestry, etc. The household industry, i.e., rope-making and mat-making, etc., gives employment to 211 Kharias and in other services including construction work 1,528 Kharias were engaged.* Spinning was the subsidiary occupation, but due to widespread introduction of mill-made cloth this industry has died out though *Charkha* may still be seen in every Kharia household.

The incidence of literacy is only about 14 per cent. According to 1961 census, 82,211 Kharias were illiterates and 13,745 literates. The educational standard was poor, as 4,267 Kharias were under the category of primary and junior basic, 322 matriculates and only four having university degree.†

Kharwars.

The Kharwars, a Scheduled Tribe, are found in Lohardaga, Bishunpur and Chainpur thanas in this district and numbered 7,369 at 1961 census. By and large they follow Hinduism.

The average size of a Kharwar family varies from 4 to 8 members. The Kharwars lead an integrated life with other tribals and non-tribals.

The Kharwar community is divided into a number of endogamous units. In Ranchi district they are divided into *Deswari, Bhogta, Raut* and *Manjhia* units. At child birth a woman is attended by a *chamain,* and the ceremonies are the same as those of other Hindus.

Polygamy has been in vogue. A widow may re-marry in the *sagai* form. About 4 maunds of rice, a goat and a *sari* are given for her. If a man and wife fail to agree, they may leave each other by mutual consent. If a woman is childless, her younger sister may marry her husband. This is called *rijbia.*‡

The dead bodies of infants are buried while those of adults are burnt. The rituals are the same as those at Hindu funerals.

The Kharwars follow the local Brahministic and also the local tribal religious ceremonies and festivals. They have both Brahman and

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 68-69 & 89.

† *Ibid*, pp. 222-223 & 242.

‡ *See. Final Report on Survey and Settlement Operations of the Palamau Government Estate*, published in 1898 by D. H. E. Sunder.

Baiga priests. Their main festivals are *Dashara, Chatha, Holi, Dipawali, Mahabiri Jhanda, Sarhul* and *Nawakhani.* They offer milk, fruits and sweets at Hindu festivals and *handia,* fowl and goat at the tribal ones.

Customs as to salutation are curious among Kharwars. Friends and relations meeting after long absence, salute each other in three separate ways, viz., *Ankwar,* which is joining hands before each other, *johar,* which is embracing each other, and *kusul mangal* which is enquiring about the welfare of each other. When a Kharwar meets an acquaintance he simply bows and touches his right leg.

The Kharwars have their community *panchayat* in which all male elders of the village participate. A number of villages are grouped in a *Chata* and its head is known as *Pradhan.* The head of the community *panchayat* at village level is known as *Mukhiya.* The *Mukhiya* must inaugurate for each village the work of sowing or reaping or of transplanting paddy seedlings. The *Baigas* are very important functionary in the community *panchayat* among the Kharwars of the Ranchi district. They combine the religious as well as secular functions. Almost all social matters are referred to community *panchayat* and its decisions are honoured.

The Kharwars are cultivators as well as part-time field labourers. Out of the total Kharwar population of 7,639, the total number of workers were 4,716 (2,477 males and 2,239 females) and non-workers 2,923 (1,387 males and 1,536 females).* The bulk of the workers were employed in cultivation.

According to 1961 census† there are only 587 persons (543 males and 44 females) literate. Of them only 62 Kharwars had primary education and only one was a matriculate.

The Kharwars eat goat's meat, fowls, eggs, fish and all edible roots. They do not eat beef. Their staple food in this district are rice, *mahua* and maize.

They speak *sadri* and have no tribal dialect of their own. Their surnames are *Singh, Sai* and *Ram.*

They joined the Kol rebellion in 1831-32. Again in the freedom struggle of 1857 they were prominent in the Palamau and Ranchi districts.

Kisans.

The Kisans, also known as Nagesar and Nagesia are a small tribe who numbered some 4,700 at the census of 1911. According to the 1961

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 68—87.

† *Ibid*. pp. 222-223 and 242.

census they were 3,854 in this district. They are found mainly on the *pats* (plateaux) and remote jungly villages. Dalton describes them as of dark complexion, short stature and very ugly features. and probably of Dravidian origin. Their sects bear totemistic names, such as are found among the Mundas and among many Dravidian tribes.*

It is said that service is extremely repugnant to them. They will attend to ploughing another's field or cutting his crops for him, but nothing beyond that.† This characteristic has acquired for them their present community name, i.e., Kisan or "*Chasa*" apparently from the Hindu population with whom they have long been in contact. It probably refers to their agricultural propensities to distinguish them from some portion of their tribe who did not cultivate‡. But they take pride to call themselves as Nagbansis. All of them were classified as Hindus in the census of 1911 and continue as such.**

The Kisans rear poultry but not pigs, though formerly they did so. They use both metal pots and pans. The male wears *dhoti* and the female *sari*. Sunder mentions that "the wives of the Nagbansi Kisans do not wear *churies* (lac bracelets) or *taraks* (earrings). They put on bits of mango leaf or plucked and twisted palm leaf on their ears. They do not tattoo themselves, but the Sinduria women do so and also wear *churies* and taraks.§" Dalton mentions that one outward difference which the Kisan tribe has carefully preserved is that while the Kol and Oraon women are marked distinctively with *godnas*, the Kisan females have no such mark. If a female of the tribe indulges in getting her tattooed, she is regarded as having degraded herself*.

The Kisans have clan groups with totemistic characteristics and each member of a clan considers himself as related to the other. Matrimonial alliance between the Kisans of Telia and Sinduria section is restricted in some quarters, but this restriction is not found among the Kisans of Kulukera or Gonmera villages in Palkot police-station. Both Sinduria and Telia sections reside in these villages and there have been marriages between the two sections of the community. The Sinduria has *Gasur, Induar, Bagh Kashyap, Nag* and *Kasi gotras*. The Sinduria solemnises

* Dalton: *Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal* (1872).

† Sunder, *D. H. E.*: *Final Report on the Survey and Settlement of the Palamau Government Estate, Palamau district, Chotanagpur, Bengal, Appendix, pp. CCXXXV, Calcutta*, 1898.

‡ Forbes: *L. R. Report on the Ryotwaree Settlement of the Government farms in Palamau, Calcutta*, p. 46.

** Beverley: *Ii, Report on the Census of Bengal, Calcutta*, 1872, p. 96.

§ *Land and People of Tribal Bihar*, p. 249.

marriage by putting vermilion mark, while the Telia through oil. The acceptance of *dalitaka* completes the marriage.* Polygamous marriage depends upon the economic condition of the person concerned. The boy's father goes to the girl's parents for marriage negotiation. The bride price varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 25. Widows are allowed to remarry. If a Kisan wife commits adultery with a Kisan, she is not excommunicated, but her seducer has to pay her husband, as a fine, all the expenses that he had incurred at his marriage and after this he has to marry the woman in the *sagai* form. If a woman has sexual relations with a man of another caste, both are turned out. Both *levirate* and *sororate* are recognised in the Kisan community. Both the parties have the right of divorce. In case a woman divorces her husband her parents have to pay back the bride price to husband. The compensation money is called *Bihur*.

Burial is common, but important persons are generally cremated. All personal belongings of the dead are deposited in the grave along with the corpse. On the tenth day after the death of a person all his relations shave and during the next two days *pithas* (cakes of grains) are given to the dead. Some employ Brahmans to conduct the *shradh* ceremony, but the majority are satisfied with a barber. A community dinner is given on the twelfth day. By and large the Kisans follow the local religious beliefs and customs. They propitiate certain malevolent and benevolent spirits which are known as different *Bongas*. They invoke the tribal festivals. Simultaneously they worship *Kali* as their village deity and also the Sun-god. Their marriage customs are substantially the same as those of the Hindus.

According to 1961 census 1,851 males and 1,973 females were Hindus, 21 males and 3 females were followers of the *sarna* and 2 males and 3 females were Christians in the district. Thus the community is almost entirely Hindu.†

The Kisans have their own strong community *panchayat*. Its sittings are called whenever a matter is reported to it. The office-bearers of the *panchayat* are *Mahat, Kahant* and the *Sardar* or *Kotwar*. The offices are hereditary. The party which invites the sitting of the *panchayat* bears the cost of the sitting.

The revivalist movement of Rajmohini Devi of Madhya Pradesh is known to the Kisans of Ranchi district, but this movement has not had any direct local impact.

* See, "*The Nagesias*", in Anthropos, 1964 by Father V. Rosner, S. J.

† *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Part V-A, pp. 282-283.

According to 1961 census out of 1,875 males and 1,979 females, the number of workers was 1,114 and 938 respectively.* Their main source of livelihood is agriculture which absorbs 954 males and 831 females and 127 males and 81 females as agricultural labourers. The size of their agricultural holding is small. The decline in lac cultivation has adversely affected their economy. Tamarind, *mahua* and *kendu* leaves, however, supplement their income to some extent. Non-agricultural pursuits have little attraction for them.

The incidence of literacy among them is very poor. Only 189 males and 28 females were literates and only 2 persons were matriculates.†

Korwas.

The Korwas are one of the Kolarian tribes. In the Ranchi district they are mostly found in Chainpur, Ghaghara, and Raidih police-stations of the Gumla subdivision and Kurdeg police-station of the Simdega subdivision. According to the 1961 census, the Korwas were 1,801 (899 males and 902 females) in this district‡.

They mostly live on hill-tops. Their houses are scattered. They collect honey, bee-wax, resins and gum from the jungles and sell them in weekly *hats*. They also collect firewood from the forests for fuel. They make ropes out of fibres of *Lau* and *Khumbli* plantations and sell them.

Hunting is practised not only as a pastime but as an occupation. The Korwas roam in the forest with bows and arrows and hunt animals. They eat the flesh of all the game and birds available in the forest. Trenches are dug to snare the wild animals.

The hunting weapons of the Korwas are bows and arrows and the battle axes. But their bows and arrows are not different from those of the other aboriginals. They purchase the iron pieces of their hunting implements, plough-share and spade while supplement the wooden portions themselves.

The Paharia and Danr Korwas have a common legend that they are descended from the scare-crows set up to frighten wild animals. The Dih Korwas, however, are not familiar with this legend. The Korwas are described by Col. Dalton as short statured, dark brown in complexion, strongly built and active with good muscular development. Their fore-heads are narrow and lateral projection of the Zygomatic arches very marked. Some of the wider specimens have black skins, flat faces and projecting lower jaws, while their matted hair has acquired a tawny shade

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 70-71 & 88-89.

† *Ibid*, pp. 242-243.

‡ *Ibid*, pp. 70-71

from constant neglect. These observations of Dalton still hold good. The Korwas do not take bath *regularly*. They sleep on the ground and as such they have matted hair and dirty clothes.

"The women" says Dalton, "appear ground down by the hard work imposed on them, stunted in growth, black, ugly and wretchedly clad, some only having only a few dirty rags tied round their persons, and in other respects untidy and unclean. On them fall the double task of labour in the fields and of providing the daily bread for the miserable household. They have all the burdens, but none of the privileges of women. The man may follow his instincts as hunting animal and bow and arrow in hand, search the hills for the meat that his soul loveth"*.

The remarks of Dalton still hold good so far as the complexion of the Korwa women is concerned. The uncomeliness of the Korwa women is still proverbial. The drudgery of the domestic work is now shared both by the men and the women alike.

The Korwas are divided into four sub-castes, viz. the *Agaria, Danr, Dih* and the *Paharia* Korwas. The *Agarias* are not found in the Ranchi district. The *Danrs* and the *Paharias* have close affinity. The *Dih* Korwas are becoming more of settled cultivators and some of them have their settlements in plains also. But their number is very small. The *Dih* Korwas have little affinity with the *Paharias* and the *Danr*. Dalton mentions that he failed to find among the Korwas any tribal distinctions by which restrictions on inter-marriage were imposed such as are observed by cognate stocks. Most of the septs are totemistic, but to what extent the totems regulate their marriage relations cannot be conclusively said. The Korwas are endogamous. A person cannot marry a girl of the same sept or outside the Korwa tribe.

As among the other tribes of the Ranchi district, the bridegroom has to pay *dalitaka* or the bride price, which is usually Rs. 5 in cash and four *pots* (*gharas*) of rice-bear or *handia*. Marriage generally takes place in the month of *Phagun*. Vermilion and oil are applied to the forehead of the bride thrice and the bride also applies the same to the bridegroom. In this respect their marriage rituals are akin to those of the Telia Kisan and the other tribes amidst whom they live. The widows are allowed to re-marry in the *sagai* form and in that event vermilion and oil are not applied.

The day a child is born, the relatives are invited for a feast. After five days the child's head is shaved and it is bathed and only after this ceremony it is to be touched by others.

* *Dalton: Ethnology of Bengal.*

The dead are buried. After ten days the near cognate members of the deceased shave their heads. No *pinda* is offered to the deceased. The *Kaman* ceremony may be performed after ten or fifteen days of the death and even after a year. The Korwas show great reverence for the dead who are remembered during all the festivals and ceremonies. The dead man's soul is believed to enter the body of the newly born grandson or grand-daughter.

Of the many deities which the Korwas worship one is the supreme god called *Bhagwan* who is not different from the *sing-bonga,* the supreme god of other important tribes. This supreme god *Bhagwan* appears to have led many Korwas to be recorded as Hindus. In 1961 census, out of 1,801 Korwas in the district, 1,642 were shown as Hindus, 66 as Christians and only 93 as the followers of the *sarna.* The animistic Korwas are emphatic in calling themselves Hindus although Hindu traits in them are very scarce. Besides the supreme god they worship *Pat Deotas* or the forest gods and the village gods. There are many malevolent spirits or *bongas* which are propitiated.

The economic condition of the Korwas is hard. Out of 899 males and 902 females 566 and 532 were workers respectively. 372 males and 339 females were engaged in cultivation; 74 males and 36 females as agricultural labourers; 20 males and 28 females in mining, etc.; 90 males and 113 females in household industry; 1 male and 8 females in trade and commerce and 9 males and 8 females in other services*. They still practise shifting cultivation. Except a few Dih Korwas the majority do not own lands. They supplement their income from forest products.

The incidence of literacy among them is poor. In 1961 census only 50 males and 4 females were found to be literates including one matriculate†.

Loharas.

The Loharas consist partly of immigrants from Bihar who are known as Kanaujia Loharas and partly of indigenous blacksmiths who are known as Kol Loharas or Nagpuria Loharas or Loharas.

The Nagpuria Loharas are divided into two sub-castes, viz., Sad Kamar and Lohara proper. The *Sad Kamars* have abandoned their caste-occupation and are engaged in agriculture. They still speak Mundari and in some villages follow the Munda custom of burial in a *sasandiri.* They do not take meat other than of fowls or goats, do not drink *pachwai,* do not take cooked food from Mundas and will take water only from those who observe the same distinctions in the matter of food

* *Census of India,* 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 20-21 & 88-89.

† *Ibid,* p. 248.

as themselves. On the other hand, they admit into caste the children of Munda women, though the woman herself may be regarded as a concubine. The Loharas are much lower in the social scale than the *Sad Kamars,* they observe very few restrictions about food and drink, for they take cooked food both from Mundas and Oraons, and even eat the carcases of dead animals. Inter-marriage between *Sad Kamars* and Loharas is unknown.*

According to the 1911 census the total number of Loharas in the district was 46,946 of whom 30,317 were Hindus, 16,055 Animists and 574 Christians.† This rose to 69,928 at the census of 1961‡. Our investigations indicate that this rise is mainly due to natural accretion. The Loharas are distributed all over the district, though the main belt of Sad Kamar Loharas is in the Panch Parganas (south-eastern part of the district). The Loharas speak *Sadri* and Mundari. They have no exclusive villages of their own, but live together with other communities in the same village.

They have a nuclear type of family. It consists of father, mother and their unmarried children. By and large they are monogamous. Their marriages are arranged by parents. The father of the bridegroom pays *dalitaka* or bride price, usually Rs. 12 together with three *saris.* The marriage is solemnised at the place of the bride's father in the month of *Magh, Falgun, Chait, Baisakh* or *Jeth.* A *marwa* or canopy is set up where the marriage is performed. The bridegroom applies vermilion on the forehead of the bride thrice by the little finger of his right hand and the bride repeats the same and this concludes the marriage. On the birth of a child, they observe a period of 9 days as one of pollution. The clan system is prevalent among them. They are totemistic. The share of the father in the property is equal to that of his sons. The females have no right in the property. They can only claim maintenance.

Blacksmithy is the main occupation of this community. They manufacture sickle, axe, iron-head of the arrow and plough-shares after obtaining the iron materials from the local markets. Through stone-cutting and agriculture also they supplement their living. The Lohara women also attend delivery cases in villages and thus earn a little.

The incidence of drink is heavy among them. They have no *akharas* of their own, but go to the village *akhara* occasionally and dance and sing there along with the other tribals.

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 88.

† *Ibid.*

‡ *Census of India,* 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A.

Mahlis.

The Mahlis are found in several districts of Bihar, namely, Monghyr, Bhagalpur, Santal Parganas, Hazaribagh, Ranchi, Singhbhum and Dhanbad. However, the bulk of them are in the districts of Chota Nagpur Division and the Ranchi district has the largest concentration of them. They live mostly in the rural areas. In the 1961 census they were numbered 24,359 in the Ranchi district.*

Sir Herbert Risley mentions that the Mahlis are "Dravidian caste of labourers, palanquin-bearers, and workers in bamboo found in Chota Nagpur and Western Bengal. They are divided into five sub-castes. *Bansphor Mahli,* who make baskets and do all kinds of bamboo work; *Patar Mahli,* i.e., basket-makers and cultivators; *Sulunkhi Mahli,* who are cultivators and labourers; *Tanti Mahli,* who carry palanquins; and *Mahli Munda,* i.e., a small outlying sub-caste confined to Lohardaga."† Risley conjectures that the main body of the Mahlis consisting of the groups *Bansphor, Sulunkhi* and *Tanti Mahlis* are more allied to the Santals. He, however, mentions that the Santals are allergic to basket-making and carrying palanquins which are the main occupations of the Mahlis. He thinks that the Mahli Munda group of the Mahlis probably parted company with the Munda tribe for similar reasons. Risley's opinion is not substantiated and is not very acceptable. It is not probable that three branches of the same tribe may have a Santal origin while the other two Munda origin.

The Mahlis do not seem to be aware of sub-septs that have been listed by Risley :‡ *Charber* (a tree), *Dhilki, Dumriar* or *Dungri* (wild pig), *Goondli* (grain forbidden), *Kathergach* (jack fruit tree), *Kerketta* (a kind of bird), etc. They are, however, aware of septs, namely, *Kantiar, Dumaria, Tundwar, Kendriyar, Hansdagia* and *Kesriyar.*

In spite of some degree of acculturisation and adoption of Hindu religious customs and beliefs, the Mahlis still retain their original occupation of basket-making and bamboo work. They also do a little cultivation and work as day labourers. They eat beef, fowls and pork. They are fond of music and dance. During the *Karma* festival, both men and women freely take part in dance and music. Their dance and music do not differ substantially from those of the Mundas and Oraons. The dead bodies are both buried and cremated. It seems that cremation is a later idea and has been, more or less, adopted due to the impact of Hinduism.

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A.

† H. H. Risley: *The Tribes and Castes of Bengal*, Vol. II, (1891), Ethnographic Glossary, *p.* 40.

‡ *Ibid*, Appendix I.

A clear impact of Hinduism is seen in the fact that the Mahlis not only take keen interest in *Durga Puja* but also perform it in their villages. On that occasion they sacrifice a he-goat and also one or two pigeons. However, they do not engage any Brahman to perform the *Puja.* Nor do they instal any image of goddess *Durga.* They worship Bar Pahari (the mountain god of the Mundas), Mansa, the snake goddess and other godlings of the animistic tribes.

Mundas.

The name Kol is often used to designate Mundas and other allied tribes.* The Mundas have a universally admitted precedence over the other aboriginals by virtue of their older occupations of the country, their traditions of rule in it and their establishment of the Nagbansi Maharajas. They live mainly in the south-eastern, southern and middle-western parts of this district. They are most numerous in the Khunti, Tamar and Torpa thanas where they form nearly 75 per cent of the total population. At the census of 1911 they numbered 3,43,721 in this district,† rising to 4,65,093 in the census of 1961.‡

The Mundas call themselves *Horo-Ko* (Men) and their race Horo (Man). The word 'Munda' is the title of the temporal headman of the village or, if used as an adjective, means rich or influential. As the Munda was the official who represented the tribe in their dealings with their Hindu neighbours, the title came to be used by the latter to designate the tribe.

The Mundas are divided into two branches. The elder branch comprises the Mahali Mundas, also called Tamarias (or Tamdias) because of their habitation in the Tamar country, who form a separate tribe with whom the other Mundas (including the Ho Mundas) refuse to inter-marry. Another branch is subdivided into Kompat Mundas (generally called Mundas) and the Ho Mundas (simply called Hos). These two divisions comprise the main body of the Mundas and the Hos of Singhbhum though geographically detached are part of the same tribe.**

The Mundas are one of the darkest races in India, the colour of their skin being black-brown, often of a shade approaching black. The head is long, the nose is thick and broad and sometimes depressed at the root, the lips thick and the cheek bones prominent. In build they are stout and muscular and in stature somewhat below medium height. Both men and women when young may be described as comely, and their

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 62.

† *Ibid*, p. 62.

‡ *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A.

** The Mundas living on the Netarhat Plateau who speak only Sadri, and not Mundari, are of the same stock as the Kompat Mundas. They may freely inter-marry with their tribesmen, though on account of geographical separation seldom do so.

cheerful laughing countenances are far from displeasing. The dress of the Mundas is very simple and scanty; the men ordinarily wear a loin-cloth, with a coloured border at the two ends, called *botoi*, and use a piece of cloth as a wrapper for the upper portion of the body, known as *barkhi* or *pichowri*. The women wear a long piece of cloth, called *paria*, round the waist allowing a portion of it to pass diagonally over the upper part of the body. Shoes are seldom worn and the head is usually uncovered, though well-to-do Mundas wear *pagris*. In the rains they often carry bamboo-umbrellas (*chatom*) or wear circular rain-hats called *chukuri*, made of leaves of a creeper found in the jungles. Both young men and women are very fond of personal decoration. A young man wears round the waist a sort of belt made of cocoon-silk or plaited thread (*kardhani*) and his long hair, well-oiled and combed, is tied up at the side in a knot, with a wooden hair-comb (*naki*) stuck into it. Strings of coral or china beads or of silver four-anna pieces adorn his neck, and in times of festival flowers are used to decorate the hair or as garlands. The Munda girls greatly appreciate jewellery and deck themselves out with earrings, necklets, bracelets and anklets of brass, or of some more precious metal, or of lac and coloured glass. The poorer Munda women wear a peculiar ornament in the ear, called *tar-sakom*, which consists of a roll of palm-leaf, dyed red and set off with tinsel and lac. The Mundas tattoo their girls by way of ornamentation; three parallel lines are pricked on the forehead and two lines on each of the temples; a few marks are made on the chin; the back, arms and hands are also tattooed. The best qualities of a Munda are his keen sense of self-respect, his love of truth and honesty, and his courage; his worst qualities are his inordinate love of drink and his improvidence. He is impetuous and sensitive, but repents a rash action committed on the spur of a moment.

The Munda tribe is divided into a number of exogamous clans, or septs, known as *kilis*. Though exogamous as regards the *kilis*, the Mundas are endogamous as regards other tribes, and marriage with members of other Kolarian tribes, such as the Santals, Kharias, Asurs, etc., is not permitted. The only exception to this rule is that the Mundas of Tamar still inter-marry with the Bhumijs of Manbhum, who are in origin probably of the same race. The *kilis* are totemistic and derive their names from some natural object, such as an animal, bird, fish, reptile, or plant, and the members of the *kili* are forbidden to eat the totem after which it is named. When the Mundas first migrated into Chota Nagpur, the number of *kilis* was no doubt comparatively small, but as they multiplied, the existence of a small number of large *kilis* became inconvenient, and new septs were formed. A few *kilis* names are shared by the Mundas and Santals and may be held to date back to the days when the two races were united, but the majority of the names are peculiar to the Mundas. Various legends are given by the Mundas themselves as to the origin of the totems of the different clans. Thus

the Horo of *Kachua kili* owes its origin to the fact that the ancestor of the clan was assisted to cross a swollen stream by a giant *kachua* or tortoise; the ancestor of the *Nag Kili* was a snake-charmer and, when he died while returning from a distant village, the snake coiled itself round his body and carried it back to his family, who out of gratitude kept the snake in their house and gave it plenty to eat and drink.

According to Munda tradition, all the members of a *kili* are descended from a common ancestor; descent is counted through the father, and the children belong to the paternal *kili*. The possession of the same *kili* name is, therefore, the first proof of membership in a given clan or family. There is also a religious bond between members of a *kili*, consisting of a communion in the same sacrificial offerings. Members of one *kili* may on no account partake of the offerings made by members of a different *kili*. As during life members of a *kili* are united by a common name and by common sacrifices, so after death they are united in a common burial ground. Every *kili* has its own burial ground, or *sasan*, and the bones of every member of the family, even if he may happen to die away from the village, are on the occasion of the annual festival, called the *jung-topa*, placed beneath the stone slab, or *sasandiri*, of his clan. The well-known saying *"Sasandiriko-Horon-koapata"* (their burial stones are the title-deeds of the Mundas) owes its origin to this custom, and a Munda can only prove that he is a member of a particular clan or of a particular village community by proving that the bones of his ancestors were buried under the *sasandiri* of the clan.

The social system of the Mundas being of the patriarchal type the head of the family is at the same time the priest of the family, who, in case of illness or distress, has to offer sacrifices to propitiate the domestic and other *bongas* (spirits). But the village community being composed of families descended from common ancestors looks on itself as a family, and hence requires a special representative to exercise over the whole village functions similar to those exercised by the head of the family in the household. This representative is called the Pahan, and his functions were originally both religious and civil. His religious functions, which were the more important, consisted in offering the public sacrifices to propitiate the local spirits, and so to preserve the village from the ravages of wild animals, to obtain good harvests and to ensure successful hunts. As the civil head of the village, he had to preside over the *panchayats* for the settlement of disputes, inflict punishment for breaches of tribal custom and collect and transmit the quit-rent due to the proper authorities. In these civil functions he was assisted by the next most prominent member of the community, the Munda. The functions of the Munda and Pahan gradually became distinct, the

Pahan devoted himself to the religious duties, while the Munda undertook the civil duties which involved intercourse with aliens and foreign landlords.

In course of time, as the number of members of each *kili* increased and one village proved insufficient for the residence and cultivation of all, some members were forced to move away and form new villages in the neighbourhood of the parent village. At first they shared the *sasan* of the parent village and joined in the public sacrifices at the *sarna,* or sacred grove, but later instituted their own sacrifices and made their own *sasan.* Though separate in these respects, the daughter and parent villages still continued to act together in social and administrative matters and the group of allied and associated villages was constituted into a *parha* or *patti,* the latter being the name given to the organization by the Nagbansi Rajas. The head of the *parha* was the Manki, whose functions in respect of the group were similar to those of the Munda in respect of the village. This organization exists to the present day, but in two different forms, according to the area in which it is found. East of thana Khunti is the Khuntkatti area and west the Bhuinhari area. The Bhuinhari area may be said to show the social organization of the *parha* in its purest form, while the Khuntkatti area shows the clearest examples of the political organization of the *patti.*

In the Bhuinhari area each *parha* consists of eight to twelve villages; all the Bhuinhars, or descendants of the original settlers, in these villages being members of the same *kili.* All trace of the Manki has since disappeared, doubtless owing to the length of time. However, in each *parha* there is a standing committee, or *panchayat,* with permanent officers, whose titles, such as Raja, Diwan, Thakur, Lal Pande, and Karta, have been borrowed from their Hindu neighbours. Complaints are lodged to the Raja or Diwan by the Munda or Pahan of the village in which the offence has been committed, and orders are given to the Pande to convoke the assembly. All members of the *kili* are entitled to attend. The proceedings are opened with a feast and there are certain officers to whom special duties are assigned, thus the *"Sakam-heani"* gathers the *sal* leaves which serve as plates, the *Chari-chatani* makes the leaf-cups for drinking, the *pan khawas* distributes the lime and tobacco and pan. The Raja, as president, explains the complaint or cause of dispute to the assembly and, after evidence and statement have been taken, pronounces their decision. The most common causes of complaint are offences against the marriage laws; if the offender is repentant and promises to leave the woman, he is let off after having drunk the blood of a white he-goat or a white cock. Otherwise, he is fined, the fine being realised by the Diwan and his *sipahis*; if he refuses to pay, he is beaten and outcasted.

In the Khuntkatti area the title of Manki still survives and the *pattis* of which the area was composed consist of ten to twelve villages. The *pattis* are for the most part broken up, except in the locality known as the Mankipatti. Unlike the Bhuinhari area, the *patti* is not composed exclusively of members of the same *kili.* There is no standing committee and there are no permanent officials, and the *panchayat* is composed, when occasion requires, of the two headmen of the villages included in the *patti,* under the presidency of the Pat Munda, or occasionally of the Manki. The proceedings differ little from those of the *parha panchayat* in the Bhuinhari area.

In the case of minor disputes, a private *panchayat,* consisting generally of members of the same *kili,* is convened by the aggrieved persons. A president, or *surpanch,* is elected, and he, with the aid of two assessors selected by each party, decides the question at issue. In former times the decision of a *panchayat* was regarded by the Mundas as inspired and not to be disregarded, but now a party dissatisfied with the decision seeks his remedy in the courts. At the *parha panchayat* a feast is a necessary preliminary and is provided by the parties.

In olden times a Munda youth was not considered old enough to marry till he could fashion a plough with his own hands, and a Munda maiden till she could weave a palm-leaf mat and spin cotton, and in those days the young men were left free to select their brides. Nowadays the marriage is generally arranged by the parents or guardians, though the consent of the boy is frequently sought for and obtained. A go-between (*dutam*) is sent to the guardian of the girl, and if the answer is favourable, the *dutam* and the boy's guardian and friends, and sometimes the boy himself, start for the girl's village, and on their way keep a sharp look-out for good or bad omens. This observation of omens is known as *chenre-uri,* which etymologically has the same meaning as "augury". If they meet unfavourable omens, such as a person carrying an axe, spade, or shovel; a cow lowing, but not in response to her calf; sweepings being thrown away from a house; rice being carried; clothes being washed with ashes, etc., the whole matter is at an end; but if the omens are good and they hear a cow and calf lowing in response to each other, or see a person carrying paddy, clean clothes, or a pitcher of water, or making a plough or yokes, or meet a tiger, they proceed to their destination, where they are hospitably entertained, and in return invite the girl's guardians to their village. During the journey of the girl's relatives, a similar observation of omens is made and if all is favourable, the *joarni,* or spokesman for the bride's party, makes a set speech beginning: "Now for this boy and this girl, in the presence of Sing Bonga in heaven and the Panch on earth, the omens have been all right", and ending: "Today the boy's father and the girl's father will thatch two roofs with one bundle of straw (i.e., become members of one family). May the roofs ever remain thatched like this". The next

ceremony is the *bala* or betrothal, at which after the usual feast the bride-price is settled, not by naming the demand, but by symbols. Thus the number of clay marbles and *sal* leaves given to the bridegroom's father represent the number of rupees and *saris* which the bride's father requires, and the number sent back represent the amount which the former is willing to give. The terms being agreed upon, the ceremony is completed by the Munda or Pahan of the bride's village clasping the hand of the Munda or Pahan of the bridegroom's village and both agreeing to pay a fine if the betrothal is broken. The bridegroom now sits on the knees of the bride's maternal uncle or of the Munda or Pahan of her village and receives a new piece of cloth and a necklace from the bride's father. The ceremony of presenting the bride-price (*Ganongtaka Idituka*) and of selecting the day (*logontol*) usually takes place at the same time. The betrothed girl sits on the knee of the boy's maternal uncle, while a girl friend sits on the knee of the Munda or Pahan of the boy's village, and gives "*logon*" by handing some rice, turmeric, and betel-nut spread on a new cloth to him. Last comes the *arandi* or marriage ceremony proper. For three days before the marriage, the bride and bridegroom sit for a short time on the *mandoa*, a rectangular mud platform, with *sal* saplings at the four corners and saplings of *sal*, *bheloa* and bamboo in the centre, erected in their respective homes, and are anointed with mustard oil mixed with turmeric juice by a female relative. On the evening before the wedding comes the *chuman* ceremony, at which the bridegroom clad in a cloth dyed with turmeric juice, is touched on the feet, thighs, shoulder-joints, and cheeks by his female relatives who hold some rice in their folded hands. A similar benediction ceremony takes place at the bride's house. The marriage procession next starts from the bridegroom's house and the bridegroom, if he can afford it, is carried in a *palki* or, failing that, on the arms of his relatives till the limits of the village are reached. At the first mango tree the procession halts for the *uli-sakhi* ceremony, at which the bridegroom receives the blessing of his mother. At the confines of the bride's village, her relatives meet the procession with music and dancing, and the parties join, walk round the boundary of the village, and proceed to the bride's house. In the courtyard the bride's mother and her female relatives sprinkle the boy with water and again perform the *chuman* ceremony. The bride is brought out in a bamboo basket and carried three times round the bridegroom's *palki*. Bride and bridegroom then throw three handfuls of rice at each other's foreheads and are conducted into the house. Next the bride has an *uli-sakhi*, in which she makes the mango tree a witness to the marriage by marking it with flour and tying a thread round it. In the morning the preliminary ceremony of *sasang-goso*, or anointing with oil and turmeric, is performed, both bride and bridegroom being anointed by the female relatives of the other, and each in turn having a little blood drawn from the finger. The blood is put on a rag, called *sinai*. In the forenoon, having been carried by

their relatives three times round the *mandoa*, they are made to stand upon a large plate of *sal* leaves, the bridegroom facing west and the bride facing east. He presses the toes of her left foot with the toes of his right foot, and three times touches his neck and that of the bride with the blood-stained rag. They change positions, and the bride does the same with her rag. Reverting to their positions, they exchange garlands of flowers, and each places three vermilion marks first on his or her own forehead, and then on the forehead of the other. This is the binding part of the ceremony. Their garments are then knotted together and they are conducted into the house, the bride walking behind the groom, who has to pay toll to the bride's elder sister before he obtains entry. Four maidens, two from each party accompanied by Ghasi musicians, now proceed to the nearest spring followed by the other women. The maidens fill their *gharas* with water, and place them on their heads. Two elderly women, one carrying a sword, and the other a bow and arrow, stand with their backs to the water-carriers, and pass the sword and arrow back over the neck so as to touch the jars of water. The procession then returns to the house, the woman with the sword brandishing and whirling her weapon, and the other woman imitating her. The maidens next pour the water over the bride and bridegroom, who in fresh array are seated on a straw-covered plough-yoke in the courtyard. Having again assumed their yellow garments and daubed one another's forehead with *sindur*, the young couple sit down upon a mat in the courtyard. Ceremonial water is given to the bride-groom and a sword is put into his hand, with which he kills a goat. Amidst much ceremony and consumption of rice-beer, the fathers of the bridegroom and bride drink from the same cup and embrace one another; the mothers do likewise, and there is mutual felicitation. Bride and bridegroom then wash the feet of the guests who place on a brass plate their wedding gifts, usually in cash, each paying from two pice to a rupee. At the bridal feast, the bridegroom places a *sal* leaf beside each guest, and the bride puts a pinch of salt on it. Both sit beside the Manki, or senior village official and wash his hands and serve salt to him. The men having dined, the women sit down to their meal. Before the departure of the bridegroom, the bride performs a curious ceremony. Seated with her back to her mother, who is seated on the threshold of her house, she throws three double handfuls of paddy over her shoulder to her mother, who catches it in her cloth. She is then made over to the bridegroom by the Munda or Pahan of the village in presence of the Panch or assembled elders. The bridegroom is next compelled to pay toll to the bride's girl friends, and after a demonstrative leave-taking, he carries away his bride by the mode of conveyance in which he arrived. At his house the *chuman* ceremony is again performed, and a dinner follows at which the bridal pair distribute salt to the guests. Next day a party of the bride's relatives come to be entertained, and a week or two later, when the bride's parents come to take

the married couple to their village, their son-in-law uproots the saplings from the middle of the *mandoa,* and a sumptuous feast again takes place.

Family life is happy, the wife usually making herself a comrade to her husband. But divorce is not attended with many difficulties. If the husband will not maintain his wife, or if she refuses to live with him, a *panchayat* of the relatives is held, and the person desiring the divorce, who selects three out of the five members, snaps a *sal* leaf in token of the dissolution of the marriage. If the wife is the unwilling party, the bride-price is returned. Divorced persons and widows marry in the *sagai* form which simply consists of a feast at the bride's house; and the issue of such marriage is legitimate.

In 1961 census, out of the total population of 465,093 Mundas in the district, 280,829 (140,221 males and 140,608 females) were workers and 173,294 (84,172 males and 89,122 females) were non-workers, the distribution of the workers being as follows*:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
1. Cultivation	122,182	128,033	250,215
2. Agricultural labour	6,998	7,017	14,015
3. Mining, Quarrying, Livestock, Forests, etc.	4,562	2,617	7,179
4. Household Industries	604	596	1,200
5. Manufacture other than household industry	410	214	624
6. Construction	454	205	659
7. Trade and Commerce	173	207	380
8. Transport, Storage and Communication ..	314	4	318
9. Other services	4,524	1,710	6,234

As it would appear from the above figures, agriculture and farm labour are the principal occupations of the Mundas.

As regards education, in 1961 Census. only 69,224 were found literate and of them 46,128 were without any educational level. The rest were classified as follows†:—

Primary	21,358
Matriculation and above	2,175
Teaching Diploma	3
University degree	38
Technical degree	1

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 70-71 and 88-89.

† *Ibid*, p. 243.

Oraons.

The Oraons are the most numerous tribe in the district, and at the Census of 1911 numbered 388,768, out of the total Oraon population of the State being over 640,000. Large numbers have migrated to the tea gardens of Assam and the Duars, and 90,000 were enumerated at the 1911 Census in the Jalpaiguri district. Small colonies of this race are also found all over Bengal, and in parts of Tirhut and Bhagalpur divisions of Bihar where they work as day labourers and are known by the name of *dhangars, kurukh* word signifying a "youth" and then "a youth who labours for another."*

In 1961 Census the Oraons were 564,774 in this district out of 735,025 Oraons in Bihar.† They dwell mainly in the west, north-west and centre of this district.

Extremely little is known of the early history of this Dravidian tribe. They call themselves *Kurukh,* a name which is sometimes traced to one of their mythical kings called *Karakh.* It is more probable that it is derived from some obsolete Dravidian root, meaning "man", or it may possibly be connected with the Dravidian word "*Karugu,* an eagle, and be totemistic in origin. Colonel Dalton was inclined to think that the name is derived from *Konkan,* which is supposed to have been the cradle of the race, *Konkan* having been converted into *Kurukh* owing to the Oraon partiality for gutturals. Another interpretation given by some literate Oraons themselves is that *Kurukh* is a variant of Coorg, where they formerly lived. The name "Oraon" is said by Colonel Dalton to have been given them as a nickname, perhaps because of their many migrations and partiality to roam, and, according to Sir George Grierson, the Hindus say that the word "Oraon" is simply the Indo-Aryan "Urban", a spend-thrift, the name being an allusion to the alleged thriftless character of the people. Dr. Hahn agrees that the name was coined by the Hindus, but considers that it is based on *orgora,* a *Kurukh* word for "hawk", the totem of one of the septs.

It is probable that the Oraons originally came from Southern India, as philologists have traced in the languages of the Kanarese and other Tamilian languages a close resemblance to the *Kurukh* tongue. Another theory that has been put forward is that the Oraons accompanied the Mundas in their migrations from the north-west of India before the Aryan invaders; but this does not appear to be supported by either Munda or Oraon tradition. Though the Oraon tradition agrees with the Munda tradition in naming Azimgarh, Hardinagar, Pipragarh and finally Rohtasgarh as homes of their race, it is possible that the tradition was

* Col. Dalton interpreted the name as "hillman" and derived it from "Dang" or "Dhang", a hill. *See*, M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, (1917), p. 72.

† *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. XV, 70 and 88.

merely borrowed from their neighbours. The most certain legend of the Oraons is that they dwelt in Rohtas, but were driven from the stronghold by a treacherous attack of their enemies, who took advantage of the drunken revelry in which they were engaged at the *Sarhul* festival. Who the enemy were is uncertain. According to an explanation of some Oraons themselves, it was the Muhammadans, but as the Muhammadans did not conquer Bihar before 1193 A.D. and Rohtas before 1539 A. D., this is inconsistent with their own tradition that they were settled in Chota Nagpur long before the days of Phani Mukut Rai, the first Raja. In other accounts they refer to the enemy as *Mlechchhas,* an appellation given by the Hindus to all impure tribes; and, according to one theory, *Mlechchhas* were the Kharwars or Cheros who at one time occupied the Rohtas plateau. There is, however, no doubt that Rohtas was once their home, as Oraons are still found in these hills. Dislodged from Rohtas, the tribe split up into two branches, one branch proceeded down the Ganga, settled in the Rajmahal hills, and became the ancestors of the present Male tribe; another, and larger section, proceeded up the Son and then along the valley of the North Koel into Palamau till they reached the highlands of Chota Nagpur, which they found already sparsely populated by Mundas. There is no tradition of war between the two tribes and, according to Munda tradition, they allowed the Oraons to settle, on condition that they ate meat and discarded the sacred thread which they wore. According to Oraon tradition, they were the more civilized race and introduced the use of the plough and the construction of the terraced *don* lands. The Mundas gradually retreated before the more prolific and numerous Oraons and left them in undisputed possession of the north-west of the district. Like the Mundas, the Oraons formed their village communities into groups, known as *parhas,* under the presidency of the headman of one of the villages, who was known as the *parha Raja,* and the Oraon and Munda *parhas,* when the tribes were living together in the central plateau, elected one of their chiefs to be the Raja of the country.

The colour of most Oraons is the darkest brown, approaching to black; the hair is jet black, coarse, and rather inclined to be frizzy. Projecting jaws and teeth, thick lips, low narrow foreheads, broad flat noses, are features which strike a careful observer as characteristic of the tribe. The eyes are often bright and full, and no obliquity is traceable in the opening of the eyelids. The Oraons are of good physique, capable of carrying heavy burdens and travelling long distances. An Oraon can carry a load of two maunds thirty to thirty-five miles in a day and continue to do so for several days in succession. In character, the Oraons are cheerful and light-hearted; when young, they delight in physical exercise, especially dancing. On the occasion of their festivals the young men and maidens of an Oraon village spend two, three or more nights in dancing, with but short intervals for sleep. The worst vice of the

Oraons is their improvidence and inordinate love of drink. They are not so conservative as the Mundas, and Colonel Dalton remarks on their adaptability to the ways and customs of the persons among whom they live. This adaptability is said even to change their outward appearance. Oraons who have lived long in the Duars become tawny in complexion, while the Oraons themselves say that those who have lived long among Muhammadans grow beards and whiskers.

The clothing of the Oraons is similar to that of the Mundas. Both sexes are extremely fond of ornaments. The young men adorn themselves with a girdle (*kardhani*) of twisted black cotton-thread, or silk, which also serves the useful purpose of carrying his keys, purse, lime box, and small iron pincers, or *chimta,* which are used for extracting thorns from the feet. Necklaces of coloured beads are often worn. The most noticeable ornaments of the women are the heavy brass bracelets on the arms, and the ornaments of various kinds which are thrust through the lobe of the ear. At their dances their head-dresses are often adorned with plumes of heron feathers.

A peculiar feature of Oraon villages is the *dhumkuria* (*jonkh-erpa* in Kurukh) or bachelors' hall, an interesting survival which is still found in the older villages. The Oraons are very reticent about this institution, but S. C. Roy, collected much information about this institution and its counterpart, the *pel-erpa* or maiden's dormitory. These institutions cannot be said to conduce to the morality of an Oraon village; they are gradually falling into disuse and are not countenanced in villages of which the inhabitants have become Christians. These inmates of the *dhumkuria* form a fraternity into which boys are admitted after curious ceremonies, and take a prominent part in many of the religious and social customs of the tribes. Its object appears to be to "make men" of the boys, to make them successful hunters and to train them in their social and other duties. It is undoubtedly a survival from the primitive days, when the tribe was dependent on hunting.*

Like the Mundas, the Oraons are divided into numerous exogamous septs, known as *gotras,* which take their names from some bird, fish, animal, plant or mineral. These totems are regarded as sacred by the sept named after them and are respected by them as ancestors: thus a *Panna* will not touch iron with his tongue or lip; a *Kujur* will not use oil made from the creepers of that name, a *Kispota* will not eat pigs' entrails; septs whose totem is an animal will not eat flesh of that animal, e.g., *lakra* (tiger), *koya* (wild dog), *tiga* (field-mouse), tirki (young mouse), *orgora* (hawk), *toppo* (woodpecker), *minj* (eel). The sept name descends in the male line. There is no objection to a man marrying a woman belonging to the same sept as his mother, but generally marriage with a maternal aunt or first cousin on the mother's side is disallowed.

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer,* 1917 p. 75.

Marriage with members of other tribes is entirely prohibited. At the head of the village community is the *Pahan* or *Baiga* and the *Mahto*. The difference in the functions of these two officials is expressed by the Oraons in their saying *Pahan gaon banata hai, Mahto gaon chalata hai*, i.e., the *Pahan* appeases the deities and demons of the village while the *Mahto* looks after its secular affairs. In some villages the *Pahan* is a Munda by caste and occasionally a member of some other aboriginal tribe, it being held by the Oraons that the descendant of the first settlers in a village is better qualified to deal with the village gods. The duties of the *Pahan* are the same as those of the *Pahan* in a Munda village, but whereas among the Mundas the office is hereditary and is held for life, among the Oraons the *Pahan* is selected triennially from among the members of the *Pahan* family or by means of the magic *sup* or winnowing basket. The selection of the religious head of the village rests on the knees of the gods, and the *sup* is used as a divining-rod to conduct the person holding it to the house of the man most fitted for the office. In some cases, after the proper ceremonies, a stone is rolled through the village, and he at whose door it stops is the fit person. The *Pahan* has special lands assigned to him and is assisted in his religious functions by the *Pujar* or *Panbhara*, whose duties are to carry water and cook on the occasion of village sacrifices.

The *Mahto* is also elected, usually triennially, from among the members of the *Mahto khunt*. In some villages where the Oraons had been driven by their zamindars to abandon their customs, his election had to be approved by the zamindar and in new villages he was almost a servant of the zamindar.

As with the Mundas, groups of villages are united into *parhas*, which must have been of considerable political and social importance in old days.

The *Parha panchayat* still survives; it consists of the leading men from a group of villages, e.g., the *Pahan, Mahto*, and the leading *bhuinhars* and *jeth raiyats*. It meets only once a year and deals with matters affecting whole villages and not merely individuals, such as matters of religion, dates of festivals, and also with disputes about the flags which each village has as its distinctive emblem. It also punishes villages which take an unfair advantage over their neighbours and do not observe the customary rules of sport on the occasion of the annual hunt. The *Panchora panchayat* resembles more closely the *Parha panchayat* of the Mundas; it is presided over either by a *Kartaha* or a *Mukhiya*. The office of the former is hereditary, that of the latter is only held as long as the holder is considered fit to perform the duties. It deals with grave offences against caste rules and tribal custom and also is a sort of court of appeal against the decisions of village *panchayats*. An important function of the *Panchora panchayat* is to re-admit an outcaste into caste. After it has

been decided to re-admit the outcaste and the fine which he is to pay has been fixed, the actual ceremony of re-admission takes place. The outcaste goes round and tells the members of the date of the assembly. He then fasts for a certain period, during which he is guarded by two *Sipahis*, who are specially deputed to see that he takes no food or drink except turmeric water. When the assembly meets, the *Kartaha* sacrifices a white cock or white goat, and the outcaste has to drink the blood. He then serves the *Kartaha* and each member of the assembly with food and pays the former his fee (*patri tari*), which varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 15. The *Kartaha* is the first to touch the food prepared by the outcaste, and the moment he raises it to his lips is the signal for all present to hurl their rice at his head. The *Kartaha* is thus a scape-goat who, on his return home, atones for having eaten the food of an outcaste by a feast to his caste men, paid for out of the fee which he has received.

The marriage ceremonies of the Oraons are generally similar to those of the Mundas which have already been described in detail. During the preliminary negotiations there is the same observation of omens, and, if the omens are inauspicious, the proposal is dropped. If all goes well, there comes the settling of the price or *panbandhi*. At the actual marriage ceremony, the bride and bridegroom stand on a curry-stone under a bower, the boy touching the heels of the girl with his toes. A long piece of cloth is put round them to shield them from the public gaze, and the boy dips his finger into a cup of *sindur* and makes three lines on the bride's forehead and the bride does, or attempts to do, the same to the bridegroom. Water is thrown over the couple who retire into the house. A little later a special ceremony takes place to invoke the protection of the ancestors. The final ceremony is the *khiritengua handia*, at which the oldest member of the assembly as representing the *panchayat*, solemnly addresses both bride and bridegroom and exhorts them to remain true to each other in sickness and in health.

According to 1961 Census, out of the total population of 564,774 Oraons in this district, 327,773 (164,202 males and 163,571 females) were workers and 237,001 (111,937 males and 125,064 females) non-workers, the distribution of the workers being as follows*:—

	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1. Cultivation	291,602	141,211	150,391
2. Agricultural labour	11,618	5,771	5,847
3. Mining, Quarrying, Livestock, Forests, etc.	4,699	3,202	1,497
4. Household Industries	1,488	701	787
5. Manufacture other than household industries	2,281	1,656	625
6. Construction works	1,416	972	444
7. Trade and Commerce	478	266	212
8. Transport, Storage and Communication ..	1,586	1,528	58
9. Other services	12,605	8,895	3,710

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V-A, pp. 70-71 and 88-89.

As it would appear from the above figures, agriculture and farm labour are the principal occupations of the Oraons.

As regards education the 1961 Census shows that only 77,392 were literate and of them 49,445 were without any educational level.* The rest were classified as follows :—

Primary	24,774
Secondary	3,110
University	56
Technical	6
Non-technical	1

Religious Beliefs.

Hinduism.—The majority of people profess Hinduism. They believe in the existence of Supreme Being and worship 'Shiva', 'Vishnu' and 'Sakti' as also other lesser divinities. In 1961, out of the total population of 2,138,565, they counted 1,362,995.

Sarna.—2,25,028 persons declared themselves as followers of *Sarna* or tribal religion.†

Jainism.—The Jain *Sravakas*, found in the extreme south-east of the Panchpargania region were some of the earliest converts to this faith. At the 1961 census the Jains, mostly immigrants from Western India counted only 2,014, i.e., less than 0.1 per cent of the total population of the district; but being leaders of trade and industry, they weild great economic power.

Sikhism.—The Sikhs also are a small minority, being less than 0.1 per cent of the population. Their ranks have swelled up since early sixties in wake of industrialisation of the district. They are a business community well established in transport trade.

Buddhism.—The Buddhists are a microscopic minority of immigrants. It appears that this religion could not ever penetrate into this district in its proselytising mission.

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Part V-A, p. 248.

† *Ibid.*

Christianity.—The Christians in the 1961 Census numbered 366,155.* They follow most of the formalities of Christianity, e.g., church-going and observance of festivals like Christmas, Good Friday and Easter. They are of various denominations such as Roman Catholics, Anglicans, Lutherans and Seventh Day Adventists.†

Islam.—The followers of this faith numbered 122,808 in the 1961 Census.‡ It cannot be said definitely as to when the first Muslim migrant settled in this district; but seeing the traditional association of *momins* with weaving trade and availability of local market among the tribals, we may perhaps venture to suggest that the earliest Muslims to arrive in this district might have been Muslims of weaver caste. This immigration might have been accelerated from about the first quarter of the 19th century when the indigenous weaving industries in Biharsharif and Gaya were ruined due to the discrimination against them to favour the British cotton goods and the *momin* artisans migrated to Chota Nagpur, which was still inaccessible to British goods, to earn their living.

It appears that from the 18th century onward the local feudal lords encouraged Muslim military adventurers from Bihar and up country to settle in this district to render them military service, not only against local risings, but also against external attacks. However, the number of such migrants was very limited.

On becoming headquarters of the Lohardaga district in 1843, Ranchi attracted Muslim traders from South Bihar, particularly the district of Gaya. It also drew men in trades and professions from the erstwhile district headquarters of Sherghati and Chatra. One Nadir Mian set up his practice as a Mukhtiar and soon rose as leader of the migrant Muslim traders who constructed the first mosque, namely, Handewala mosque in Upper Bazar in 1852, followed by Bari or Jumma Masjid, also in Upper Bazar in 1867.

The present number of Muslims in the district is to be attributed to natural accrual added by the immigrants who came to seek employment, particularly in post-1940 era.

Social Groups.

A new factor of recent origin in regard to social classification has been the division of the population into backward and non-backward

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-C, VII, Religion.

† *See*, Chapter on 'History' (*Supra*).

‡ *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-C, Table C, VII, Religion.

classes for the purposes of rendering special assistance to the former group. Under Article 341 of the Constitution, 21 castes have been declared as Scheduled Castes in Bihar. Of them, 19 are found in this district. In 1951 they numbered 94,946 (34,395 males and 60,551 females*) and in 1961 the number rose to 97,399 (49,284 males and 48,115 females†). Under Article 342 of the Constitution, 29 constituents of the Scheduled Tribes are recognised in Bihar and all of them are found in this district, though some of them may be insignificant in number. The number of persons in this district belonging to Scheduled Tribes in 1951 was 1,145,802 (586,507 males and 559,295 females‡) and in 1961 this number rose to 1,317,513 (650,668 males and 666,845 females**).

Customs and Practices.

Birth and Infancy.

Hindus.—In order to ward off the attacks of evil spirits, an expectant mother wears amulets. Thorn, old shoes, fire and sword are also kept at the door of the labour room to scare them. A brass dish is beaten to herald the birth of a male child. A ceremony called *chhathihar* is observed on the sixth day of the child-birth when friends and relations present gifts to the child and a feast is also held. If a child is born during the inauspicious *sataisa nakshatra,* the father is not permitted to see it unless the *sataisa puja* is performed after a lapse of 27 days and sometimes another period of 27 days after the birth. The child is named on the 12th day of its birth usually after some god or goddess or historical personality and sometimes even after the month, day or festival when it is born provided the child is not born during the *sataisa.* Next important ritual is *mundan,* i.e., shaving of head when the child is five. It is followed by *uponayan* (i.e., sacred thread ceremony of the male child only), usually when 8 years old.§

Muslims.—After the birth of a Muslim child, its father or any other male member recites the *azan* into its ears. For the first forty days the mother abstains from regular prayers. Usually the *aqiqa* (shaving of head) ceremony of child is performed within a week of its birth when it is

* *Census of India,* 1951, Vol. V, Bihar, Part II-A, p. 317.

† *Ibid,* 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V, p. 129.

‡ *Ibid,* 1951, Vol. V, Bihar, Part II-A, p. 316.

** *Ibid,* 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part V, p. 129.

§ Traditionally it has been performed till recent times by the *dwijas* (twice born) only, but now certain lower castes also wear sacred thread, mainly with a view to shake off their social inferiority.

named. The Muslims circumcise their male children before the age of seven or eight years. They also perform the *Bismillah* or *Maktab* ceremony of the child at the age of five by reciting the verses of the *Kuran.* This marks the beginning of the educational career of the child.

Tribals.—The Mundas promise to offer fowl and rice-beer to the *Garase Bonga,* the presiding deity, for the welfare of the expectant mother and child in the womb and after the child is born, the sacrifice is made by them. A name is given to the child after reading omens and simultaneously a thread is tied round its neck at a ceremony called *sutaintol.*

A Kharia expectant mother avoids going to jungle alone, because of the popular belief that a pregnant woman is taken possession of by evil spirits. In naming a child, two grains of *arwa* rice, one representing the child and the other the person whose name is being tested are dropped by someone on the surface of a leaf full of water. If the grains meet, the name is found appropriate. If they remain separate, the name of another man is tested till the operation succeeds.

An Oraon child is usually named after some deceased ancestor who is believed to be re-born in the child and act as its guardian spirit.

A pregnant Mahlis woman carries some iron implements, such as knife, to counteract the evil influence of malevolent spirits. Usually the names of grandparents are inherited by the new-born babies according to sex.

Among Korwas, the day a child is born, relatives are invited for a feast. After five days the child's head is shaved and it is bathed and then only it is to be touched by others. It is usually named after the day it is born or after relative and with the traditional ritual of dropping grains into a vessel filled with water. If a child has predeceased, the newly born child is put on some dung-hill with the idea that it is to be considered as dead and thereafter some relatives rescue it and hand it over to the mother.*

Mortuary Customs.

Hindus.—The deceased is usually cremated on the bank of a river or a tank, though the dead body of a child up to the age of five or six years or of a *sanyasi* or ascetic is buried. Lepers and persons who die of snake-bite or small-pox, are immersed in some river by fastening an earthen pot round their neck.

* Source.—*Land and People of Tribal Bihar* published by the Bihar Tribal Research Institute, Ranchi, 1961, pp. 91, 100, 112, 115, 120, 190, 213, 216 and 220. The individual monographs (*supra*) on different tribes may also be seen.

The main *sradh* is usually performed on the twelfth day of the death when the *karta* (chief mourner) offers *tarpan* (oblation) and *pinda* (ball of rice or cake) to the deceased for the salvation of his soul amidst the chanting of hymns by the family priest. Subsequently *sradh* is also performed at Gaya during the *Pitarpaksha.*

Muslims.—Verses from the *Kuran* and *Kalma* are recited in a low voice into the ear of a dying man. The dead body covered with *kafan* (cloth) is placed on *janaza* (bier) and carried by men to the graveyard where the last prayer is offered. The dead body is laid in the grave, with head towards the north and face towards the west, i.e., to face *Kaba.* After the grave is closed, the Imam recites verses from the *Kuran* and all present pray for the peace of the departed soul. On the fortieth day alms are distributed to the poor.

Tribals.—If a person dies during the sowing season, he is buried. One who dies of cholera or small-pox is cremated. A pot is hung on a *peepal* tree in the village and the man who lit the funeral pyre offers water to it for 10 days with due solemnity. The *Gami,* i.e., *sradh* may be performed after 10 days from the death or even on the day of funeral depending upon the ability and resources of the family concerned. No killing takes place on such occasions.

Though the Tana Bhagats have adopted Hindu customs, they still continue to bury their dead. They dig the grave in the north-south direction, while the *Vishnu-Bhagats* dig it in the east-west direction. The dead body is laid on a piece of wood and covered with cloth. People sprinkle cowdung, milk and turmeric water on the deceased. Among the Tana Bhagats male members of the family of the deceased shave off their hair and beard.

The Mundas erect usually big memorial stones in the burial ground called *Sasan.* After a memorial stone is erected, a sheep is slaughtered by it and a feast held in which kinsmen partake of the meat of the sheep as well as rice-beer.

The relatives of a dying Christian feel satisfied if a clergyman comes to him and administers the last sacrament. Christians generally bury their dead. At the door of the room where the dead body rests, a tile containing burning charcoal and a small cup containing some oil is kept. Persons who go with the funeral party take some oil and apply it on their hand, feet and head. Smearing of oil and putting some earth in the grave by all the people assembled is an old tribal custom which even the converts are observing, though this rite is not enjoined by religion. The body is covered with a shroud and put on a mat. Before lowering the coffin into the grave prayers are offered. Some persons shave off their head and beard, but this is not required by Christianity. The funeral feast is held several weeks, even a year after the death depending upon the convenience of the relatives of the deceased.

Inter-caste Relations.

The traditional divisions of Hindus into *varnas* or castes, though basically still intact has lost much of its social rigidity under modern conditions. The crusade of Mahatma Gandhi against the social disabilities of the untouchables, particularly in respect of their entry into places of worship, did much to break the barrier between the high castes and the untouchables. The freedom movement also brought people of various castes to sit and dine together. The modern means of communications has also contributed to mutual tolerance. The mobility of people in the wake of industrialisation and urbanisation has also lessened the rigidity of caste. The functional base of the caste has also given way under present conditions. But caste has now been inducted into politics and led to social imbalance and mutual bitterness.

The tribals maintain their individual identity based on their clan and dialect; but they have cordial relationship *inter se.* Sometimes marriages between members of two different tribes, though not socially approved, are tolerated and made regular after observance of due ceremonies. The social relationship of tribal Christians is confined to their own group. But they do not cease participating in the social life of the tribes to which they originally belonged and continue to take part even in their rituals.

New Religious Movement.

The most important religious movement of the present century in the district centres round the festival of *Mahaviri Jhanda* which is observed on the occasion of *Ramnavami* in the month of *Chaitra.* The Hindus including tribals take out huge processions of the *Jhanda* of Mahavir, symbol of strength and devotion.

Esoteric Practices.

In olden times human sacrifice (*Otanga*) was prevalent among the Oraons in the Gumla subdivision. The *ojha* (priest) claimed that the name of the person to be sacrificed had been revealed to him in dream and subsequently the person so named met his doom and his blood used to be sprinkled over the fields as it was believed that it would add to the fertility of soil. With the enforcement of effective administration the practice went underground and usually lone strangers in dark fell victim to the axe of the tribal assassin. Stray cases are heard even now.

Property and Inheritance.

Hindus.—The Hindus of this district are generally governed by the Banaras School of Mitakshara law, the most important aspect being that a co-parcener's right in ancestral property accrues since his conception.

The Bengali residents, however, are governed by the Bengal or Dayabhaga School of Hindu law, which gives absolute power to a father to dispose of ancestral property, whether movable or immovable, by sale, gift, will or otherwise in the same way he can dispose of his separate property.

The Hindu Succession Act, 1956 has amended and codified the law relating to intestate succession and laid down certain rules relating to testamentary capacity of Hindus. It has also defined the rights of Hindu women in property and conferred rights on them which they did not enjoy previously.

Muslims.—The Muslims, by and large, follow the *Hanafi* School of Mohammadan law.

Tribals.—In matter of inheritance of property, the tribes are generally governed by their customary rules.

Oraons.—Among Oraons, the customary rule of inheritance is that when the head of a family dies, the land is divided among all his surviving sons, the eldest getting a small plot in addition to his usual share; but if the sons are born of different mothers, the sons by the first wife get a larger share than those by the second wife. If the dead man's sons are not alive, his grand and great grandsons are entitled to inherit his property, but the lineal male descendants entitled to share must be born of Oraon wives. A widow cannot inherit, but she may be given a share sufficient for her maintenance as long as she lives in the house or does not re-marry. If she marries again the land is taken back and divided among the nearest kin. An adopted son belonging to the same clan, if he was adopted with the consent of other *bhayads* (agnates), will inherit the dead father's property. If an adopted son belongs to a different clan, he inherits only the *non-bhuinhari* lands, but the *bhuinhari* lands will go to the members of the collateral lineages in the village. When all the *bhuinhars* belonging to the same clan living in the same village or elsewhere are extinct, the property can be given to the *non-bhuinhar* relatives living in the village. So long even one member of the clan is alive, the *bhuinhar khunt* land cannot be alienated. If a person has no male issue he may adopt a *ghardamad* or *ghardijoa* as his prospective son-in-law. On the death of his wife, the son-in-law may inherit the dead man's *non-bhuinhari* lands, but the *bhuinhari lands* go to the nearest male agnate or agnates. An unmarried daughter is entitled to a suitable maintenance until her marriage and to the necessary expenses for marriage. Usually her brothers or other heirs of her deceased father agree to maintain her by turn until her marriage. A son or other male

descendant who has been ex-communicated by the *Parha Panchayat* for sexual union with a non-Oraon or other offences against customary rules is excluded from inheritance unless he is re-admitted into the tribe.

The whole lineage has the proprietary right over the unoccupied lands and the forest tracts within the village boundary, and any transaction of land must be with the consent of the lineage members. The *Mahto* and the *Pahan* in consultation with the village *panchayat* settle the unoccupied lands. The gift of cultivable land or a loan may be made by the head of the land-owning unit only when the other members give consent to such transaction which is to be made only between kinsmen or clansmen. The lineage ancestors have to be informed and sacrifices must be offered by the lineage*.

Mundas.—The members of a joint Munda family share all the property in common till the death of the father. But during his lifetime the father may expel a disobedient son from his house even without giving him any movable property or a share of the lands. The father is regarded as having almost absolute control over the family property during his lifetime, although any disposition of family property in contravention of the customary rules of inheritance will not be binding on his heirs. The sons cannot, as of right, demand a partition during the lifetime of their father; though the father may make a partition of family property amongst his sons. Usually this is done when the mother of the sons being dead, the father has married a second wife. At partition, the eldest son generally gets a slightly larger share than the other sons, the excess being ordinarily one *kat* (*sala*) of land. Females are not entitled to inherit, but if the father effects a partition during his lifetime, an unmarried daughter usually gets some land as *khorposh* grant till her marriage, and she lives either under the protection of her father or of one of her brothers; and the land allotted to her remains in the possession of her chosen guardian who supports her. This land, however, will be re-partitioned amongst the brothers, after the sister's marriage. When a Munda father, after marrying a second wife, makes a partition of the family property with his sons by his first wife, there cannot be a re-distribution of the lands on the birth of other sons to him by the second wife.

When the deceased has left a widow, some land, generally equal to a younger son's share, is first set apart for the maintenance of the widow on partition of his estate among his children and the residual estate is divided by the *panchayat* in equal shares amongst all the sons of the deceased, except that the eldest son usually gets a little land in excess. If there had been a partition during the father's lifetime, and, since then, other sons were born to the father, the entire immovable property will on the father's death, be re-partitioned amongst all the sons of the deceased

* Source.—*Land and People of Tribal Bihar*, 1961, pp. 88-89, 119, and 215—219.

on the principles indicated above. If owing to his marriage with a non-Mundari girl or some misbehaviour, any of the legitimate sons of the deceased has been outcasted unless after giving up the alien wife, he has been restored to caste by the tribal *panchayat,* he shall be debarred to inheritance. When deceased owner leaves no son but only a childless widow or a widow with daughters only, the widow is allowed a life-interest in the property left by her husband. Daughters do not inherit. Nor are the sons of the deceased under any obligation to make over to a sister of theirs anything which their father, either on his death-bed or earlier, desired them to give her. The sons are, however, bound to support unmarried sisters until their marriage. When a deceased *Munda* leaves an unmarried daughter or daughters and no widow or son, the unmarried daughter or daughters will be entitled to the personal property left by their father, and will remain in possession of the lands left by the deceased till their marriage. Neither a daughter's husband nor a daughter's sons are entitled to inherit. In the absence of sons, or widow, or unmarried daughters of a deceased *Munda,* his property goes to the nearest male agnate or agnates.

The *'Gor-Jonrea'* or *ghar-dijoa* resident son-in-law who lived with his sonless deceased father-in-law till the latter's death and assisted him in his cultivation and other affairs, will get all the movable property left by the deceased. and such share of the real property, if any, as according to the circumstances, the tribal *panchayat* may think proper to give him, the rest going to the nearest male agnate or agnates.

Illegitimate sons of the deceased or sons of the deceased's wife by a former husband do not get any share in the property left by the deceased. But if any such son had been living in the same house with the deceased, he is sometimes given a small plot of land for his maintenance, although he cannot claim this as a matter of right. He can have no legal right even to any lands that his father (the deceased) might have given him to cultivate and on the death of the father, he is bound to give up such lands if the legitimate heirs of the deceased owner so demand.

Sometimes when a sonless Munda gets old, he chooses one of his *bhayads*—a cousin, nephew or grand-nephew, to be his prospective son, and calls a *panchayat* of his *kili* for confirmation of the adoption. If the *panchayat,* including his other *bhayads,* approve the chosen relative may be adopted as a son, and take care of the old man and his property, and inherit his property on his death to the exclusion of the other agnates.*

Kharias.—The Kharias are patrilineal. Their lineage, descent and inheritance to property are traced through father's side. The daughters are not given share in immovable properties. The lands are partitioned

* S. C. Roy: *The Mundas and their Country,* 1912, pp. 427—485.

generally after the death of the father. In case of no male issue, the nearest relative from the male side inherits the property. In case of no male issue, the daughter may claim the property, if her husband comes to live in his wife's house. In course of time their male issue will inherit everything belonging to their mother's father. A Kharia may adopt a child as his son and the adopted son has full claim to the property.

Kharwars.—Among the Kharwars all the sons get equal share in the ancestral properties. In the absence of son, the wife and daughter have only a right of maintenance so long they are alive and unmarried respectively. But the wife is entitled to such right so long she lives in the husband's house. In case she re-marries or resides at her parent's house she loses the right of maintenance. In such a situation the nearest male relative of the deceased takes the charge of the whole property and he becomes responsible for the marriage of the daughter, if any, of the deceased. The daughter gets only movable property of her father or parents after her marriage.

Mahlis.—The Mahlis are patrilineal and descent is in the male line. The women have no right to property. Their only right is to maintenance. Formerly, among the Mahlis the eldest son used to get an extra share (*Jethang*) in the family property. But now this right is obsolete. Today they prefer to divide the entire property equally, but the division usually takes place only after the death of the father.

Binjhias.—Among Binjhias, the right of the eldest son over other sons to get a little more is recognised. The daughters are not entitled to a share in inheritance and are only expected to be maintained in the family till they are married. The husband has a right to make a gift of his property to his wife or daughter in case there is no male issue. In the order of succession a younger son by a wife married with full marriage ceremony excludes an elder son by a *sagai* wife but the latter is entitled to maintenance, a right which is denied to the son of a concubine.

Asurs.—Among Asurs, succession goes through the male line and all the sons of the deceased get equal share. In some cases the eldest son receives a little more than the others. The daughters have only maintenance and marriage rights in the family. The *Gharjamai* gets the right of manager of the properties left by his father-in-law and if he goes away to live at his own house, he does not get any right in his father-in-law's property. Similarly a widow also gets the right to maintenance and she may cultivate the land left by her husband. If she leaves the house and goes to her parent's place or re-marries, she loses the right in the late husband's property.

Marriage and Morals.

Hindus.—A Hindu marriage is monogamous. Bigamy is punishable as a crime*. A marriage is usually arranged among the high castes by the parents of the bride. The prohibited degrees must be avoided. In educated families the consent of the couple is also taken. In some communities marriage is settled only after the tally of the horoscopes of the parties. A marriage is performed on some auspicious day by a priest round the sacramental fire and is solemnised with *Saptapadigaman,* i.e., going round the sacred fire and *Havan* (i.e., oblation to fire god). After the performance of vedic rites, *Kanyadan,* i.e., giving away of the bride is done by the father or guardian of the bride, followed by *Kanyapanigrahana,* i.e., accepting the hand of the bride by the bridegroom on the utterance of solemn pledges. A marriage concludes after *Sindurdan,* i.e., application of vermilion by a bridegroom on the forehead of his bride. Sometimes educated persons also contract civil marriage. Law has given the right of divorce to either party on certain definite grounds†.

Muslims.—After taking the consent of the bride two male witnesses hear the testimony to the marriage. They make her intention to marry public and then the sermon of *khutba-nikah* is recited. The bride's father or *wali* gives away the bride in marriage to the bridegroom. On the eve of the departure of the bride for the house of the bridegroom *jalwa* ceremony is performed. The couple are made to see each other's face in a mirror and to read the *Kuran* together. Muslims are governed by Islamic law which permits one to have four wives at a time. A husband may divorce his wife at will though on return of the bride-price (dower) which acts as a deterrent. A wife has also the right under law to divorce her husband on certain grounds.

Tribals.—In tribal society departure of a girl from her parent's family to her husband's home is considered as an economic loss and must be made good. With this aim in view exchange of sisters in marriage takes place. In absence of such reciprocal union, bride's parents are compensated for the loss. The *levirate* and *sororate* type of marriage are also prevalent among the tribes. *Levirate* takes place between a man and his elder brother's widow and *sororate* between a man and his wife's younger sister or sisters. In the former there is no bride-price and in the latter very small.

Among Oraons monogamy is the rule. Marriage within the same clan is forbidden. Marriages between near relatives are not sanctioned by the community for it is believed that the *Dharmes* will punish the couple either causing loss of sight or leprosy, ulcers, etc. Marriages

* The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955.

† *Ibid.*

between boys and girls of the same village are not considered desirable. If an Oraon marries a person belonging to other tribe or caste, he or she is excommunicated from the tribe until the non-Oraon partner is given up. Widow re-marriage is widely practised. Divorce is frequent and permissible on various grounds, e.g., wife habitually runs away from her husband's house; she is lazy and neglects her household duties; she steals and sells grain, etc., from the house; she possesses an evil eye or is a witch; she has been caught in adultery; or when either party is a lunatic. Among Mundas clan exogamy is the rule. Divorce is common. Widow marriage is also in vogue.

The Kharias do not approve of marriage within the clan. No marriage or sexual relationship is permitted with younger brother's wife, wife's elder sister or husband's elder brother. Marriage with the wife of the deceased elder brother or wife's younger sister is permissible. Divorce on the grounds of sterility, impotency, neglect of household duties, laziness, etc., is common.

The Kharwars practice exogamy. Inter-marriage within certain degrees of collateral relationship is prohibited. Widow marriage is permissible. Divorce is common.

Among Mahlis, marriage is performed only outside the totemic clans. Divorce is executed with the consent of the *panchayat.* If the wife initiates it, she has to return the *pan-toka* to her husband, but not if the man starts the proceeding. Widow marriage as well as *levirate* and *sororate* marriages are in vogue among them.

Among Bedias a bride may be had only on payment of *Dhalitakka* (i.e., bride-price) and polygamy is not banned.

The Chik Baraiks are generally monogamous, though polygamy is permissible among them. Widow marriage is prevalent.

Among the Gonds, cross-cousin marriage is common. When a Gond wishes to marry his children, he looks first to his sister's children upon whom he has the first claim. When he takes a sister's daughter as a wife to his son, such an alliance is known as *Dudh lautana.* i.e., return of the milk. Monogamy and patrilocal residence are the general rule. Widow marriage is widely practised and divorce is frequent. In case a husband divorces his wife she can marry another man, but the new husband has to pay marriage expenses, known as *bunda,* incurred by the former.

Polygamy and widow marriage are permissible among the Gorait. Divorce is granted by their *panchayat* on grounds of cruelty, barrenness, impotency, adultery, etc.

Among the Asurs some unconventional forms of marriages such as marriage by service, elopement, force, as also in the form of *ghar jamai*, and exchange of sisters are noticed. *Levirate* and *sororate* are also in vogue. Re-marriage takes place in *sagai* form, but with observance of all customary formalities. The Asurs do not practice exogamy. Divorce may be demanded by either party.

Among Birhors clan exogamy is the sole principle of matrimonial eligibility, with only one exception, namely, the prohibition against marriages between persons standing to one another in the position of parent and child. *Levirate* and *sororate* are prohibited.

Among Birjias and Kisans polygamy is permitted. A Kisan widow may re-marry in *sagai* form. If a Kisan woman commits adultery with a member of her community, she is not excommunicated, but her seducer has to pay her husband, as a fine, all expenses that the latter had incurred at his marriage, and after this he has to marry the woman in the *sagai* form. The right of divorce is availed by either party. In case a woman divorces her husband, her parents have to pay half the bride-price to him.

The Christians have to be strictly monogamous though an exception to this rule is to be found where a man who had more than one wife before he was converted, is allowed to continue in that state.

Civil Marriage.

The following statistics show the incidence of civil marriage in this district:—*

Year.	No. of marriages.
1963	17
1964	22
1965	13
1966	29
1967	32

Economic Status of Women.

Women of high castes generally attend to household work and are dependants on their husbands. Muslim women look after looms in spare time and also do other domestic work. Hindu educated women are taking to profession of teaching, medicine and even clerical and secretariat jobs.

* Source.—District Sub-Registrar, Ranchi.

Non-Christian tribal women enjoy economic independence inasmuch as almost all of them work in fields, mines, quarries or factories. They look after cattle; cultivate fields; harvest crops; thrash them; keep poultry and piggery; bring fuel from hills and forests. Tribal Christian women have taken to all professions open to men. A fair percentage of them work as nurses in all leading hospitals of this State and even of neighbouring States.

Prostitution and Traffic in Women.

Prostitution as prevalent in feudal society does not exist in this district. This is due to the fact that the tribal society has given sufficient opportunity to its young men and women to mix freely. Their social institutions such as *Dhumkuria* and *Akhra* have stood guard against prostitution. However, with the industrialisation of Ranchi and migration of people to this town from all over India for employment in various projects the sex disparity due to the preponderance of men over women has begun causing social imbalance. It appears that cases of concubinage are on increase.

Drinking.

The traditional drink is *hanria,* which is prepared from rice or *mahua.* It has been a common drink of the tribals since time immemorial, but now it has a rival in distilled liquor which is sold everywhere through distilleries. This liquor is stronger and also more costly than '*hanria*', but the tribals are fast getting addicted to it, no matter they may have to spend the major portion of their income on it. The contractors and businessmen also spend a good amount of their earning over costly drinks. The foreigners working on different plants also consume substantial amount of it. Numerous bars and hotels have sprung up in Ranchi to cater for their demand.

Home Life.

Dwellings.—In rural areas mud huts are being replaced progressively by brick building. The impact of economic development, contact with the outside world and availability of building materials like cement, iron rods, etc., have brought in some changes in the types of houses in the rural areas. The houses of the people of the upper income group are being built on modern designs. The houses of the well-to-do cultivators have *pucca* roof. Electricity is now available in rural areas, but not commonly consumed because of high price. New types of houses with variegated pattern are coming up in urban areas and are better furnished than before. The change in pattern makes for a more comfortable living. The houses of the higher income group are spacious, ventilated, and usually provided with modern conveniences. Most of the towns in the district are

still rural in character and there is not much of township. Towns have developed rather unplanned. Their growth is hardly controlled by the municipalities and many living areas are growing out without proper roads or sanitary arrangements. Owing to great demand for residential houses in urban areas, cheap and economic flats have come up. An average family has to pay a large percentage of its income as house rent. The poor people, however, still live in very small huts in insanitary condition though the aboriginal dwellings are kept exceptionally neat and clean.

Household Utensils, Furniture and House Decorations.—A cultivator usually has a few earthen cooking utensils, receptacles for water, some pots and jars for keeping his oil, salt, grain, etc.; a small oven (*tawa*), a few brass utensils, a light stone mill (*Chakri*), and a heavy one (*Janta*), one or two small bamboo receptacles (*Petara*), mats made of palm leaves (*chatai*); a rough bed (*khatia* or *charpai*) strung with coarse string round a bamboo or wooden frame. Grain is, however, generally stored in a circular receptacle (*kothi*), with mud sides and mud cover. The tribals use mostly earthen utensils for cooking purposes. The Christian tribals, however, have now begun using metal utensils including buckets. In their houses one can occasionally find glass tumblers and one or two cups and saucers. The richer people have a better set of furniture. They have bedsteads, almirah, chairs and tables, etc. China crockery and cutlery of modern type have also come into vogue. Copper pots, except for purposes of worship, are seldom used by Hindus. Aluminium utensils are mostly used by Muslims and Harijans. In tribal villages most people keep their clothes and other possessions in a bamboo basket called *Harka*. They usually sleep on mats made of date-palm leaf. Few persons possess cots. In some Christian houses one or two pieces of iron or wooden furniture may be found. Every house has one or two kerosene tin lamps called *Dhibri*. Lanterns are not found in every household. The ornate architectural designs of old are obsolete and plain houses are coming up.

Dress.

The traditional dress of the tribals is *Batoi* (loin cloth) and *Gamcha* (coarse towel). In winter when they feel cold, they cover their body with a cotton sheet. Women put on *paria*, plain or coloured, with various designs. Among the Oraons *Banna Kareya* (multi-coloured loin cloth) and *Ihathra Luga* (a dress for women) are no longer popular. The traditional dress is now worn only by old women or very poor men in remote villages. Trousers and bush shirts are generally used by students studying in schools and colleges. Some rustic adults are seen putting a scarf over their heads. *Lungi* of gaudy colours is popular and is used by young boys at the time of festivals and whenever they dance at the *akhara*. *Gangu*, raincoat made of leaves is used by women and children during

agricultural operation in the rainy season. Tribals serving outside on return home usually bring mill-made *saries* for their wives. Within the house middle-aged and old women rarely wear anything above their waist. But Christian women of all ages invariably wear a blouse.

Children wear frocks, small shirts and shorts. A smart close-fitting outfit of *salwar paijama, kurta* and *urhni* (a light cover for the upper part of the body) has become the favourite dress of young girls, particularly in schools and colleges. *Sari* in multiple shades and matching blouse are the common wear of women in middle and upper class families.

In urban areas, particularly Ranchi town, men by and large have adopted European dress. A pair of trousers and a flying shirt is their common dress. The students in schools and colleges have taken to close fitting costumes. Sola-hat is out of fashion. The white Khadi cap is also becoming unpopular. The dress of people is now simpler with an eye to durability and economy.

Ornaments.—The metals used for ornaments are gold, silver, copper, brass, etc. The principal indigenous ornaments are *mangtika* for head; *mala, har* and *hansuli* for neck; *jhumka, karnphool, bali* and *kanaili* for ears; *nath* and *nakphool* for nose; *bala* for wrist; *anant* for arms; *kardhani* for waist and *jhanj, payal* and *kara* for feet. These ornaments, though still in vogue in countryside, are being discarded in urban areas by educated classes. The poorer folk mostly wear ornaments of brass and copper. Among the non-Christian Mundas and Oraons, both men and women put on ornaments. Youths of both the tribes may be found wearing necklace of beads as well as metal bracelets. Most women wear *Bedio* in their ears. Necklace of different varieties are also worn by women. They also use trinkets and other silver or brass ornaments, which they can afford. Young girls wear plastic and silver ornaments and chain. Modern ornaments include bracelets, armlets, chains and ear-rings. Rings are common. Two decades ago, an average tribal girl would have been happy to move about with a small piece of rolled coloured mat in her ear-lobes. Now she wears cheap trinkets of coloured plastic. Nose ornaments are disappearing. *Matarmala* and *chandrahar* are becoming obsolete. Formerly women in well-to-do families were seen laden with heavy ornaments, but now they use fewer but light and elegant pieces. Males in the urban areas do not normally wear any ornament except rings, or chains and a wrist watch.

Personal Decoration.—Generally, tribals are very fond of personal decoration. At the time of dance, both men and women don gaudy costumes. Maiden adorn their hair with flowers. Among women tattooing on face and other parts of the body is common, but the educated tribals are averse to it. The use of trinkets and soaps is increasing.

Food.

Rice, *atta,* pulses, gram, vegetables, fish, meat and eggs are the usual items of food of the well-to-do. Various kinds of savoury food, meat, fish and egg preparations, sweets, curd and other milk products are also usually consumed by them. The cooking media are *ghee,* mustard oil, *surguja* oil and other edible oils. As *ghee* has become expensive, hydrogenated oils are used as substitute. Rice, *chapatis* (bread) of *atta,* and vegetables are the usual daily food for average upper class. The Punjabi restaurants which usually serve *tanduri chapati* and meat curry and Bengali sweetmeat shops have become very popular in Ranchi.

All tribals except the Bhagats are non-vegetarians. However, there are differences between different tribes regarding the kind of animal food they would take. Christian Mundas and Oraons in certain areas like to eat pork, but in other areas people abstain from it. Among most of the non-Christian tribals beef and pork are a taboo, but mutton and fowl are eaten with relish. In an average tribal family, however, the items of food are only two, namely, rice as the main dish and either some pulse or vegetable and sometimes cooked meat. The tribal diet is deficient in protein and calories. The consumption of vegetable is very meagre. The little quantity that is grown in kitchen gardens is kept solely for sale in *hats.* Only well-to-do families have three course meal, viz., rice, pulse and some vegetables or non-vegetarian dish. The milk yield of cattle in this district is very low and whatever milk can be extracted is left for calves. But taste for milk is developing and tea is now invariably taken with it. The tribals have now begun to appreciate the value of milk for children after seeing the good results of popular free milk distribution programmes in educational institutions and elsewhere.

Community Life.

Pilgrim Centres.—The *Rath Jatra* (Car festival of Lord Jagannath) at village Jagarnathpur near Ranchi and the *Kartik Purnima mela* at Ram Rekha Pahar in the Simdega subdivision draw a large number of pilgrims not only from this district but also from outside and promote cultural exchange among them.

Dance.—Dance and music are an integral part of tribal life. They promote fellow feeling and community living by bringing people together. Most villages have *akhara* where the youths, both men and women, assemble almost every evening to dance to the tune of local music and enjoy on festive occasions. These dances go on for days together. However, Christianity does not look with favour on such recreation. Among the Roman Catholic Oraons and Mundas dance

takes place only on occasions such as *Easter Sunday, Swargarohan* (May), harvesting (October), Christmas and all Saints' Day. Christians do not dance in the *akhara.* Only boys and girls up to the age of eight to ten take part in it. The educated tribal youth also regards this form of enjoyment as old fashioned. In urban areas dances are now going out of vogue.

In places where *Dhumkuria* exists, dancing occurs either daily or on alternate nights. During the big tribal festivals such as *Sarhul, Karma* and *Sohrai* dancing lasts for over twenty-four hours in continuous relays. For the last few years, Government is keen on giving encouragement to tribal dance and song. This has given an impetus to these arts. Villages are competing among themselves to train their youth and send the best dancing parties to compete at Divisional, State and National Youth festivals.

Festivals.

Durgapuja, Deepawali, Shivratri and *Holi* are the important festivals of the Hindus, in which bulk of tribals also participate. They take out *Mahaviri Jhanda* procession on the *Ramanavami* day with great enthusiasm and also celebrate *Rath Jatra. Muharram, Shabe-barat, Ramzan, Id, Bakrid,* and *Fateha dwaz dahum* are the important festivals of the Muslims. The Christians observe Christmas, Good Friday and Easter. The Jains, Sikhs and Arya Samajists also celebrate the birth-day of the founders of their faith.

The tribals observe the following festivals:—

Mage.—This is celebrated on the full moon day of *Poush* month to worship the spirits of the deceased ancestors.

Phagu.—This is celebrated in the month of February or March corresponding with the Holi festival. The village deity is worshipped on this occasion and the annual hunt is initiated. People also sprinkle coloured water to enjoy this festival.

Sarhul.—This is a festival of flowers. In the month of March-April, the *sal* flowers are brought to the *sarna.* The *Pahan* propitiates all gods of the Mundas. The celebration goes on for several days.

Aouba.—This is held in April-May before sowing the first crop. The household gods are worshipped on this occasion.

Karam.—It is celebrated in the month of August-September for the prosperity of the village. The *Karam* sapling is brought from the jungle by an unmarried male, and planted in the village with singing, dancing and taking of rice-beer.

Sohrai.—This is celebrated in the month of October-November. The Munda owners of cattle fast for the whole day. In the night, lamps are lighted. On the following morning, the cattle shed is washed and sprinkled with rice-beer. The cattle are fed in plenty.

Nawakhani.—This festival is observed in the month of October-December in remembrance of the ancestors when offerings are made.

Sarhi Kutari.—This is observed mainly by the Asurs for the prosperity of their iron-smelting industry.

Recreation.

Hunting is a traditional pastime of the tribals. Cock fight has also been of absorbing interest to them since time immemorial. Apart from actual participants, even spectators bet on the winner cock. Dance and music with *mandar* and flute are also an important source of their recreation. Hockey has been a popular sport in the countryside for about a century. Football is also becoming popular. The tribals regale themselves over community drink. The cycle of festivals seldom leaves them in want of mirth. They trek long distances to *melas* and *hats* to enjoy social life as well as fun and gaiety. Itinerant cinema and circus also visit rural areas occasionally. Community radio listening also draws good audience.

In urban areas cinema is a common source of entertainment. Students have imbibed a craze for pictures. Ranchi town itself has six cinema houses. Clubs, athletics, games, variety musical entertainment, religious discourses, etc., provide towns people with recreation. However, dearth of parks and public grounds limit the scope of enjoyment of the growing population of Ranchi. Hotels and restaurants also are places for social gathering and amusement. Running commentary on cricket matches provides good recreation to urban audience. Besides, soccers and cricket matches draw large crowds. People working in factories, particularly in higher income groups often go to hills and jungles on picnic. Travel to beauty spots is also becoming a regular feature of their life. Youth-hostelling and mountaineering are providing new avenues for their recreation.

Economic and Professional Groups in relation to Social Life.

The people in this district continue to be primitive cultivators. They have not availed of the high prices of foodgrains. On decline of lac cultivation their economic condition has rather deteriorated. During 1939—45 period, a class of contractors associated with war industries rose. It had a decline on the cessation of the war, but has rallied in the post-1960 era in the wake of the industrialisation of Ranchi and become very prosperous. The local businessmen based mainly on distilleries, road transport and cinema, who played but a minor role in society in pre-1947 days have become a dominant force and wield considerable influence. The indigenous moneylenders have somewhat ceased to dominate the rural scene. The feudal structure of society with the top bureaucrats at the apex and supported by Zamindars crumbled after 1947. The politicians and businessmen occupied the vacuum with bureaucrats playing a subordinate role. The professional classes such as lawyers and doctors also rose into prominence. The engineers who had not been much in evidence before, became affluent and came to occupy an important place in society. In post-1960 era, with all-round expansion of modern industries in the district, both in public and private sectors, a new industrial class led by highly paid managerial services has appeared in the society with all affluence and power to give employment and has completely eclipsed the old time bureaucracy. The labour force employed on the industrial projects have also substantial purchasing power and through their organisations exercise much influence on the contemporary scene.

Impact of abolition of Zamindari.—The abolition of Zamindari system has had its effect on the social life. Till about the middle of the present century, the traditional leadership of society came from the Zamindars of high castes. On the abolition of Zamindari and consequent loss of prestige in rural areas, the Zamindars largely vanished from the rural scene and many of them settled in Ranchi and other towns and took to business, such as timber, minerals, public vehicles and carriers, cinemas, etc. The leadership in countryside has now vested in the Block Development Officer, Block Medical Officer and *Anchaladhikari* who together with lower ranks dominate the scene. The local *Panchayat Mukhiyas*, mostly petty ex-landlords or *mahajans* look to these officials for inspiration.

However, the social vacuum created by the departure of Zamindars from the countryside has not been filled up as the block officials are not an integral part of the society as they come and go and have no permanent interest in the locality they serve.

Festivals and folk arts in rural areas are now bereft of their traditional patronage. Law and Order also miss the strong hands of the former Zamindars.

Industrialisation.

The modern civilisation has stirred social life even in remote villages, although the old traditions and beliefs still prevail there. The urban and quasi-urban areas are undergoing a complete transformation. Generally the family life is becoming more and more individualistic. In rural areas joint family is disintegrating and educated persons are migrating to towns which hold prospect of employment to them. The tribals have started shedding their indigenous character. They are leaving their homes to earn living in mining and industrial establishment. The uprooting of the tribals from their home environments has brought material advancement for individuals. However, its social repercussion has yet to be seen. Industrialisation has promoted dignity of labour among upper castes and has reduced the social gulf among them. It has also brought some amount of unrest in society, centring round the problems of labour.

Urbanisation.

It is a necessary corollary to industrialisation. This phenomenon became distinct after 1947, in the wake of the Five-Year Plans sponsored by Government. The process has been intensified after the modern industries have come to this district, particularly round about Ranchi. It has occasioned uprooting of people whose lands have been taken for the sites of various industries and thus created the problem of their relief and rehabilitation. Further, it has caused sex imbalance in society and also housing shortage, though it has taken only a small portion of the rural population off the land.

Fairs (*Melas*)

The following fairs and *melas* are held in the district of Ranchi:—

Gandhi mela.

It is held on the Gandhi Maidan at Simdega on the eve of the Indian Republic Day (January 26). The main features are a cattle show, exhibition of agricultural products and amusements.

Jatra mela.

It is held at Gumla continuously from *Magh Purnima* to *Shivaratri*, coinciding with the marriage season of the aboriginals as also the new cultivating season.

Cattle are usually gifted in the marriages of the aboriginals. Some castes like Rautias, Ahirs, Oraons and Mahlis present *Dubha*, *Kansa* (bell metal) utensil resembling a big cup to the bride at the time of marriage. Almost all the people who attend the marriage may give a present of *Dubha*. This attracts a large number of shopkeepers in utensils and brass vessels from Ranchi, Lohardaga and other places. Formerly a large-scale transaction in cattle, utensils and agricultural commodities took place, but the sale is now much reduced.

Magh mela.

It commences on the first day of *Magh* and touches by rotation Khunti, Murhu, Kamdara, Jaria, Karra, Dorma, Karramarcha, Lodhma and other pre-arranged places for specified periods. It ends on the full moon day of the same month. It is commercial in origin and provides a good market for the local produce and helps the people in purchasing their requirements not available in their locality.

Murma mela.

It is held on *Pratipada* day and attracts the aboriginals in large number.

Palkot mela.

On the eve of *Ram Navami* and *Dasahara* a *mela* is held at Palkot in the Gumla subdivision. It has a religious background. In the hills of Palkot there are several caves where saints are said to have done *tapasya* (meditation) in the past. Learned Pandits from outside attend the *mela* and religious discourses are held for 9 days.

Patratoli mela.

It is held for two days just before the *Maghi Purnima* at Patratoli in Raidih police-station in Gumla subdivision. This is a hilly area and people from long distances come here to purchase articles of domestic use.

Ram Rekha mela.

It is held 16 miles north-west of Simdega, on a hill top, every year on the *Kartik Purnima* day and lasts for two days.

It was on the suggestion of an ascetic, Hariram Singh, Zamindar of Biru Estate (Simdega police-station) that the name of "Burha Pahar" was changed to Ramrekha, present venue of the fair. Thereafter Tikait Gajraj Singh of Biru, grandson of Hariram Singh, initiated the *mela*. There is a big cave with a temple inside where stone images of Ram, Lakshman, Sita and Hanuman are installed. The cave has a semblance of a bow and is popularly known as

"Ramdhanu". It can accommodate 200 to 300 persons at a time. The assemblage is about 10 to 15 thousand persons who are attracted by the religious background of the *mela.* There is also a crevice where it is said there is a perennial source of water known as *Patal Ganga,* immediately to the west of the cave. About 200 yards further south-west of the cave there is a water reservoir about 6 feet wide and 10 feet deep with a length of about 40 feet on a rocky bed. A legend says that Ram Chandra shooting an arrow on the rock extracted water. The shape of the reservoir is also like a bow and is known as "Dhanuskund" where people take their holy dip. The third one is said to be an oven of Sitadevi which emits warm vapour. This is situated about 400 yards to the west of the "Dhanuskund". This warm vapour can be felt by placing the hand just at the opening of a conical stone slab setting. The fourth cave, now covered with thorny shrubs, is too difficult of access. There is a priest who offers daily worship. A particular feature of the *mela* is folk dance by the aboriginals, which goes on the whole night on both days of the *mela.*

Satighat mela.

A fairly big *mela* is held annually on the last day of the month of *Pous* at Satighat on the banks of the river Subarnarekha in Sonahatu police-station of the Khunti subdivision. It is religious in conception. There is a *Shiva* temple by the side of the river where pilgrims after bathing in the river, offer *pujas.*

Simdega mela.

It is held at Simdega every year on the *Pous Purnima* day and continues for five days. This was started by the *Sansar* Adivasis with a religious background. This appears to have been organised as a matter of rejoicing on the first harvest of winter paddy. The bulk of the *Sansar* Adivasis having become Christians, the original spirit with which it was started is not manifest now. However, about 4 to 5 thousand persons attend it daily.

Tangartoli mela.

It is held in Kurdeg Block of Simdega subdivision and is noted for the *Yatra mela.*

CHAPTER IV.

FORESTS.*

RETROSPECT.

The aboriginal migrants to this district found it covered with virgin jungle and began to cut it to make room for cultivation. This process was accelerated with the natural growth in population as also arrival of newer tribes, who drove their predecessors to remoter areas. In ancient times this part of the country was known as '*Atavi*' (i.e., dense forest) and later as 'Jharkhand' (i.e., jungly tract) to the Aryans. Early in the 17th century, the Mughal Administration also referred to it as 'Jharkhand'. This suggests the presence of thick forests in this district.

In 1880 Captain Henry Gray reported that the Barkagarh Estate abounded in rich timber, but there was no preservation of forests and that the whole of the jungle would disappear if steps were not taken to prevent the wholesale destruction. There was regular trade between Chota Nagpur and the East India Railways in respect of sleepers. The contractors had no real rights in the jungles, but they purchased the standing timber from the owners of the jungles and carried them off. The Settlement Officer remarked that the whole country was being denuded of forest wealth and nothing was being done to replace the loss, by encouraging the growth of young trees which were also in great demand for local use as larger ones were used for railway sleepers. He pointed out that *Sarna,* the sacred groves, found in each village, showed to what beauty and maturity the *Sal* trees could grow if they are preserved. He also referred to the fine large trees brought up by Stainforth at Hotwar with great care and attention. He observed that there was enormous increase in the cost of firewood and this exercised a great pressure on the forest. He strongly advocated for future preservation of forests.†

As far back as 1883, Hewitt, the then Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, noticed a large-scale destruction of forests. In 1885, Dr. Schlich reported that the Hazaribagh and the Ranchi plateaux contained comparatively little forest. At the Survey and Settlement (1902—1910) the area under forests in the Ranchi district approximated to about 2,281 square miles, i.e., about 32 per cent of the total land area of the district.‡ At the

* Also *see* 'Flora' in General Chapter *(Supra)*, pp. 22—24.

† Captain Henry Gray, Settlement Officer, Barkagarh Estate: Report (1880). Also *see* the report of Major Depree of the Topographical Survey in his Geographical and Statistical Report of Chota Nagpur.

‡ Reid: *Survey and Settlement Report*, 1902—1910, p. 127.

Revisional Survey and Settlement (1927—1935) this area shrank to about 1,956 square miles, i.e., 27 per cent of the total land area.* Thus during a period of 25 years, 325 square miles of forests had disappeared. When the forests were notified under the Bihar Private Forests Act, 1946 and demarcation was done only about 1,065 square miles were found under forests in this district. Adding 213 square miles of reserve forests to this, the total area under forest in this district came to 1,278 square miles. Thus in course of a decade over 600 square miles of forests disappeared. Since then extension of cultivation, rapid industrialisation and more intensive exploitation of timber have further reduced the acreage under forests. With the passing of the Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950, all forests have vested in the State, but heavily burdened with various rights of the *raiyats* who invariably exceed their statutory rights and cause much devastation to forests. The devastations wrought by man, his cattle and fires have far exceeded Nature's replenishment of vegetation. Afforestation is a very recent phenomenon. It can hardly keep pace with the incidence of deforestation. In 1964-65 forests covered only about 4,334 sq. k.m. or 23.85 per cent of land in this district.†

Distribution.

The forests of the Ranchi district are mainly confined to its hilly tracts. The central plateau is comparatively bare of vegetation. The largest compact forest areas occur towards the north, north-west and west of the district bordering Palamau and extending from Burmu and Khelari to Raidih beyond Gumla. Another such block occurs in the south-eastern corner in Tamar thana bordering Singhbhum. Due to spread of population, the Simdega tract has been much denuded of forest and what remains is heavily honey-combed with cultivation. The forests in Angara, Silli and Ormanjhi areas are very scattered and now only the upper slopes of the hills are covered with comparatively poor type of forests.

Causes of Deforestation.

The deforestation began initially with the *"Jhuming"* or shifting cultivation practised by the aboriginal tribes, who started felling trees and burning them to enrich the soil on which they raised crops for a year or two and then left it to resume the process elsewhere. As their numbers multiplied, more and more forests were thus destroyed for cultivation.

The indiscriminate exploitation of forests by vendees or lessees under the landlords, particularly during the last World War (1939—45) has been a major factor of deforestation. During this period on account of high demand for all varieties of timber, there was hardly any forest which was not ruthlessly exploited.

*Taylor: *Revisional Survey and Settlement Report*, 1927—1935, p. 60.

†Statistical Glimpses of Bihar Forests, 1964-65, p. 4.

The settlement by landlords of steep slopes for cultivation by *raiyats* in consideration of a small amount as *salami* also caused considerable damage to forests.

According to the latest records of right, the *raiyats* of the village in which there is forest, have right to take forest produce free for their domestic uses. Some villages where forests have disappeared, have the said right in other forests. The *raiyats* usually cut timber in excess of their need and are also wasteful.

The landlords used to leave the administration of their forests to *amlas*, who in lieu of small payment to them often allowed timber to such villagers who had no customary right to cut it.

When the Zamindari Abolition Act was in the offing, there was wanton destruction of forests both by the landlords and the *raiyats*.

Fire and grazing have also wrought havoc to forests. Some people are inclined to think that these are minor factors, but the latest researches have shown that the maximum damage to forest occurs through them. Fire removes all the humus from the forest floor and burns down the seedlings and thus makes the reproduction of the forests impossible and opens up the soil to erosion. Grazing is equally harmful for regeneration as young shoots are not allowed to establish. The worst conditions for destruction of forest areas are annual cutting, followed by grazing and fire which these forests have been subjected to for hundreds of years, reducing them to the present stage.

Even after the enactment of the Bihar Private Forests Act, 1946 when the State Government assumed the control and management of the private forests of this district together with others, this problem of destruction of forests by *raiyats* has not stopped. Though the cutting by contractors has been regulated and further reclamation of forest lands has been stopped, the damage by the *raiyats* is still continuing.

Protection of Forests.

As referred to above, Hewitt, the then Commissioner of Chota Nagpur drew the attention of the Government of Bengal towards the denudation of forests and the latter appointed a committee to make local enquiries as to the extent of deforestation in Chota Nagpur and Orissa and on the recommendation of this committee it was decided that preservation of large tracts of forests in these areas was essential. The provisions of the Bengal Forest Act VII of 1878 were, however, not considered appropriate. Under this Act a landlord might apply to have his forest managed by Government as reserved or protected forests, but experience had shown that landlords had not taken advantage of this provision in the past and

there was no reason to anticipate that the landlords of Chota Nagpur would make use of it in future, as they did not yet appreciate the benefits of scientific management, which might secure for them large profits in future, though deprive them of immediate benefit. Nor was it considered desirable to apply to Chota Nagpur those sections of the Act which gave Government the power to take over certain tracts and enforce certain prohibitions, subject to the condition that the owner might claim to have the forest acquired. It was thought that the cost of acquisition was a bar to any action on these lines and that, apart from this, such action would not be acceptable either to landlords or tenants and would cause considerable friction between them, as they would have to adjust their joint claims to new conditions. It was, therefore, proposed to introduce a Private Forest Bill, the objects of which were : (*i*) to empower the Government to intervene, in the public interest, to preserve private forests from destruction; and (*ii*) to facilitate, or in some cases direct, the afforestation of private waste lands.

The Bill gave power to the Forest Officer in charge of any forest of which Government had assumed control, to scrutinise leases, to supervise cutting and growing, and to prevent fires. Both landlords and tenants were to be left as free as possible to exercise their customary rights, but in extreme cases the Forest Officer would have power to close entirely blocks of forest and fines could be inflicted on the village communities or on the proprietors if damage was done to such closed blocks, either by felling timber, by cultivation, or by grazing of cattle. The Bill was circulated to elicit public opinion and the reactions, both from the landlords and the missionaries, who voiced the opinion of the aborigines, indicated the great difficulty of reconciling their conflicting interests. Both parties admitted the necessity, but the landlords viewed with disapproval a measure which would result in expropriating them from their forests, for a term so extended that it would in practice amount to permanence, without giving them any adequate compensation, and the *raiyats* feared that the powers given to the Forest Officers to enforce prohibition would result in depriving them of their customary rights, in particular of their right to take jungle produce and to graze their cattle in the jungle, and that the management of the forests would let loose a number of forest subordinates who would practise extortion in various ways. In view of the opposition which the introduction of the Bill would inevitably have stirred up, the Government of Bihar and Orissa decided not to proceed with it.

Now the only alternative remained to persuade the landlords to offer their forests for management under section 38 of the Indian Forests Act, 1927. Out of about 1,278 square miles of forests till 1946 only 170 square miles were offered and taken over under this provision. This,

however, did little to solve the problem of destruction of forests. There was large-scale felling during the First World War (1914–18) and the destruction reached its peak during the Second World War (1939–45) when large quantity of timber, *ballies*, packing wood, etc., were cut and removed from the forests of this district for war supply. Large number of troops were also concentrated in this district during the Second World War and a lot of felling in these forests took place to meet their demand of firewood and housing timber. Hardly any forest of the district remained unaffected. Big trees were combed out from all over. However, on the conclusion of the war, the Governor promulgated in 1946 the Bihar Private Forests Act which empowered the State Government to take over the private forests for control and management.* Subsequently this Act of 1946 was re-enacted as Bihar Private Forests Act (Act IX of 1948) and continued as law till the Land Reforms Act, 1950 was promulgated. Thus a measure which was recommended by the Committee appointed in 1909 could be given effect to only in 1946 after a lapse of 37 years while destruction of forests continued. Nor did the pace of destruction stop immediately after the enactment of the Act in 1946. The landlords had come to know of the measure and sufficient time elapsed between the passing of the Act and the completion of the formalities, i.e., issue of notification, etc. By the time the Forest Department could legally assume control of these forests, both landlords and *raiyats* destroyed much of them. The landlords sold as much timber as they could as in view of the Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950, they were soon to lose their proprietorship over their forests. They also incited the *raiyats* to cut as much timber as the latter could do. Even after the assumption of control by the Forest Department they continued cutting timber for some time.

However, the control over forests was strengthened gradually and they were brought under regular management. The felling by the landlords and contractors was regulated and confined to annual coupes according to schemes drawn up provisionally pending the preparation of regular working plans which are now in operation. It was, however, felt that the forests still needed protection. This was provided by the Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950.

MANAGEMENT.

There are three divisions for management of the forests in this district : Ranchi East, Ranchi West and Gumla.

Ranchi East and West Divisions.—They extend over the civil subdivisions of Sadar and Khunti. The western hilly zone contains the best

*In fact this Act had been drafted in 1937 with a view to stop the destruction of forests and take over their management as the Government were contemplating abolition of all zamindaris, but on account of the World War this Act remained in abeyance till 1946.

forests and forms almost a compact block of predominant species of sal while bamboo of good quality is also found in it. *Salai* dominates the ridges and hill tops. The forests in the eastern zone have been over-exploited and now contain only sapling crop. In the central zone forests have been reduced in several instances to patches of a few acres. The other economic products are *biri* leaves, *sabai* grass, lac, *mahua* flowers and myrobalans.

The beauty spots are Horap and the waterfalls at Hundru, Jonha and Dasom.

Afforestation is specially being done in Lohardaga, Kuru, Tamar and Beo thanas. The Damodar Valley Corporation have also taken up afforestation in the catchment areas of the local stream and soil conservation work at various places.

Gumla Division.—The Gumla Forest Division was created out of the Ranchi Division on the 1st June, 1952. The jurisdiction of this division extends over the civil subdivisions of Gumla and Simdega.

The beauty spots in this division are Rajadera, Sadani falls in Chainpur thana, Sankh gorge in Raidih thana and Ramrekha in Simdega thana.

Regular afforestation has been taken up in this area by the Afforestation Division.

Forest Produce.

Timber and firewood are classed as major forest produce. The forests of this district are seriously deficient in timber. Particularly during the last World War all good timber and poles were cut away from the accessible forests. Only in the remote western parts of Lohardaga thana, west of Pakhar Plateau, some timber has been left standing, because want of extraction roads made its economic exploitation impossible. For similar reason some timber is also to be found in the north-western part of Tamar bordering on Murhu and Bandgaon on the Ranchi-Chaibasa road. The result is that now in Ranchi town as also in the more populated parts all over the district it is difficult to get even a few decent poles and good *sal* timber with reasonable ease and at cheap rate. The timber available in the north-west corner of the district can economically be taken only to Latehar railway station from where it is shipped to Uttar Pradesh, Hariyana and Punjab.*

Firewood is a principal produce of the forests. But there are areas where it is not available due to destruction of local forests and the inhabitants have to burn cow-dung cakes as fuel and thus deprive their

*With improved road communications this is now being made available to the people of this district also.

agricultural land of valuable manure. Such areas are mainly in Sonahatu thana, central and eastern regions of Tamar thana, the region encompassed by and around the triangle Khunti-Karra-Torpa, and certain localities between Ranchi and Lohardaga by the main road.

Kendu leaf (leaf of *Diospyros melanoxylon*) is available in large quantities for *biri*-making. Suitable organisation for its economic exploitation has not, however, been set up yet by the trade. There is much potentiality to collect revenue from this source.

Lac is also an important forest produce and the industry has received a fillip from the Indian Lac Research Institute at Namkum near Ranchi town. Tamar, Bundu and Silli thanas mainly cultivate lac. *Palas* (*Butea frondosa*), *Kusum* (*Schleichera trijuga*), *bair* (*Zizyphus-jujuba*) are its principal hosts. Lac is also grown on croton (*Croton oblongifolium*) and on the ficus (*Ficus cunea*). At Bundu and Murhu there are several shellac factories.*

Myrobalans (*amla, harre* and *bahera*) are also of economic value. Even more than in the case of *Kendu* leaf, some organisation for their economic exploitation is needed.

Bamboos are also available, but are in short supply and mainly confined to the extreme western and north-western parts of the district. Even to meet partial demand of Ranchi and its surroundings, bamboos are brought from near Netarhat about 95 miles away.

Sabai (*Eulalipois binata*) is found in some quantities, particularly in Bishunpur and Tamar thanas, but the quantity is insufficient even for local consumption. The bulk of it is brought for sale from Singhbhum.

Kend and *piar* fruits and *mahua* are much fancied by the local population as articles of food. For part of the year in certain localities these and particularly *mahua*, are almost staple diet for the aboriginal population.

Of medicinal produce, *Chiretta* (*Andrographis paniculata*) is found in abundance, particularly on the rocky hill sides of Silli thana, in the vicinity of Taimara in Bundu thana and on the eastern hills of Tamar thana. *Kurchi* bark (*Holarrhena antidysenterica*) used as a cure for dysentery is plentiful all over. *Anant mool* (root of *Hemidesmus indicus*), a cure for fever and skin diseases, is found in moist localities. *Lodha* (*symplocos racemosa*), whose bark is used in conjunctivities and in dysentery and other bowel complaints, is also fairly common.

The bark of *amaltas, arjun* and *asan* are used for tanning purposes. *Harre* fruit is also similarly used.

* Also *see* the Chapters on 'Agriculture and Irrigation' and 'Industry'.

The pharmacology of many medicinal plants used by the Adivasis is yet to be studied. Some pioneering work has been done to collect the names of the herbs and plants by Father Bressers*.

Effects of Deforestation.

It is universally recognised that for the balanced economy of a country and its proper development, it must have one-third of its land under forests. Apart from providing timber, fuel and raw materials for various industries, forests preserve springs, maintain water in the streams, raise the water table, obviate floods, increase the rainfall and reduce temperature. They preserve soil even on steep slopes and prevent their run off.

The effect of deforestation is now manifest in this district. The water table is going down and wells get dry in early summer, a phenomenon which was unheard of in olden days. The floods in rivers Subarnarekha and Damodar are of common occurrence and in order to prevent extensive damage to fields in the lower reaches of these rivers, particularly the Damodar, great precautions have to be taken. The afforestation in the catchment areas of the river Damodar has cost a great deal. Deforestation has made good poles and timbers rather scarce and this reflects in the high cost of cultivation. Agricultural crops fail very often due to paucity of rains and whatever rain falls is not preserved due to lack of forest cover and it runs away washing a lot of silt and good soil with it and depositing them in the sea, making the land still poorer.

Right of Landlords and Tenants.

In course of time the forest rights in the Ranchi district got stabilised in three categories : (*i*) *Khutkatti* villages of the Munda areas still intact, proprietary rights in forests vested in the *Khutkattidars,* who retained them by fiercely opposing any interference by superior landlords; (*ii*) in another group of villages the proprietary rights of descendants of the original settlers passed to the landlords and the *raiyats* had the right to take timber, firewood and other forest produce for domestic purposes only, and (*iii*) in the residual villages the *raiyats* were completely denied any right in the forests.†

Settlement Record of Jungle Rights.

From a perusal of the records of right prepared at the last Survey and Settlement it appears that there were some forests which were known as *Malik Rakhat* in which the tenants had no right except taking dead,

* *See* Rev. Fr. J. Bressers S. J. : *The Botany of the Ranchi District*, 1951.

† These were found in many places, specially in the Sadar subdivision.

dry and fallen trees. In majority of the forests, however, the *raiyats* possessed right to forest produce for their own use and right for grazing their cattle.

Broadly the main rights of tenants are : (1) To take timber for construction and repairs of their houses including cow-sheds, and for agricultural implements; (2) to take wood for fuel; (3) to graze their own cattle in the forest; (4) to take the fruit of *mahua* and other forest trees for their *bona fide* consumption; (5) to rear lac in the forest; and (6) to take wood for funeral purposes.

Revenue.

The revenue derived from the forests in the Ranchi district from 1956-57 to 1966-67 was as follows*:—

Year.	Revenue (in rupees).
1956-57	3,75,603
1957-58	4,37,898
1958-59	4,85,382
1959-60	5,17,192
1960-61	6,02,147
†1961-62	10,80,509
1962-63	12,38,838
1963-64	15,26,791
1964-65	17,31,426
1965-66	19,10,039
1966-67	20,04,301

The progressive rise in prices of timber is reflected in the higher revenues of the successive years rather than the corresponding rise in the volume of extracted timber.

Forest Roads and Bungalows.

Most of the forest roads pass through regions of superb scenery. The forest bungalaws are usually located amidst attractive environs‡.

Shikar Zones.

The Ranchi district has no National Park, but shooting is very much restricted. There is ample scope for the development of particular zones for shooting of game on an organised basis. At present there is no

* Source.—Chief Conservator of Forests, Ranchi.

† The figures of revenue of Gumla Forest Division have been included from 1961-62 to 1966-67 only.

‡ For details of forest roads and bungalows, *see* the chapter on 'Communications'.

separate section in the Forest Department to look after the preservation of wild life and it is taken to be a part of the Forest Officer's duty. Some of the species have almost disappeared now. No particular range has been actively preserved for big game shooting. Timber production has not been invariably practised in this district on first class sites and particular areas have not been left for wild life and scenery. On account of location of modern industries in this district, recreational demand is potentially high and in particular areas timber production may be subordinated to its recreational use. The future does not indicate that all forest areas in this district will pay for their management owing to the increasing use of wood substitutes and better utilisation of forest products through technological advance. This district has still a great potential for judicious use of particular areas for shooting on an organised basis which may yield good revenue.

Prospect.

In 1965, the area under forest including afforestation was less than 24 per cent of the total area of the district, against the universally accepted norm that one-third of the land should be under forest to provide a balanced economy. The mature forests have been shrinking progressively and only small plants and saplings are coming up as substitute. A fast growing population, both on account of natural growth and immigration at an accelerated rate due to industrialisation of the district, poses a real threat even to the remaining forests. Clearance of jungles to make room for cultivation and provide fuel and timber for domestic use would cause their further shrinkage. Extensive mining, particularly of bauxite ores in the north and north-west of the district, and intensive industrialisation around Ranchi would also attribute to destruction of forests. This may diminish the area under pastures and lack of fodder may cause further deterioration of already poor stock of local cattle, which would continue to form the backbone of cultivation even in future. This in turn may damage the prospect of cultivation itself. Besides, disappearance of forests would cause scarcity of jungle produce on which the indigenous population subsists for about 2 to 3 months in a year. The native population has hardly a thought of morrow, let alone of the future generations. Thus it would continue to destroy forests as it has done through centuries before. Many take a pessimistic view that in about half a century, this district may look like a laterite desert and summer conditions may prolong, causing scarcity of water. If so, the situation may create a serious problem in respect of supply of drinking water. The drought may also affect the working of heavy industries which need plenty of water. They cite the instance of the Dimna Reservoir at Jamshedpur which had to be commissioned in

early forties to assure water-supply to the local steel works throughout the year when the supply from the river Subarnarekha became lean during summer on account of drying up of its source water in the Ranchi district, attributed to the destruction of natural vegetation.

In order to ward off such dismal prospect for the posterity, the present generations have to take effective measures for preservation of forest. The schemes of afforestation and scientific felling may not be an effective reply to widespread destruction. A very vigorous public opinion has to be created to make it forest-minded. No doubt, *Vana-Mahotsava* (tree plantation ceremony) week is observed annually, but its appeal has so far been only symbolic. Perhaps the audio-visual medium may be the best means to approach the masses in this regard.

The intelligentsia and public institutions may respond favourably to farm forestry. The Daladali tea-estate, about seven miles south-west of Ranchi, was created out of a barren laterite tract into a smiling garden by late Major Ramackers; the Hotwar Estate initially raised by Stainforth was developed by Baxters, a family of Irish Engineers. Timber has grown to perfection through care and preservation in these places. These spots may serve as demonstration pieces in respect of farm forestry. The campus of Ramkrishna Mission Sanatorium at Dungri, about ten miles south of Ranchi and that of the Birla Institute of Technology, Mesra, seven miles north-east of Ranchi are also fine examples of preservation of *Sal* forests. The industries which have sprung up, may make up for the destruction done by them by planting trees in vacant places round about their factories and establishments. Sanctuaries and national parks may also be created to preserve vegetation and give protection to the fauna, which apart from asthetic and educative value may add to the tourist industry of the district.

CHAPTER V.

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION.

Land : Area, Classification and Utilisation.

According to the Report on Revisional Survey and Settlement (1927–35) the area of the Ranchi district was 45,38,428.28 acres as against 45,44,832.21 acres in the last Settlement (1902–10)*. Thus, there was a decrease of 6,403.93 acres in the area. The report does not give any reason for this decrease. Out of the total area of 45,38,428.28 acres, 24,83,844.277 acres were cultivated and 20,54,584.003 acres were uncultivated lands.†

Cultivated lands have been broadly classified into *don* and *tanr*, 9,34,706.242 acres as *don* and 15,49,138.035 acres as *tanr*. The percentage of *don* to *tanr* land was 60.3 per cent to 52.9 per cent in the Settlement of 1902–10. The percentage of *don* land to the total cropped area was 37.06 as compared with 33.06 per cent in the last settlement, while that of *tanr* was 62.4 per cent as against 66.6 per cent. The decrease in the area of *tanr* land since the last settlement was ascribed to its conversion into *korkar don*. The percentage of *don* land to the total cropped area was lowest in the Gumla subdivision and highest in the Sadar subdivision, while that of *tanr* was lowest in the Khunti subdivision and highest in the Gumla subdivision.

After Taylor's Survey and Settlement there has been no other survey. The statistics of use of land collected later do not follow the classification in Taylor's Report. From the District Census Hand-Book of Ranchi (1956), it appears that the total area including unsurveyed land was 45,81,632 acres. The increase in the area of the district appears to be unaccountable as there had been no additions or alterations in the area of the district since the Revisional Survey and Settlement till 1951 when the usual decennial Census Operations were conducted.‡ It should, therefore, be more acceptable to go by the area given in the Revisional Survey and Settlement Report of 1927–35.

**Final Report on the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations in the District of Ranchi* (1927—35) by F. E. A. Taylor, p. 1.

†*Ibid*, Appendix-A, Table III, p. *xxvii*.

‡Subsequently in 1954 an area of 118.2 square miles was transferred to the Singhbhum district.

The following statement shows classification of land during 1960-61 (in '000 of acres)*:—

Total geographical area according to—		Classification of reported area.					Total cropped area.	Area sown more than once.
Professional survey.	Village paper.	Forest.	Not available for cultivation.	Other uncultivated land excluding fallow land.	Fallow land.	Net area sown.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
45,28	45,03	12,76	4,08	2,60	9,00	16,00	19,04	2,44

Size of Holdings.

According to the Revisional Survey and Settlement Report the average size of a plot was 0.79 of an acre as against 1.21 in the last settlement. The average density of plots per square mile was 806.5. The average *khatian* comprised of eleven plots covering an area of 8.72 acres. Such details are now not available. The District Census Hand-Book, Ranchi (1956) has given the distribution of 1,000 agricultural holdings by size of holdings based on a sample survey of size of holdings of 1951†:—

Up to .50 acre.	Exceeding .50 acre and up to 1 acre.	Exceeding 1 acre and up to 2 acres.	Exceeding 2 acres and up to 3 acres.	Exceeding 3 acres and up to 4 acres.
1	2	3	4	5
233	152	182	105	55

Exceeding 4 acres and up to 5 acres.	Exceeding 5 acres and up to 10 acres.	Exceeding 10 acres and up to 15 acres.	Exceeding 15 acres and up to 30 acres.	Exceeding 30 acres and up to 50 acres.	Exceeding 50 acres.
6	7	8	9	10	11
46	132	49	25	14	7

From its perusal it appears that about one-fourth of the holdings was up to 0.50 acre. Large size holdings were only an exception. The increase in population and consequent partition among the family members under the tenancy laws had apparently led to the shrinkage in the size of holdings. The average holding of a cultivator is small and uneconomic.

**Bihar Through Figures*, 1962, pp. 36-37.

†*District Census Hand-Book, Ranchi* (1956), p. 181.

Reclamation of Waste Land.

The following statement shows the areas reclaimed and the amount advanced under the Land Improvement Loans Act for the reclamation of waste lands*:—

Year.	Area reclaimed (in acres)†.	Amount advanced (in rupees)†.
1954-55	845.30	98,000
1955-56	1,008.74	1,06,070
1956-57	1,083.74	79,000
1957-58	1,162.65	49,000
1958-59	602.66	50,000
1959-60	334.74	24,860
1960-61	300.03	39,810
1961-62	341.10	19,700
1962-63	569.27	27,200
1963-64	211.96	17,000

From the above table it is apparent that only 6,460.19 acres had been reclaimed from 1954-55 to 1963-64 although a sum of Rs. 5,10,640 was advanced over them.

Subsidies are also given to cultivators for conversion of laterite waste lands into paddy fields by manual labour.

The statement below supplied by the Waste Land Reclamation Office, Ranchi, gives the figures of the areas reclaimed and amount spent through subsidy from 1954-55 to 1963-64:—

Year.	Area reclaimed (in acres).	Amount of subsidy (in rupees).
1954-55	204.87	12,000
1955-56	117.25	7,000
1956-57	800.00	80,000
1957-58	600.00	59,996
1958-59	100.00	10,000
1959-60	100.00	10,000
1960-61	63.00	6,300
1961-62	24.10	2,000
1962-63	70.03	4,747
1963-64	9.00	900

*Source.—Waste Land Reclamation Office, Ranchi.

†Both the amounts advanced and the areas reclaimed differ from the figures in the *Bihar Statistical Hand-Books* referred to previously.

Besides giving loans and subsidy to the cultivators for the reclamation of waste lands, the department of Waste Land Reclamation itself does some reclamation work. The details are given below:—

Year.	Area reclaimed (in acres).	Amount spent (in rupees).
1958-59	100	10,000
1959-60	550	17,500
1960-61	263	25,395
1961-62	80	8,646
1962-63	600.68	25,000
1963-64	215	12,200

The Waste Land Reclamation Department reclaims the Government *khas* land. From 1958-59 to 1963-64 about 50 acres of reclaimed land have been settled with the Adivasis and Harijans of the district.

Classes of Land.

The cultivable land of the district is divided into two classes, viz., *don* and *tanr*. The *don* lands are the terraced low patches on which only rice is grown and the *tanr* are the upland patches which produce a course variety of rice, known as *gora*, millets, pulses and oil-seeds. In the Khunti subdivision these lands are known as *loyong* and *piri*, respectively.

The *don* lands are prepared by levelling and embanking the slopes so that they may retain water. They are classified according to the amount of moisture they naturally retain. Fields lying at the bottom of the depressions between the ridges are known as *garha don*, and, as they retain moisture well, produce excellent crops in normal years and good crops even in years of drought. The most valuable *garha don* is *kudar*, that is, land kept permanently moist by a rivulet or spring flowing throughout. The lands lying next above the *garha don* are known as *sokra*, while those at the top of the slopes and immediately below the *tanr* lands are known as *chaura* or *bade*. Such lands are very sensitive and liable to drought, and those parts of the district which have the highest proportion of *chaura* lands are more liable to scarcity and famine. The *don* lands have been divided into following four classes:—

Don I—Lands which are continually wet and grow both the ordinary winter rice crop and a summer rice crop known as *tewa*.

Don II—Lands which produce the winter rice crop, which is harvested in the month of *Aghan* (December).

Don III—Lands which produce the winter rice crop which is usually harvested in *Kartik* (November).

Don IV—Lands which produce the autumn rice crop which ripens in *Bhado* and *Aswin* (October).

These four classes correspond to the *kudar, garha, Sokra* and *chaura don* respectively.

The uplands are also subdivided by the inhabitants according to their productiveness. The land nearest the village site which profits most by the manure and drainage of the houses is known as *diharidanr*. This includes the *bari* or small garden which is immediately adjacent to the house and is used for growing maize, vegetables and spices in which paddy seedlings are grown for transplantation. Further away from the village site come the ordinary *tanr* lands which are divided according to the fertility of the soil, the worst being that which is very stony, with little depth of soil (*rugri tanr*). The *tanr* lands have also been divided into three classes. *Tanr* I corresponds to the *baris* round the houses. *Tanr* II is level land more remote from the village, but with good depth of soil. *Tanr* III is the stony or sloping land usually away from the village site, with little depth of soil and little or no capacity to retain moisture.

Soil.

The soil of this district is mostly laterite and unfertile. In the low-lands there is a large admixture of clay, but the soil of the uplands consists mainly of sand and gravel and only thinly covers the rocks beneath. As is to be expected from its gneissic origin, the soil is rich in potash, but very deficient in lime and phosphates. The local names for the main varieties of soil are : (1) *Pankua,* or alluvial soil; (2) *nagra* also called *Chite,* a black sticky clay soil; (3) *Khirsi,* a loam consisting of equal proportions of clay and sand; (4) *rugri,* or gravelly soil; (5) *bala,* or sandy loam and (6) *lalmatia,* the red ferruginous sandy loam found in the *tanr* lands.

The recent investigations in the soil complex of the district show that there are wide differences in the chemical composition of the soils obtained from different places. The available potash content is quite

appreciable in all the soils excepting those in Itki and Kanke. Phosphoric acids content is low in the rest of the soils. The PH of the soil varies from 5.0 to 6.5.

Principal Crops.

The crops of the district fall under three main harvests : *aghani, bhadai* and *rabi*. The *aghani* is the winter crop which is harvested in the month of *aghan* and is composed mainly of winter rice. The *bhadai* is the early or autumn crop, in the month of *Bhado* (August-September) consisting of *Sathi* rice which ripens in 60 days, *gora* paddy, *marua,* and maize while the *rabi* crop includes such cold weather crops as wheat barley, grams, groundnut, pulses, etc. Rice is the staple food crop of the district. The rice grown on the uplands is known as *gora* and includes many varieties of coarse rice, such as *alsanga* and *karanga*. It is sown broadcast as soon as the first rains break and is reaped in September. It is sown all over the district.

The lowland paddy may be divided into two classes, viz., the *bhadai* and the *aghani*. The *bhadai* crop corresponds to the *lauhan* or light rice crop, grown on the *chaura don* and includes many varieties of coarse rice, such as *jhallar-genda* and *mughdi*. The *aghani* crop, which is reaped in November corresponds to the *gauham* or *barka* rice, grown on the lowest and the best lands, and includes the finer varieties of rice, such as *kalamdani, tilasor* and *rai-muri*. Experiments are being made to grow paddy with fish which have yielded good results.

Other Crops.

The principal *bhadai* crops grown on the uplands, apart from the *gora* rice, are other cereals, such as *gondli,* or small millet and *marua,* pulses, such as *urid,* and oil-seeds, such as *surguja*. The upland crops are usually sown in rotation. In the first year the ground is manured and a crop of *marua* sown; this is followed by a crop of *gora* paddy, which profits by the manure given in the previous year. In the next year *urid* is sown and in the last year *gondli,* which thrives even in a poor soil and which, being reaped early in the summer, can be followed in the same year by a crop of *surguja* or *kurthi*. Frequently *rahar* is sown with the *gora* or *gondli* and reaped in the *rabi* harvest while *bodi* is sown along with *marua*. In most villages, as the soil of the uplands is extremely poor, they are left fallow by turns for one, two or three years at a time.

Acreage under crops.

The statement below shows the acreage of the principal crops from 1950-51 to 1963-64*:—

Year.	Winter rice.	Autumn rice.	Summer rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Jowar.	Bajra.	Maize.	Gram.	Arhar.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1950-51 ..	9,49,287	3,03,409	860	2,206	966	..	..	88,933	18,887	7,553	27,734
1951-52 ..	8,93,707	3,11,064	905	2,409	1,201	..	..	1,26,746	20,311	9,704	40,891
1952-53 ..	9,06,337	2,95,785	877	2,279	1,010	..	12,085	98,878	20,639	7,762	51,580
1953-54 ..	9,15,547	2,51,118	759	2,048	1,070	..	41	89,915	18,872	8,064	35,141
1954-55 ..	9,15,547	2,51,118	759	2,048	1,070	..	41	89,915	18,872	8,064	35,144
1955-56 ..	8,88,369	2,80,629	422	3,709	1,802	..	1,476	1,03,488	22,789	13,179	23,273
1956-57 ..	8,69,040	2,71,938	625	5,511	2,088	134	53	1,03,972	22,612	14,449	24,961
1957-58 ..	8,41,508	2,61,897	677	1,316	390	..	88	1,02,375	19,431	5,628	17,499
1958-59 ..	8,45,864	2,57,976	803	5,639	1,782	122	63	1,22,495	21,806	14,131	24,340
1959-60 ..	8,61,197	2,74,366	904	5,907	2,116	66	29	1,26,023	24,178	14,946	37,180
1960-61 ..	8,84,441	2,69,976	2,853	6,007	..	..	..	1,16,816	23,080	12,010	1,94,922
1961-62 ..	8,43,988	2,66,842	1,056	N.A.	..	..	..	1,10,724	22,617	11,770	1,82,121
1962-63 ..	7,82,216	2,57,945	N.A.	N.A.	2,560	..	..	1,07,830	21,475	10,284	27,679
1963-64 ..	8,34,406	2,22,720	N.A.	N.A.	2,609	..	..	1,03,818	21,649	14,131	33,168

*SOURCE—The District Statistics Office, Ranchi. The figures supplied by the Statistics Office differ from the figures in the *Statistical Hand-Book of Bihar* from 1950-51 to 1957-58 published by the Directorate of Statistics. No appraisal was made of the methods to collect the figures.

Outturn of crops.

The statement below shows the outturn (in tons) of the principal crops from 1950-51 to 1962-63*:—

Year.	Winter rice.	Autumn rice.	Wheat.	Gram.	Barley.	Masoor.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1950-51 ..	2,29,585	36,855	383	979	146	183
1951-52 ..	2,35,017	39,791	418	1,462	180	153
1952-53 ..	2,64,364	30,562	365	912	138	261
1953-54 ..	2,97,105	31,676	414	1,034	72	187
1954-55 ..	1,63,092	36,629	200	1,013	418	156
1955-56 ..	2,26,656	36,999	856	1,026	331	214
1956-57 ..	3,10,901	34,237	356	1,162	50	92
1957-58 ..	1,50,526	28,310	280	1,498	583	84
1958-59 ..	2,53,230	33,643	1,280	2,554	305	183
1959-60 ..	2,81,704	45,851	1,113	1,922	278	316
1960-61 ..	37,041	42,232	1,234	1,884	N.A.	N.A.
1961-62 ..	2,98,630	36,512	N.A.	2,114	N.A.	N.A.
1962-63 ..	2,03,930	36,112	N.A.	1,955	N.A.	N.A.

NON-FOOD CROPS.

Tea Cultivation.

The tea cultivation in the Ranchi district dates back to 1862 and owes its origin to Stainforth, a retired civilian who settled at Ranchi. Even as early as 1839, after having made a successful experiment of growing tea in his own compound, Ausley, Governor-General's Agent at Ranchi had suggested to the Government of Bengal at Fort William that tea could be grown in Chotanagpur.† This was accepted and several tea and coffee plantations were started in the neighbourhood of Ranchi.

There are 12 tea gardens in this district, 11 under the Subarnrekha Agricultural Estate, Palandu, divided into two groups, namely, Palandu and Sabeya. The remaining one, i.e., Daladali tea garden belongs to Dolla Tea Estate.

*Supplied by the District Statistics Office, Ranchi. The figures of outturn (in tons) supplied by the District Statistics Office differ from the figures of Statistical Hand-Books from 1950-51 to 1957-58 published by the Directorate of Statistics. No appraisal was made of the methods to collect the figures.

†Consultation. Revenue Agriculture Department, Agriculture Branch, 24th January 1889 (no. 21/22).

The following statement shows the area under each garden and the number of workers employed on them in 1966:—

—	Area in acres.	Number of workers.	Remarks.
Palandu Tea Estate—			
1. Palandu Tea Garden	200	146	All local mostly Adivasi women.
2. Churu Tea Garden	135	74	
3. Bargaon Tea Garden	145	48	
4. Khatanga Tea Garden ..	134	42	
5. Mahilon Tea Garden	95	45	
Sabeya Tea Estate—			
1. Sabeya Tea Garden	33.16	83	
2. Messra Tea Garden	104.07	56	
3. Maheshpur Tea Garden.. ..	69	50	
4. Tapi Tea Garden	102.11	30	
5. Anandi Tea Garden	54	32	
6. Getelsud Tea Garden	47.73	30	
Dolla Tea Estate—			
1. Daladali Tea Garden	101	19	

These gardens produce green tea which is sent to Calcutta and from there it is exported mostly to the Middle East countries. Green tea has a limited market.

Lac Cultivation.

Lac is cultivated throughout the district. It is the resinous incrustation which is produced on the twigs of several varieties of tree round the bodies of colonies of the lac insects. Originally lac was merely collected from trees on which it was found, but with the development of the trade, cultivation has become widespread. The method of propagation is simple. Twigs of a tree utilised in the previous year and crowded with larvae are bound to the twigs of a tree to be brought under cultivation. The insects are gradually hatched out from the larvae and proceed to feed on the resinous sap of the tree which exudes from the tree and forms a hard crust of lac over the whole twig. The trees most suitable for lac are *Palas, Kusum* and *Bair,* but it is also grown on *Peepal* and other trees. The lac of the *Kusum* tree commands the best price.

There are four kinds of lac, viz., *Baisakhi, Jethi, Katki* and *Aghani.* The *Jethi* (summer) lac is the best as compared with other three lacs.

It is most common in the Khunti subdivision and in a portion of Sadar subdivision. The main markets of lac in the Khunti subdivision are Bundu, Tamar, Nawadih, Araki, Murhu and Khunti and in the Sadar subdivision, Jonka, Rampur, Gudlipokhar and Raikara.

The seed lac is exported to Calcutta, Jhalda and Balrampur from the Ranchi district.

There is an Indian Lac Research Institute at Namkum where researches are done on pest and diseases of lac and on techniques for the development of lac cultivation.

Lac cultivation is affected by some insects such as Chromosomal cytology, Cogenesis and Hairy caterpillars. The Research Institute of Namkum has done researches to check depredation by these insects.

HORTICULTURE.

Fruits and Vegetables.

In nearly every village there is a grove of mango trees, planted by the former Hindu landlord, the fruit of which is the common property of the village; the trees are, however, frequently barren and the better varieties of mangoes are not obtainable. Jack fruit trees are also common. The fruit of the tamarind and the *karanj* (*Pongamia glabra*) is also the exclusive property of the owner of the tree. The fruit of the *karanj* is not eaten, but is made into oil and used for various purposes. It is used to kill the insects which infest the hair of the people, and it is also said that wood coated with this oil resists the attacks of white ant. Its principal use in olden days was as a lamp oil. The fruits of other trees, such as *mahua, jamun,* etc., found round the village, are, like mangoes, the common property of the villagers. Plantains, guavas and limes of various kinds are grown principally by the Hindu inhabitants. A Hindu village can often be distinguished from an aboriginal village by the plantain or papaya trees growing round the houses.

Horticulture has a good prospect in Ranchi due to favourable climatic conditions and if better irrigation facilities are made available, this will add to the income of the cultivators, besides making nutritious food available for the masses.

The Government is giving stress on fruit cultivation. The Agriculture Department has appointed a horticulturist to look after the development of fruit trees and vegetables. The research work on fruits is also done by horticulturists at the Agricultural Research Institute, Kanke.

Vegetables are grown in the lands generally near the homestead of a cultivator. They are also grown in large quantities on lands near the town because of ready market. Sometimes other crops are also grown in the fields where vegetables are grown.

The important fruits grown in the district are mangoes, guavas, jack fruit, *lichi,* papaya, grape, banana and custard apple. In some private gardens peaches, grapes and oranges are also grown. The total area under old orchards is 18,500 acres while about 8,850 acres are under new orchards. The per acre yield of old orchards is about 30 maunds and of that new orchards about 100 maunds. The total produce of old and new orchards comes to about 14,40,000 maunds in a normal year.

There are also some local fruits such as *mahua, imli, bair, jamun* and *amla,* which grow throughout the district. Saffron was grown as an experiment by a lady in Morabadi area of Ranchi town with buds brought from Kashmir. It responded well and conformed to that grown in the Kashmir valley. This could be pursued.

The vegetables commonly grown in the district are potato, brinjal, lady's finger, tomato, pea, cauliflower, beans, carrot, etc. However, on account of favourable climate, cauliflowers are grown in late summer and early autumn when they are otherwise rare in markets. Potato and peas are the most important commercial vegetables grown in the district. In 1966 the total area under vegetables was about 32,200 acres.

The Intensive Agriculture Programme.

The Intensive Agriculture Programme, i.e., Package Programme was introduced in 1963 in the district. Out of 40 Blocks, the following 10 Blocks were selected for this purpose:—

(1) Kanke, (2) Chanho, (3) Kisko (Sadar subdivision), (4) Khunti, (5) Karra, (6) Tamar (Khunti subdivision); (7) Gumla, (8) Bishunpur (Gumla subdivision); (9) Simdega, (10) Thethaitangar (Simdega subdivision).

In particular, cultivation of gram and groundnut has been encouraged. However, the programme is yet to make its impact.

Agricultural Implements.

The indigenous agricultural implements are still largely used. The Agriculture Department is making attempts to introduce better implements.

The approximate cost of an indigenous plough with other implements is about Rs. 20 to Rs. 25. Other old implements used are spade, sickle and *khurpi.*

Improved implements, such as senior and junior Bihar plough, *Sukhda* plough, junior ridging plough, etc., have been introduced, but are yet to become popular. The main difficulty in their use is attributed to the poor quality of the local bullocks. Some of the other new implements in use are Japanese paddy weeder, cutter for fodder and maize sheller. They have contributed to better agriculture wherever they have been used.

The holdings being small in size would not normally permit the use of tractors. The poverty of the average cultivator also stands in his way of using better implements.

The following statement gives details of the agricultural implements in use in the district*:—

Year.	Wooden ploughs.	Iron ploughs.	Tractors.	Carts.	Oil Engine.	Electric pumps.	Sugarcane crusher. Power	Sugarcane crusher. Bullocks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1945 ..	253,068	80	4	9,138	3	..	2	211
1956 ..	288,952	1,226	8	11,789	13	9	21	84
1961† ..	332,553	4,346	9	14,399	34	64	24	108
1963 ..	290,722	1,420	14	N.A.	20	10	N.A.	290

Seeds.

The cultivators usually reserve a certain portion of their own grains for use as seed. The bulk of the seeds used is supplied by the cultivators themselves. The village *goledars* and *banias* also provide seed to indigent cultivators, though at exorbitant rate of interest, i.e, *sabaiya* or *deorha.* The grain-*golas* maintained by State Government meet substantially the seed requirement of Adivasi and Harijan cultivators. The Co-operative Department also supply improved variety of seed to cultivators. The seeds grown by registered cultivators are also made available through the Agriculture Department. The registered cultivators are given better type of seeds for multiplying them.

*The figures of 1945 and 1956 have been taken from the *Bihar Statistical Hand-Book,* 1956 (pp. 53-54) and those of 1963 have been supplied by the Agriculture Department, Ranchi.

†*Livestock, Poultry, Agricultural Machinery and Implements in Madhya Pradesh, Kerala and Bihar* (1961 *Census*), published by the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, pp. 182—87.

The Seed Multiplication Schemes have been taken up for better type of seeds. The Government have planned to open a Seed Multiplication Farm at each Block headquarters. There are Seed Multiplication Farms at Ranchi (25.74 acres), Ormanjhi (24.31 acres), Kuru (23.41 acres), Bero (26.01 acres), Burmu (24.66 acres), Silli (27.14 acres), Gumla (21.88 acres), Raidih (25.96 acres), Bishunpur (25.14 acres), Ghaghra (26.91 acres), Palkot (25.97 acres), Basia (26.09 acres), Khunti (28.70 acres), Khunti II (25.51 acres), Karra (29.09 acres), Bundu (26.33 acres), Tamar II (27.95 acres), Simdega (21.77 acres), Thethaitangar (28.94 acres), Kolebira (26.29 acres), Lapung (26.72 acres), Sissai (25.62 acres), Bolba (22.28 acres), Angara (29.83 acres), Kurdeg (20.94 acres), Lohardaga II (25.70 acres), Tamar I (25.42 acres) and Bano (25.42 acres).

The Seed Multiplication Farms receive pedigree seeds from the Kanke Farm, Ranchi and multiply them. The multiplied seeds are supplied to big cultivators, who in turn multiply them in their fields under the supervision and guidance of Village Level Workers.

Manures.

Manures are of two kinds: (*i*) Organic or natural manures and (*ii*) Chemical manures. Natural manures include farm-yard manures and the green manures. Cowdung and house-hold refuse come under farm-yard manures. Usually farm-yard manures are not prepared properly. An investigation reveals that the compost pits are not normally put for the preparation of the farm-yard manures. The manures prepared in the compost pits contain moisture and consequently become heavy. The majority of cultivators are loath to carry the weighty moisture-soaked manures on their head to put them in their fields. Consequently, the demonstrations made by the Village Level Workers have not yet become popular. Compost pits are made only by a few enlightened cultivators. However, cow-dung is not usually burnt as fuel, for there is no dearth of cheap firewood in this district.

Farm-yard manures are widely used, but after the loss of a fair percentage of organic property, green manures are also in use. *Gondli* and *Surguja* are raised in the paddy fields and ploughed before the transplantation. *Sanai* and *Dhaincha* have not become popular as green manure in spite of demonstrations given by the Village Level Workers.

Besides farm-yard manure, chemical fertilisers are also in use. Fertilisers are sold through Credit Agricole Depots* and their agents. The multi-purpose co-operative societies also sell fertilisers to the cultivators. The chemical fertilisers are not popular as the following statistics of their sale would show.

*There are five Agricole Depots in this district.

The sale of chemical fertilisers from 1951-52 to 1961-62 (in tons) in the district*:—

Year.	Ammonium Sulphate Nitrate.	Single Super-phosphate.	Urea.	Bone-meal.
1	2	3	4	5
1951-52	50	25	..	10
1952-53	100	50	..	Not available.
1953-54	200	100	..	Ditto.
1954-55	300	100	..	50
1955-56	300	100	20	30
1956-57	300	150	30	100
1957-58	350	300	44	120
1958-59	1,000	519	50	150
1959-60	1,001	810	100	180
1960-61	1,925	790	150	200
1961-62	1,530	920	200	205

ROTATION OF CROPS.

On single rice-growing low lands in the Ranchi district rotation of crops is hardly feasible. Rotation process is observed in low land by sowing different varieties of rice plant in successive years. It is not uncommon to sow rice broadcast one year, and to put in a transplanted variety the next. On uplands, however, a regular system of rotation is worked out as follows:—first year, *marua,* for which the ground has previously been highly manured; second year, *gora dhan,* or upland rice, which may be manured slightly, and which requires the land to be thoroughly ploughed at intervals throughout the year; third year, *urid,* which like all pulses, is highly absorptive of manure, and takes out of the land most of the fertilising elements that had been left there by the preceding cereal crops; fourth year, *gondli,* or millet, which grows productively even on a very poor soil. In the same year, after the millet is taken off the ground, the oil-seed, *surguja* is sown. By the time this is harvested, the soil is rendered friable and ready for ploughing and it is

*SOURCE.—District Agriculture Office, Ranchi.

ploughed continuously until the season comes round the manuring the land, and beginning the series again by sowing *marua*. It will be observed that the principle of the foregoing system is to make one application of manure to yield four or five different crops, each of which leaves in the land fertilising elements which are required by its successor. *Marua*, for instance, requires a large quantity of manure, while high land rice is injuriously affected by the presence of weeds, and the process of clearing them when the rice is on the ground is peculiarly troublesome and expensive. Rotation, therefore, begins with a crop of *marua* and the land is previously ploughed once a month throughout the year, so that it is free from weeds and ready for the *gora dhan*. This will yield a good crop without much manure and has further advantage of leaving the land full of grass for the succeeding crops. Some cultivators plant the *urid* before the *gora dhan*, and this is a more scientific method.

Agricultural Pests and Diseases.

Some pests which are dominant and usually found on the crops in other areas of Bihar are absent or rarely found in Chotanagpur Division, particularly so in the Ranchi district. Some of which are common in the Ranchi district, affecting the crops and fruit, trees are totally absent in other parts of the State. Topographical situation and climatic conditions are responsible for this kind of distribution, and no other cause can be ascribed to these peculiarities:—

Common crop-pests in the district of Ranchi.

Crops.	Name of the pests.	Nature of damage.	Extent of damage.	Control measure adopted.
1	2	3	4	5
			Per cent.	
Paddy ..	1. Paddy Gall-fly (*Pachydiplosis oryzae W.*).	The maggot bores into the stem, attacks bud of shoots. The plant turns into long, hollow tube-like structure. No ears are formed.	10—15	No effective remedy known. Spraying the plants with .04 per cent Endrin or Folidol has been found to minimise the attack to a great extent.
	2. Paddy stem borer (*Scheonobius incertellus W.*).	The main shoot dries up without bearing any grain.	3—5	Three sprayings at fortnightly intervals, beginning from early September, with .04 per cent Folidol E-605.

Common crop-pests in the district of Ranchi—contd.

Crops.	Name of the pests.	Nature of damage.	Extent of damage.	Control measure adopted.
1	2	3	4	5
			Per cent.	
	3. Rice Hispa (*Hispa armigera* 01).	Destroys the leaves by making innumerable holes and scratches and eating the chlorophyl matter.	1—3	Dusting with 5 per cent BHC at the rate of 20 lbs. per acre.
	4. Paddy case worm (*Nymphula depunctalis Gr.*)	It is a common pest in low lands where water remains stagnant for a long time. It cuts the leaves into pieces and makes cases in which it lives and feeds.	2—5	(1) Spraying the plants with 2½ lbs. of 50 per cent DDT Wettable plus 4 ozs. of Pyrocolloid in 100 gallons of water, or (2) Spraying with .02 per cent Endrin. (3) Drainage of water for a weed where possible, has been found very economical and effective.
	5. Rice Mealy bugs (*Repersia oryzae G.*)	It attacks the plot in patches and retards plant growth.	1-2	Spraying the plants with .03 per cent Folidol or .02 per cent Endrin at the rate of 80—100 gallons per acre.
Vegetables :	6. Paddy Jassids (*Nephotettix bipunctatus F.*).	It sucks the sap from leaves and turns them yellow.	2-3	Ditto ditto.
Cabbage and cauliflower.	Leaf-eaters (*Athelia proxima Klug*) (*Plutella Maculipennis C.*). (*Pieris brassicae F.*)	The pest destroys the leaves and thereby the plant growth is retarded.	5—8	(1) Dusting the plant with 5 per cent DDT @ 15—20 lbs. per acre if the attack is mild. (2) Dusting the plants with 5 per cent BHC @ 16—20 lbs. per acre, if the damage is severe. If the pest appears to persist, repeat it after a week.
	Painted bug (*Bagradapicta F.*).	It sucks the sap from the leaves (specially cabbage) and the plants get yellow and ultimately dry up.	..	(1) Spraying with .04 per cent Folidol, if the product is not to be consumed before 21 days. (2) Spraying with Pyrocollid (1 lb. in 60 gallons of water) if required to be consumed within 21 days.

Common crop-pests in the district of Ranchi—contd.

Crops.	Name of the pests.	Nature of damage.	Extent of damage.	Control measure adopted.
1	2	3	4	5
			Per cent.	
Potatoes :	Gressy surface caterpillar (*Agrohi Ypsilon Rok*).	The caterpillar cuts the plant at surface level, and drags the cut portion inside the soil.	8—10	(1) Heavy irrigation when attack is noticed. (2) If the above is not possible, resort to 5 per cent DDT dusting @ 10—15 lbs. per acre.
	Potato-moths (*Gnorimoscheme operculella zell*).	In field, it acts as a leaf miner, but under storage condition, it acts as a tuber bores.	30—40	*Field condition.*—(1) Broad ridges should be encouraged. (2) Ridges should be earthened up after each irrigation. (3) Frequent irrigation necessary to check this pest infestation in the field. *Storage condiiton*— (1) The use of Giegy 33-A, 10 per cent DDT at 2 ozs. per md. of potatoes has been found very effective against the pest attack, or (2) The tubers should be kept under 2″ coarse dry sand. Monthly change of the sand should be done.
Brinjal :	Epilachna beettles (*Epilachna Spp.*).	The grubs skeletonise the leaves. Seedlings are completely damaged if attacked.	10—12	(1) Hand picking is very effective if done throughly. (2) Dusting the plant with 5 per cent BHC dusts @ 15—20 lbs. per acre. But if the infestation is severe, dusting with a mixture of 5 per cent BH C and Pyrodust in the ratio of 3 : 2.
	Shoot and fruit borer (*Leucinodes orbonalis G.*)	The shoots stoop down the affected fruits show holes.	2-3	Destruction of affected shoots and fruits.
Bhindi :	Shoot and fruit borer (*Earias fabia*).	Ditto ditto	2-3	Ditto ditto.

Common crop-pests in the district of Ranchi—contd.

Crops.	Name of the pests.	Nature of damage.	Extent of damage.	Control measure adopted.
1	2	3	4	5
			Per cent.	
Cowpeas and beans.	Aphids ..	It appears in a large number on leaves and stems of the plant and sucks the sap with the result that the plants turn yellow and ultimately dry up.	8—10	(1) Spraying with .02 per cent Endrin or Folidol if the produce is not expected to be consumed within 20 days. (2) If to be required for immediate use, spraying with tobacco decoction (2 lbs. of tobacco use in 20 lbs. of water) to be boiled for half an hour. Strain the solution and mix 2 lbs. of bar soap and churn well. Dilute it with 10—15 times with water before spraying is very useful.
	Bihar Hairy caterpillar (*Diacrisia obliqua W.*).	The larvae skeletonise the leaves.	5—8	(1) Dusting with 5 per cent BHC dust if the attack is mild. (2) Dusting with a mixture of BHC and pyro dust (3 : 2) if the infestation is serious.
Onion ..	Thrips (*Thrips tabaci*)	It sucks the sap from the leaves and stems and consequently the yield is very much affected.	7-8	.02 per cent Folidol spray @ 100 gallons per acre.
Mango ..	Mango hoppers (*idiocerus Spp.*)	The pest appears in large number and sucks up sap from flowers with the result that no fruit formation takes place.	15—20	(1) Two sprayings—One in November-December and the Second by the end of January with .125 per cent DDT wettable (Guesarol 550) give. (2) If one spraying is required, it should be started from early February and finished within a fortnight. (3) If the above operation cannot be completed within the specified time an addition to 2 ozs. Pyrocolloid per 40 gallons of solution is necessary.

Common crop-pests in the district of Ranchi—concld.

Crops.	Name of the pests.	Nature of damage.	Extent of damage.	Control measure adopted.
1	2	3	4	5
			Per cent.	
	Mango shoot galls (*Apsylla cistellata B.*).	Appearance of cabbage like galls on the leaf buds.	60—70	No satisfactory control measure has been found effective. Removal of galls in November-December, however, initiates a good crop of mango.
Citrus ..	Lemon butterfly (*Papilio demobus L.*).	Leaf-eater ..	5—8	Spraying with a mixture of DDT and Pyrocolloid (1 lb. 50 per cent wettable DDT plus 2 ozs. of Pyrocolloid).
	Citrus miner (*Phyllocristis citrella S.*).	The small caterpillar miner into the leaf-tissue and makes the leaf curl and fade.	3-4	.04 per cent Endrin has proved very effective.
	Citrus mite (*Tetranychus hiudustanicus H.*).	Covering leaves and sucking sap.	2-3	Spraying with Aramite 15 W (1 lb. in 100 gallons of water), or spraying with Basudin 20 per cent emulsifiable solution @ 1 lb. dissolved in 80 gallons of water.
Termite ..		Eats the bark, roots and kills the plants ultimately.	30—100	(1) Seeds beds where the fruit trees are planted should be treated first with 2 per cent Phenyle solution. (2) When the attacks are on, scrap all earthly moulds on the tree at the base of it and remove the sal 2″ deep around the base on the affected tree, give a coating of 20 : 80 with carbolic acid and rape or linseed oil. On the base apply BHC dust 4 ozs. per tree. (3) On crop fields apply 5 per cent BHC @ 20 lbs. per acre or 5 per cent Aldrin at 2½ (actual) lbs. per acre.

With a view to check the loss on account of these pests a Plant Protection Scheme has been started in the district since 1952. The main object of this scheme has been to conduct large scale campaigns against pests and diseases both in fields and godowns. The scheme was initiated with a small staff already posted in the district. Later on, the methods and means of combating pests and diseases were widely disseminated among cultivators. The increasing demands of cultivators resulted in the expansion of the organisation. Now it consists of one Assistant Plant Protection Officer in charge of the whole scheme with headquarters at Ranchi. There are Plant Protection Inspectors, Supervisors, Mechanics, Field Operators and *Kamdars* under him. Each subdivision has a Plant Protection Centre. Recently one Mobile Unit has been sanctioned at each divisional headquarters. It looks after the adoption and control measures in cases of emergency in the division.

Agricultural Research.

The head of the research work is the Regional Director with headquarters at Kanke. There is a Director of Agricultural Research at Patna who is in overall charge of research for the State. There are Research Assistants under the District Agriculture Officer who are specialists in Agronomy, Botany, Agricultural Chemistry and Entomology.

Agriculture College.

The Ranchi Agriculture College was started in 1955 at Kanke, five miles north of Ranchi town. It is affiliated to the Ranchi University. It imparts education up to M.Sc. (Agriculture). The subjects taught are Agronomy, Agricultural Botany, Agricultural Chemistry, Horticulture, Entomology and Plant Pathology. There is also a research unit in the college.

Besides, there is an Agriculture School at Kanke which was established in 1950.

There is also an Agricultural Training Centre at Namkum sponsored by a Mission and largely financed by a German Organisation which is known as Bishops' help against hunger and diseases. It was started in 1963.

The Revisional Survey and Settlement Report mentions that the irrigated area in this district was 3,958.32 acres as against 3,058.26 acres in the last Settlement. There had been an increase of 29.4 per cent in the irrigated area. The number of masonry wells during the last Settlement was 3,645 and that of earthen wells was 4,871 as against 6,684 and 9,148 respectively during the Revisional Settlement.

The hill streams remain almost dry except in the rainy season and do not offer as much scope for irrigation as the perennial rivers. Artificial irrigation facility in the district is small. The wells, *dantes* (springs) and *ahras* (reservoirs) are the only traditional sources of irrigation.

In the post-Independence period irrigation works received special attention and a number of irrigation schemes have been undertaken under the Five-Year Plans. The irrigation schemes can be broadly divided into three heads, *viz.*, Major Irrigation Scheme, Medium Irrigation Scheme and Minor Irrigation Scheme.

Major Irrigation Scheme.

A Major Irrigation Scheme is very costly in a hill district like Ranchi. Such a scheme has not so far been undertaken. The Subarnarekha River Valley Scheme is in the offing.

Medium Irrigation Scheme.

During the First Five-Year Plan period three medium irrigation schemes were taken up and completed at a cost of about Rs. 18,02,353 benefiting 4,920 acres of land in the district. During the Second Five-Year Plan period, three schemes costing about Rs. 30,99,863 were taken up and completed during the Third Five-Year Plan period, four schemes were under execution.

The following statement gives details of the schemes already executed and also those under execution from 1950-51 to 1963-64:—*

Name of the scheme.	Name of the civil subdivision where headwork is located.	When started.	Name of the blocks benefited by the scheme.	Total estimated cost (in rupees).	Command area (in acres).	Year of completion.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Aradih Irrigation Scheme ..	Khunti ..	1951	Bundu ..	5,47,353	3,000	1955
2. Nandini Irrigation Scheme ..	Ranchi Sadar ..	1951	Lohardaga and Kuru	8,62,030	3,000	1957
3. Raisa Irrigation Scheme ..	Khunti ..	1954	Bundu ..	1,19,000	12,000	1956
4. Kita Irrigation Scheme ..	Khunti ..	1955	Silli ..	1,36,000	700	1957
5. Buchaopa Irrigation Scheme ..	Ranchi Sadar ..	1956	Mandar and Kuru ..	7,21,000	1,700	1957
6. Kanchi Irrigation Scheme ..	Khunti ..	1957	Bundu, Tamar and Sonahatu.	15,16,633	45,000	Under execution.
7. Kokro Irrigation Scheme ..	Do. ..	1962	Sonahatu ..	36,66,700	8,620	Ditto.
8. Katwa Irrigation Scheme ..	Gumla ..	1963	Gumla ..	7,04,000	2,420	Ditto.
9. Phuljhar Irrigation Scheme ..	Do. ..	1963	Senha ..	9,19,000	2,250	Ditto.
10. Bishunpur Irrigation Scheme ..	Do. ..	1963	Bishunpur ..	8,99,000	2,600	Ditto.

* SOURCE.—Waterways Department, Ranchi.

The statement below shows the area (in acres) irrigated by the schemes from 1957-58 to 1963-64*:—

Name of the schemes.	1957-58.		1958-59.		1959-60.		1960-61.		1961-62.		1962-63.		1963-64.	
	Kharif.	*Rabi.*	*Kharif.*	*Rabi.*	*Kharif.*	*Rabi.*	*Kharif.*	*Rabi.*	*Kharif.*	*Rabi.*	*Kharif.*	*Rabi.*	*Kharif.*	*Rabi.*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Aradih Irrigation Scheme	300	30	3,025	30	3,025	30	2,522	80	2,625	80	3,000	65	3,000	60
Raisa Irrigation Scheme	1,000	100	1,085	100	1,085	105	1,144	79	1,150	79	1,200	50	1,200	80
Kita Irrigation Scheme..	640	30	660	30	660	51	660	8	710	4	710	12	710	Nil
Buchaopa Irrigation Scheme.	755	Nil	450	60	1,103	156	550	58	716	168	1,190	140	519	52
Nandini Irrigation Scheme	N.A.	N.A.	300	Nil	2,600	100	2,500	Nil	1,002	Nil	2,300	Nil	2,500	Nil

*Source.—Waterways Department, Ranchi.

Minor Irrigation.

Minor Irrigation Schemes comprise *bundhs,* tanks, wells, pynes, small protective embankments, etc., including the old minor irrigation works. These schemes were carried out by two agencies, viz., Revenue Department since 1948 and Agriculture Department since 1946. In 1954, the Community Development Department was also entrusted with those works. There were complications and overlapping in the work programme because of these agencies. Ultimately a unified agency for minor irrigation work was created in 1960*. The Unified Minor Irrigation Division has completed about seven schemes and about 39 schemes are under execution.

The statement below shows the number of the minor irrigation schemes, their location, estimated cost, etc.:—

Serial no.	Name of minor irrigation scheme.	Location.	Estimated cost (in rupees.)	Area to be benefited (in acres).	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Totambi	.. Mandar ..	17,760	231	Completed
2	Semardih	.. Lohardaga ..	82,627	491	Under execution.
3	Rocho	.. Kuru ..	27,321	431	Ditto.
4	Barwadag	.. Angara ..	69,207	193	Completed.
5	Lawagain	.. Kisko ..	47,222	327	Under execution.
6	Beraidih	.. Lapung ..	25,000	100	Ditto.
7	Bankattera	.. Ditto ..	61,250	245	Ditto.
8	Unikel	.. Ditto ..	25,000	100	Ditto.
9	Macca	.. Burmu ..	21,000	84	Ditto.
10	Chamranga	.. Mandar ..	1,500	62	Ditto.
11	Churku	.. Lohardaga ..	24,250	97	Ditto.
12	Ghaghama	.. Silli ..	49,890	210	Ditto.
13	Patratu	.. Lohardaga ..	52,500	210	Ditto.
14	Hesalong	.. Burmu ..	22,090	95	Ditto.
15	Erkiasotia	.. Bundu ..	80,875	511	Ditto.
16	Kanti	.. Karra ..	44,300	200	Ditto.
17	Ramta	.. Khunti ..	25,300	125	Ditto.
18	Bande	.. Murhu ..	17,600	75	Completed.

*See Government order no. IDS-0169/59-Agri—30380, dated the 23rd December 1959/2nd January, 1960.

Serial no.	Name of the minor irrigation scheme.	Location.	Estimated cost (in rupees).	Area to be benefited (in acres).	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Jharia Bandh	.. Sonahatu ..	24,530	430	Under execution.
20	Hount	.. Erki ..	1,04,500	460	Ditto.
21	Champatoli	.. Bishunpur ..	29,666	515	Completed.
22	Itkiri	.. Ghagra ..	54,945	490	Under execution.
23	Nirasi	.. Bishunpur ..	28,332	167	Completed.
24	Sukharinala	.. Gumla ..	32,097	300	Ditto.
25	Bhelwatala	.. Chainpur ..	22,200	156	Ditto.
26	Pokata	.. Basia ..	25,000	203	Under execution.
27	Katerinala	.. Gumla ..	24,987	115	Ditto.
28	Manjira	.. Bishunpur ..	25,000	177	Ditto.
29	Satkhari	.. Palkot ..	55,700	300	Ditto.
30	Charheya	.. Ghagra ..	97,020	650	Ditto.
31	Chatti	.. Ditto ..	25,000	150	Ditto.
32	Damkara	.. Palkot ..	22,000	100	Ditto.
33	Kolebira	.. Gumla ..	25,000	100	Ditto.
34	Pharsabera	.. Simdega ..	60,000	240	Ditto.
35	Harindhara	.. Ditto ..	51,342	450	Ditto.
36	Kantara	.. Ditto ..	68,885	350	Ditto.
37	Galeshwara	.. Thethaitanagar ..	21,000	128	Ditto.
38	Hurda	.. Bano ..	24,648	126	Ditto.
39	Arari	.. Simdega ..	19,250	77	Ditto.
40	Jamtati	.. Bano ..	32,900	240	Ditto.
41	Alinagar	.. Bolba ..	20,254	81	Ditto.
42	Phersabera	.. Simdega ..	22,000	88	Ditto.
43	Girajharia	.. Kurdeg ..	85,550	550	Ditto.
44	Belgarh	.. Simdega ..	40,571	270	Ditto.
45	Pithara	.. Ditto ..	10,400	44	Ditto.
46	Agharma	.. Kolebira ..	32,000	180	Ditto.

The artificial irrigation facilities are still quite inadequate. Agriculture is still largely dependent on rains.

Soil Conservation.

The process of erosion is active throughout the district due to undulating nature of the land. The rain water washes away the upper layer of upland and deposits it in the lowland. The upland mostly contains laterite and sandy contents which have little fertility. Thus the erosion not only makes the upland devoid of soil, but also damages the fertile lowland. Gully erosion has damaged quite a sizable area by its ravages.

The soil conservation work is in progress in the Ranchi district. The age-old counter or cultivation method is still adhered to. Besides terracing operations have also been undertaken to check erosion.

The following table gives details regarding the soil conservation work done from 1957 to March 1964*:—

Serial no.	Nature of land.	Acreage.	Expenditure incurred since 1957 till March, 1964 (in rupees).
1	In Agricultural waste lands	2,266	1,02,137
2	In Agricultural fallow lands	64,836	19,74,985
3	Dry Farming Measures	1,349	12,180
4	Construction of percolation tanks	19	46,218

Animal Husbandry and Fisheries.

The cattle of the Ranchi district are very small and undersized, and this is largely due to the lack of good pasturage and fodder. In the remote jungly parts there is still ample pasturage, but owing to the extension of cultivation it is rapidly decreasing. In more extensively cultivated parts, cattle are grazed on the waste lands of the village, or on the fields after the crops have been harvested but in the hot weather they are in a wretched condition. In the rains when grass grows rapidly, they pick up and become somewhat fat. The aboriginals seldom feed their cattle in stalls, and only paddy straw is stored for use as fodder. Cows are not kept for milk. The Mundas, in fact, think it almost a crime to

*Source.—Assistant Director, Soil Conservation Department, Ranchi.

drink the milk of a cow which they consider should be left entirely to the calf. Cows are usually yoked to the plough and are known as *gundri* or plough cows. This yoking affects the breed of the cattle. Buffaloes are not bred in the district, but are imported from North and South Bihar and also from Palamau. They are used for ploughing the heavier *don lands*. Cattle and goats are exported to Calcutta and Jamshedpur.

The table below indicates the livestock population in the district from 1920 to 1956*:—

Year.	Total cattle.	Total buffaloes.	Sheep.	Goats.	Pigs.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1920	9,20,902	2,50,918	55,163	2,57,233	..
1925	7,52,882	2,10,219	55,133	3,91,861	..
1930	7,66,123	2,86,630	44,274	3,58,874	..
1940	8,15,879	1,84,076	58,453	3,51,428	75,097
1945	7,55,893	1,98,399	60,902	3,16,372	7,185
1951	7,61,914	2,31,873	73,031	5,25,026	1,22,092
1956	8,09,277	2,17,161	82,420	5,61,650	1,18,283
†1961	10,66,056	2,37,938	..	5,87,664	1,61,326

The figures of 1945 showing a decrease under cattle, goat and pig are easily explained by the heavy drain of livestock due to the exigencies of the Second World War. But an increase is noticed in the cattle wealth of the district when the figures of 1951 and 1956 are compared with that of 1945.

Fodder Crops.

Fodder crops are not grown in the district. Straw of paddy and other grains are generally used as fodder. Adequate husk, the main cattle food, is not available because rabi crops are not very common.

Cultivation of fodder grains is confined, more or less, to the demonstration plots of the Agriculture Department.

The cultivation of green fodder or legumes is encouraged, but there seems to be very little response.

*The figures up to 1951 have been taken from *District Census* Hand-Book, Ranchi (1956), pp. 152-53 and those of 1956 from *Statistical Hand-Book* (1957), p. 57.

†*Ninth Quinquennial Livestock Census*, 1961.

Dairy Farming.

There are a number of dairy farms in the district, viz., Kanke Dairy Farm, Kanke; Namkum Military Dairy Farm, Namkum; Nepali Dairy Farm, Kanke; Ranchi Jail Dairy Farm, Ranchi; Hotwar Dairy Farm, Hatwar; and a G. E. L. Mission Dairy Farm at Khuntitoli near Simdega. Except the last the rest are in the suburbs of Ranchi town. The output of milk and milk-products of the dairy farms are inadequate to meet the demand of Ranchi town. The milkmen (*goalas*) still flourish in this business.

The Hotwar Dairy Farm is maintained by the State Government. It was started on April 4, 1962 with 100 heads of buffaloes. The total area of the farm is 614.98 acres including 73.00 acres of forest and 30.96 acres of ranch on which natural grasses grow. In 1964–67 the total production of milk was 1,15,155.50 litres and in all there were 341 heads of cattle and buffaloes.*

The Khuntitoli farm is well worth a visit to see the progress in modern dairy. This farm sells milk-products (and also birds) to Rourkella.

Sheep and Goat Breeding.

Not much has been done so far as sheep and goat breeding is concerned. The indigenous population of the district, both tribals and non-tribals, keep goats as a matter of course. A few high breed bucks have been distributed, but little improvement is noticed. There is a class of shepherds (*gareris*) who rear sheep and move with their flock from place to place. Their wool is in demand, particularly in the Central Jail at Hazaribagh and a few other centres where carpets and coarse blankets (*kambals*) are made.

Poultry Farming.

Poultry is an indigenous cottage industry of the aboriginals of the district, who invariably keep poultry. The economically backward Muslims and Hindus also keep poultry to supplement their income. According to 1961 Census† there were 4,83,864 hens, 2,78,968 cocks, 11,09,790 chickens, 7,930 ducks, 4,364 drakes, 5,806 ducklings and 44,206 other fowls in the district. There is a great demand for good birds and eggs throughout the district. This provides abundance of scope for the development of poultry farming. There are one Government Poultry Development Centre at Khunti, two Poultry Extension Centres, one at Khunti and the other at Simdega and eighteen hatching centres one each at Ratu, Mandar, Kuru, Kanke, Khijri, Ormanjhi, Silli, Gumla,

* Source.—General Manager, Dairy Farm, Hotwar as per his report, dated 17th August 1967.

†Livestock Census 1961, pp. 131-132.

Dumri, Chainpur, Bishunpur, Ghaghara, Thethaitangar, Kolebira, Murhu, Karra, Bundu and Sonahatu. Besides, there is a Regional Poultry Farm at Hotwar which is run directly under the control of the Deputy Director of Animal Husbandry, Ranchi. In 1963-64, 68,891 eggs were produced at different poultry centres out of which 10,700 eggs were utilised for hatching and 58,191 eggs were sold. In the same year 9,711 improved birds were also distributed in the blocks for the improvement of the poultry. The overall progress is rather poor. The technique about improved poultry management, storage of eggs, rearing of chicks and protection against the poultry epidemics have to be popularised. The centres often supply one day old chicks and it is difficult for the villagers to keep them alive. The Christian Missions and some private concerns also run poultry farms. The Lutheran Mission runs a poultry farm at Khuntitoli. The average production of the farm is 210 eggs per day. The number of hen is 840, cocks 6 and chickens 700. Another Mission keeps a poultry Farm at Banabira in Simdega thana. The average production of this farm is reported to be 30 eggs per day. St. Mary's High School and Convent Girls' High School at Simdega have small poultry farms.

Animal Diseases and Veterinary Dispensaries.

Cattle disease is frequent in the district. Epidemics of rinderpest and haemorrhagic septicaemia are common, and cause great mortality while foot and mouth disease causes the plough cattle to deteriorate. The aboriginals are extremely apathetic to taking any preventive measures against the diseases; they regard such calamities, which they cannot account for, as due to the spite of some of the malignant *bhuts* and beyond trying to appease such spirits by sacrifices, take no steps to prevent the spreading of the infection. The advanced cultivators, however, appreciate the benefits of inoculation as a prophylactic against these diseases.

The table below shows the incidence of and death from diseases among cattle of the district from 1961-62 to 1963-64*:—

Year.	Rinderpest.		Haemorrhagic Septicaemia.		Blackquarter.		Foot and mouth.		Ranikhet.	
	Seizure	Death.	Seizure.	Death.	Seizure.	Death.	Seizure.	Death.	Seizure.	Death.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1961-62 ..	302	65	2,297	585	46	27	115	100	98	70
1962-63 ..	105	14	342	216	112	48	200	59	88	61
1963-64 ..	118	12	597	274	91	46	150	90	343	277

*These figures are under-estimate as the cases of seizures and deaths are not always reported.

The incidence of cattle mortality appears to have decreased due to medical aid available in the veterinary hospitals as well as static and mobile dispensaries. Outbreaks are tackled with sera and vaccines which are available. Mass inoculation is done for which specific vaccine is provided. The Rinderpest Eradication Scheme sponsored by the Central Government has controlled to some extent the spread of this epidemic.

Veterinary Dispensaries.

The former District Board dispensaries have been provincialised. There is one veterinary hospital at Ranchi and one provincialised and one sub-veterinary hospital at Simdega. The Class I Dispensaries number 38 in the district. They are at Murhu, Torpa, Karra, Bundu, Tamar, Arkek, Sonahatu, Lohardaga, Sisai, Angara, Gumla, Chainpur, Konbir, Haidih, Ghaghra, Dumri, Palkot, Basia, Bishunpur, Kurdeg, Bolba, Thethaitangar, Bano, Kolebira, Khijri, Bero, Burmu, Kanke, Lapung, Silli, Ormanjhi, Mandar, Ratu, Kisko, Madhaliganj, Kuru, Khunti and Senha.

Veterinary College.

There is a veterinary college at Kanke. It was opened in 1962. There are 12 lecturers and 170 students in the college.

Cattle Breeding.

The local breed is of poor quality. In the early part of the present century, Baxters, a family of Irish Engineers, did some pioneering work in raising pedigree cattle stock on their ranch at Hotwar near Ranchi and distributed them to select people in this district and elsewhere. In recent times, efforts have been made by the Animal Husbandry Department to improve the quality of local breed by cross-breeding with improved variety of bulls of Hariana breed. Hariana breed cattle serve a double purpose. They are better milk-producers and the calves are more virile and useful for improved cultivation. Artificial insemination centres have been opened at Ranchi, Lohardaga and Khunti. Each centre has two sub-centres: Kanke and Khijri attached to Ranchi; Kuri and Ghaghra to Lohardaga; Karra and Murhu to Khunti.

The following table shows the work done at the Artificial Insemination Centres during 1963-64:—

Name of the Artificial Insemination Centre.	Number of cows inseminated.	Number of buffaloes artificially inseminated.	Number of goats artificially inseminated.
Ranchi ..	1,094	97	146
Lohardaga ..	558	100	217
Khunti ..	258	N.A.	N.A.

There are three *Goshalas* located at Ranchi, Lohardaga and Tamar. There is no *Gosadan* in the district.

Cattle Markets.

The agricultural economy of the district depends mainly on village *hats* and *fairs*. The village *hats* are the primary markets and play a very important role in turnover of grains, vegetables, livestock, cloth and miscellaneous goods. The turnover is still based to some extent, particularly in the interior, on barter of grains. To an average Adivasi, man or woman irrespective of age, visiting a neighbouring *hat* is a must. Gaily decked and with a flower or a comb tucked in the hair a tribal would walk miles to attend the *hat,* probably just to exchange a *paila* of grains for salt or *gur*. But the village *hat* also provides a social meet and is the rendezvous of the age-old sport of cock-fighting. Long trails of people, young and old alike, converge at the *hat* from all directions with cocks in their arms and bet for the cocks which fight with small daggers fixed in their claws.

Some of the principal cattle markets of the district with their average turnover are—

Serial no.	Name and place of market.	Thana.	Average livestock brought to the markets.
1	Ranchi market ..	Ranchi Sadar ..	300
2	Gumla	Gumla	400
3	Pakardar	Kurdeg	500
4	Lasia	Kolebira ..	250
5	Sons	Mandar	300
6	Lohardaga	Lohardaga ..	300
7	Ormanjhi	Ormanjhi ..	100
8	Silli	Silli	50

No actual figures of sales and purchases are available. On the occasion of *Shivaratri* in the month of *Falgun* a cattle fair is held annually at Gumla where about 2,500 livestock are brought. It is a three-day fair held from very ancient times and called *Gau* mela.

In order to create interest in livestock development the Animal Husbandry Department allots a sum of Rs. 150 for each block to hold a cattle show. A sum of Rs. 1,000 is allotted for a cattle show at the district level.

Fisheries.

Some of the rivers and streams, low-lying fields which accumulate water in the rainy season, ponds and marshes indicate a rich potentiality for development of fisheries in the district. There are about 300 tanks in the whole district.*

In 1952, the Fisheries Section, which was formerly under the Industries Department, was transferred to the Agriculture Department. The Fisheries Development Scheme of the district is managed by the Assistant Fisheries Development Officer, with headquarters at Ranchi. Besides, there are a Fishery Inspector, a Fishery Supervisor, a Fishery Marketing Supervisor and three Fishermen posted in the Sadar subdivision, Ranchi. Similarly the fishery schemes of the mofassil subdivisions are looked after by Fisheries Supervisors posted at respective subdivisional headquarters under the control of the Assistant Fisheries Development Officer, Ranchi. The Fishery Inspectors are expected to look after the development and exploitation of suitable reservoirs in the district. They are also required to look after the welfare of fishermen and do necessary propaganda and demonstrations. They are yet to show result. The fisheries and the fishermen still continue to be in primitive state.

The main occupation of *Mallah, Keut, Banpar* and *Ghasi* is to catch fish and do its marketing. The Mundas weave a special type of net for catching fish.

Seed collection and distribution are the main schemes for the development of fisheries. Four species of quick growing major carps, i.e., *rohu, katla, naini* and *kalbose* have been selected for culture in tanks, reservoirs and ponds. Some of these are Doranda lake, Banas *pokhar,* Ghasi *pokhar,* Lalpur tank, Pugru tank, Simdega Court garden tank and Gumla Court garden tank. The spawn are imported every year from Purulia, Howrah, Patna, etc., and sent to the nursery tanks at subdivisional headquarters to be reared. When they attain a size of $\frac{1}{2}$" they are sold to the tank owners at the subsidised rate of Rs. 6 per thousand fish fry for culture in their tanks.

Fisheries Storage and Marketing.

Facilities are given for the preservation of fish at the surplus market and their transport to deficit ones. One Fishery Marketing Supervisor has been posted at Ranchi for this purpose.

* Source.—The Fisheries Section, Ranchi.

Demonstration and Propaganda.

(*a*) *Exhibition.*—Each block has been provided with a set of fisheries chart, models, etc., to educate the public regarding the technique of pisciculture on scientific lines.

(*b*) *Supply of fisheries nets.*—Each block has been supplied with cast net and drag net to supply the public on hire for exploitation of the fisheries.

(*c*) *Manurial Demonstration.*—Manuring in fish ponds gives better result. To educate the tank owners for proper manuring in tanks, demonstration is conducted by the Fishery Department and manures are supplied free of cost for the purpose.

The main fish markets and centres are Ranchi, Doranda, Gumla, Palkot, Buchaopa, Lohardaga and Khunti. The following are some of the species of fish that are commonly available : *rohu, katla, boari, tengra, hilsa, bachwa, jhinga, pangas, pothia, gachua, maguri* and *bhula.*

Small fish and dried fish are sold in the weekly markets. Some of the tanks and reservoirs owned by the ex-zamindars have been renovated for fishery. The rivers and rivulets are not generally fit for fishery.

The quantity of fish available for internal consumption in Ranchi and other places is absolutely inadequate and the price is very high. This is partially due to manipulation by the persons interested in fish tradc and also because of export.

State Assistance to Agriculturists.

The average cultivator needs financial assistance and particularly when there is damage to his crops due to excessive rain or scarcity of it. He needs credit to buy agricultural implements. The village *mahajans,* Co-operative Banks and registered money-lenders are the normal agencies to give him loans. Since ancient times the administration in India has had the responsibility of financing the cultivators, particularly when they are in distress. The British regime evolved a system of giving loans mainly through the Agriculturist Loans Act (XII of 1884) and Land Improvement Loans Act (IX of 1883). Loans for sand clearance are also given. Gratuitous relief is given to the agriculturists only in extreme cases of scarcity or distress. These are being followed even now. An officer makes an enquiry or causes an enquiry to be made by an officer not below the rank of a Kanungo or by a reliable non-official agent, for the purpose of ascertaining several particulars such as the area of the land, status of the applicant, etc. The enquiry into these particulars makes the process rather lengthy before the loans are granted and an applicant may have to come several times to the office of the Subdivisional Officer or the Collector. The usual delay in getting loans from Government forces the

agriculturists to go to the village *mahajans.* But to safeguard the interest of the administration the enquiries and formalities are necessary, though they could be expedited. The average agriculturist does not pay back the loan in time. This strains the financial resources of the State.

The following statement gives details of disbursement of loans from 1956-57 to 1963-64:—

Year.	Agriculturist loan.		Land improvement loan.	
	Allotment received.	Loan advanced.	Allotment received.	Loan advanced.
1	2	3	4	5
1956-57	2,60,000	1,84,951	1,15,000	1,15,000
1957-58	5,00,000	5,00,000	56,000	56,000
1958-59	8,50,000	8,50,000	50,000	50,000
1959-60	1,75,000	1,39,990	50,000	30,580
1960-61	1,35,000	1,33,860	45,000	38,441
1961-62	3,90,000	3,69,540	20,000	19,700
1962-63	2,24,000	1,44,605	68,000	17,200
1963-64	4,48,000	3,89,881	1,26,000	18,010*

From the aforesaid figures, it appears that in 1957-58 and 1958-59 the incidence of loans advanced under the Agriculturists Loans was unusually high. It was due to drought in those years.

Natural Calamities.

Famine or scarcity due to deficiency of rainfall may be said to be the only natural calamity from which the inhabitants of this district may suffer. Floods are rendered almost impossible, except for a very short period and within the narrowest limits, by the physical conformation of the country and the rapid discharge of water through excellent natural drainage. The crops in the lowest fields are sometimes injured to a small extent by very heavy falls of rain. When famine or scarcity has occurred, it has been due almost invariably to the failure of the rains in the latter part of August and of *Hathia* (end of September or early October). The crops are in fact entirely dependent on the rainfall, as there is very little artificial irrigation in the district.

*Source.—Loans Office of the Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi.

Of the total cropped area of the district (18,97,148 acres), the irrigated area only amounts to 26,151 acres during 1964-65*. Though the country is intersected by numerous streams and rivers, practically no attempt is made by tenants to utilise the water for irrigating the crops. Under present conditions a serious failure of the rain means famine through a large part of the district, while a partial failure causes scarcity and distress. The water drains away from the uplands and even the higher lowlands with great rapidity and unless the crops on those lands receive a plentiful and continuous supply of water, they wither and die very quickly.

The most important crop of the district is the autumn and winter rice. The total area under rice amounts to 63.2 per cent of the total cropped area, and of this the area under *bhadai* and *aghani* rice is 2,22,720 and 8,34,406 acres respectively. The *gora* rice which is grown on the better class of uplands (*tanr*) is the first to suffer from an early cessation of the rains and next, the rice grown on the *chaura,* or higher lowlands. and in years of scarcity famine areas will generally be found to correspond with the areas in which there is the greatest proportion of the classes of land entered in the settlement record as *Don* III and *Don* IV. with a high proportion of uplands. Such areas are found in villages in the more backward tracts, where the land has been cleared in comparatively recent times. In villages in the more intensely cultivated areas there are large stretches of low-lying rice lands, classified in the settlement as *Don* I or *Don* II, which remain moist for the greater part of the year, and such villages are little liable to scarcity. The areas most liable to famine are the thanas Bishunpur, Chainpur, Raidih, Kurdeg. Kochedega and part of Ghaghra adjacent to Bishunpur. Bishunpur is probably the area which is least able to resist conditions of scarcity.

Though the importance of the rice crop cannot be over-estimated, there are other factors to be taken into consideration. In the Khunti subdivision, the lac crop has an important bearing on the prosperity of the people. If lac is abundant and good prices are obtainable, the people can resist famine.

Jungle produce, in particular the *mahua* crop, also plays an important part in the economy of the district, and has been estimated to be equivalent to a two months' supply of food. Both in 1897 and in 1900. the partial failure of the *mahua* crop greatly aggravated the distress.

Early Famines.

There is no record of famine in early times. There was severe drought in 1820, 1823, 1827 and 1837, but in none of these years was the distress sufficient to cause famine. Even the great famine of 1866 did not

*Annual Season and Crop Report, 1964-65, published by Director of Statistics and Evaluation, Bihar, pp. 53—55.

seriously affect the district. On the plateau coarse rice rose to the unprecedented price of 11½ seers to the rupee, but though the people felt the pressure of scarcity to some extent, there was no approach to actual scarcity, except in one or two places on the border of Manbhum where the price of rice rose as high as eight seers to the rupee, probably owing to heavy exports.

In 1873 the rains began so late that only a portion of the *bhadai* crop could be sown. Later in the year, they fell in such torrents as to beat down the young crops, while from the 13th September till the following January there was an unbroken stretch of dry, hot weather. Distress was confined to the five *parganas,* and even in this tract the construction of a few roads and the issue of land improvement loans amounting to Rs. 2,360 were the only relief operations required. A bumper crop of *mahua* and of jungle fruits in 1874 served to dispel any apprehension of serious distress. The experience of those years led to the conclusion that famine need not be anticipated in the district, and that even scarcity would be confined to the five *parganas,* where the proportion of *chaura* to *garha don* is high. Subsequent experience has shown this conclusion to be erroneous.

Since 1888 there have been three famines, in 1896-97, in 1899-1900, and in 1907-08. Whether the distress was really greater in these than in previous years, is uncertain. Greater knowledge of the district, owing to improved communications, may have resulted in relief measures being taken to meet distress, which in former times would have passed unnoticed. But it is probable also that the destruction of the forests had led to a decrease of jungle products, and thus deprived the people of one of their chief means of resistance to famine. The distress was greatly aggravated on the outbreak of the famines as the collection of jungle produce was no longer possible, and during the first two famines, there were a partial failure of the *mahua* crop.

Famine of 1897.

In 1897, though famine was never actually declared in the district and relief operations were only carried on for a few months on a small scale, there is reason to believe that the sufferings of the people were great. The harvest of 1895 had been deficient, and in 1896 the monsoon was very weak in August and September, the rainfall being only 8.08 and 3.08 inches, respectively, in these months against a normal fall of 13.67 and 8.76 inches. In October no rain fell. The rainfall was also badly distributed, and in some places excessive rain did damage to the *bhadai* crops. The whole district was affected and outturn of the rice crops was estimated at only eight annas. As the crop of the previous year had only been ten annas, the stock of foodgrains was very low, while the high prices obtainable in other districts tempted the people to a reckless export of their stocks and drained the district of what little

grain it contained. At first no apprehension of serious distress was entertained, and the only relief measures undertaken in April, May and June were the opening of a few kitchens at Ranchi and Lohardaga and work on the Bundu-Silli road. The price of rice had, however, been steadily rising. In the second half of October, 1896, it had risen from 11 seers to 9½ seers, and though the price fell slightly during the next two months, it rose steadily from February 1897 till it reached 6 5/16 seers in June and 5 6/16 seers at the end of July; in many markets only four seers could be obtained for the rupee. Contributary causes to the distress were the partial failure of the *mahua* crop and the total failure of the mango crop, while the break of the monsoon stopped the collection of jungle produce. The isolated position of the district and the deficiency of carts precluded the importation of grain during the rains, and it became clear that the people would not be able to surmount the calamity without assistance from public funds. The outbreak was sudden, sharp and short-lived; and immediate relief operations had to be undertaken in an area of about 700 square miles, south-west of Ranchi, the worst tract being one of 100 square miles, west of the unfordable Karo river, in Lapung, Basia and Sisai. Test works were opened, but failed to attract labour, as the people preferred to support life on a meagre diet of jungle products, without working, to obtaining a ration insufficient to compensate them for the expenditure of physical energy. In all, 52,710 persons in terms of one day received relief in return for work; the average daily number being 675, and the cost per unit per day being 9 pies. Gratuitous relief was the chief means of meeting the distress, 1,53,200 units in all being relieved in this way, the average daily number being 2,042. The acute stage was of short duration and scarcely lasted two months. A bumper crop of *gondli,* seasonable weather and an increase in the importation of rice, owing to a bounty of one rupee per maund being given, had the effect of lowering prices and the relief works were closed at the end of August, and the kitchens in the following month. The total expenditure from public funds was Rs. 1,80,000. Only three deaths from actual starvation were reported, but cholera broke out in epidemic form, and there was an exceptionally high mortality from bowel complaints, probably the result of an unwholesome diet of *gondli,* unmixed with rice, upon constitutions already enfeebled by a low diet of jungle fruits and roots. In August and September alone the mortality was 21.18 per mille.

Famine of 1900.

The famine of 1900 was entirely due to the early cessation of the rains in 1899. The monsoon was normal in June and July, but in the next three months the average rainfall (except in thanas Silli and Tamar) was 9.08 against a normal district average of 24.85 and in thanas Lohardaga and Chainpur only 6.60 and 7.76 respectively. As a result, the winter rice crop was a failure; the outturn for the whole district was only

six annas, while in thanas Toto, Sisai, Lohardaga and Bishunpur, it was only three annas. The *bhadai* crops were fair, but the *rabi,* which is of little importance, failed absolutely. The mango and *mahua* trees, which might have yielded a three months' food supply at a time when it was specially needed, produced, in March, 1900, the worst crop known for years. In spite of these unfavourable circumstances the people showed great powers of endurance, and until April distress was nowhere so severe as to amount to famine. Test works were opened during March, April and May in various parts of the district, but it was not till June, that famine was declared in thanas Chainpur, Khunti, Sisai, Karra, Toto, Bishunpur, Lohardaga, Basia and Palkot.

The total area affected was about 2,180 square miles, with a population of 3,20,251, and comprised roughly a tract, about 70 miles long and 30 miles wide, running from the centre of the district to its extreme north-west corner. The area, in which the distress was most severe, were thana Karra and the adjacent parts of Sisai, and thanas Chainpur and Bishunpur. Test works were also opened in thanas Ranchi, Mandar and Kochedega but the distress in these parts was neither very general nor very acute.

By the end of July, 1960 relief works and 14 test works had been opened, on which 10,271 persons were employed; the number gradually increased, till, in the first week of September, over 14,000 men, women and children were at work. Gratuitous relief was first given in July and was confined as far as possible to relief in kitchens, only those for whom such relief was unsuitable being given dry doles. The attendance reached its maximum of 8,561, in the week ending the 18th of August. Both relief works and kitchens were closed in the middle of September, when a good *bhadai* crop had been harvested and there was a promise of a good crops of winter rice. The cost of the relief operations was Rs. 2,02,989: of which Rs. 1,11,636 were expended on wages, Rs. 20,190 on doles and rations and Rs. 54,472 on establishment. The relief works undertaken were the construction of tanks and reservoirs, or of roads. The former are far the more useful, but the people preferred work on the latter.

Famine of 1908.

Normal harvests from 1900 onwards had been succeeded by bumper crops in 1905–07, but the bulk of the grain was exported owing to the impetus given to trade by the failure of crops elsewhere. The lac crop was also on the whole good during these years, though the price of lac had fallen by more than 50 per cent owing to depression of trade in America. These favourable circumstances, combined with the fact that, during the pendency of the settlement operations, many *raiyats* withheld their rent, should have caused more cash than usual to remain in the district. Unfortunately the local cultivator never looks ahead, and

recklessly spends his ready money on clothes, amusements or drink; and he was in no better position to tide over the bad harvest of 1907 than in previous years.

The famine was again due to the early cessation of the rains of 1907 and was intensified by the large export of grain during that year. The total rainfall, though in excess of the normal, was very badly distributed; August, with 25.61 inches of rain and the first week of September were abnormally wet, but except for one or two local showers, there was no rain after the 9th of September. The result was that the *gora*, or early paddy, suffered from the absence of sun in August, and gave an average outturn of only eight to twelve annas, while the winter rice, specially on the higher, or *chaura* lands dried up owing to insufficient moisture, and though the outturn varied throughout the district, it did not average more than eight annas, and in Chainpur and Tamar thanas did not exceed three annas. The oil-seed crops completely withered and the *rabi* was a total failure. Distress was general throughout the district, but the distribution of nearly three and a half lakhs of rupees in seed loans assisted two-thirds of the district to tide over the crisis. Famine was declared only in thanas Kurdeg, Kochedega, Chainpur, Bishunpur and Ghaghra, an area of 2,261 square miles with a population of 2,37,238. Relief works were also necessary in Sisai thana and in part of Sonahatu, and test works were opened in Burmu and part of Tamar. The distinguishing mark of the famine was the unprecedentedly high price of rice throughout the district. By December, 1907 it was higher than in the famine of 1900 and nearly as high as in 1897, and it rose gradually from eight seers to the rupee to five and, in some places, four seers. The classes chiefly affected were the poorer cultivators, whose holdings contained a large proportion of *chaura* lands, and the landless classes.

The first test work was opened in Bishunpur in February, but the people held aloof as long as they could obtain a subsistence from jungle produce. Even when they came and prospected the work, they remained only a few days at a time, were very suspicious, refused to come far from their homes and loathed a set task to be done in a set time. The distribution of seed loans in April alleviated, and in some places entirely staved off, distress, and by the end of May only twelve relief works had been opened, the majority in Bishunpur and Chainpur thanas. The break of the rains, contrary to experience in other districts, intensified the distress and by the end of June, twenty-three relief works had been opened. Famine was declared in the six thanas in the beginning of July and the number on relief works rose rapidly. Gratuitous relief which began with the rains, developed very rapidly. The distress was at its height in July and August. The largest number of workers in one day was 12,221; in the middle of August 3.47 per cent of the population of the declared area were employed on the works, which by that time numbered 35, while 2.47 per cent were receiving gratuitous relie

Towards the end of August a good crop of *gondli* was harvested, but afforded little relief, the price being 12 seers to the rupee as compared with 64 seers to the rupee in 1900. As soon, however, as the *gora* crop began to come in the market, steps were taken to close the operations, gratuitous relief was terminated on 15th September, and all works were shut down by the 24th. During the hot weather all the relief works undertaken were the construction and repair of tanks and *bandhs* for the storage of water; the rains made this work impossible and the construction of roads was taken up. Gratuitous relief was given in the form of money doles and distributed fortnightly at suitable village centres. The number of persons relieved, reckoned in terms of one day was 12,73,799. The total expenditure, excluding seed loans was Rs. 2,11,763, wages accounting for Rs. 1,12,958, gratuitous relief for Rs. 51,963 and establishment for Rs. 25,094 and the cost per unit was 31 pies. The railway which had recently been opened greatly facilitated the import of rice to Ranchi and the adjacent parts, and the large import had a great effect in steadying prices throughout the district, even though the rice imported did not reach the outlying tracts. The number of emigrants, especially to the tea gardens, was unusually high, and this too may be partly attributed to the increased facilities offered by the railway. The year was unhealthy, small-pox, fever and cholera succeeding one another, and the death-rate was 46.4 against an average of 23.4 per mille for the preceding five years.

During 1914-15 there was distress due to partial failure of crops attributed to want of timely rainfall. The lac industry was also very dull due to cessation of export to Europe and America as the First World (1918-19) War was on.

This year witnessed great distress. Owing to the war, the prices of certain essential commodities such as cloth, kerosene oil and salt had reached their unprecedented peak, but those of foodgrains remained low. Distress was relieved to some extent by emigration to gardens in Assam and Bengal: Recruitment of labour for the war theatres in Mesopotamia and also overseas helped ease the situation.

1920-21.

During 1920-21 there was drought in Ranchi. Heavy rains in the early part of the monsoon proved disastrous to the *bhadai* crops and the complete cessation of the rains in September seriously affected winter rice and *rabi*.

1927-28.

During 1927-28 the winter paddy crop suffered badly due to the scanty rains in the district. The lac harvest was also poor. Thus the district as a whole faced scarcity; its impact being heavy in the Simdega and Gumla subdivisions.

1928-29.

Failure of rains seriously affected all the standing crops, especially on highlands in Ranchi. There was a serious outbreak of cattle disease in the Gumla subdivision. Four additional Veterinary Assistant Surgeons were employed for inoculation and 7,000 heads of cattle were inoculated.

1939—1945.

A calamity, though man-made, befell this district, as also others, in the shape of the Second World (1939—45) War which caused spiral rise in the prices of all commodities.

From 1941 onwards there was a phenomenal rise in the prices of foodgrains, short supply of essential commodities and purchasing power of money started failing. The rise of the price of foodgrains benefited the actual growers with surplus stock, but the service and the professional classes with fixed income group were hard hit. There had been exodus of labourers from the Ranchi district to tea gardens in Assam during 1940-41, the emigrants numbering 8,358 as against 10,878 during the preceding decade (1939-40). The prices of the essential commodities including food-stuff reached an unheard of peak during 1944-45. The prices of coal and cement also rose due to great demand by various industrial concerns. The Government adopted price control measures to check the rising prices of the essential commodities*.

1945-46 *to* 1948-49.

There were scarcities in the district, mainly due to the failure of rice, *gondli* and *gora* crops. In 1948-49 the Gumla subdivision was particularly affected.

1952-53.

In 1952 also scarcity conditions prevailed in some portions of the Gumla subdivision, particularly in the Palkot, Raidih, Bishunpur and Basia thanas. In Gumla town itself the availability of grains was limited. The price of rice rose up to Rs. 30 per maund during June to October, 1952. This was attributed mainly to partial failure of rains in previous years which had adversely affected the paddy crop. Conditions were further accentuated by slump in lac trade and also in the tea districts in Assam due to international factors. The former affected the chief subsidiary income of the villagers and the latter caused dislocation in the employment of emigrant labour who had to return to their homes, only to add to the number of unemployed. Government rushed supply of

*See, Land Revenue Administration Report, 1939-40.

foodgrains and Fair Price Shops were opened in the affected areas where rice and *atta* were sold at reasonable rates. Hard manual labour schemes were taken up to provide employment, by constructions and repairs of small irrigation schemes as well as District Board and Forest Department roads, where necessary gratuitous relief was also given to indigent persons. A sum of Rs. 1,19,617 was spent and 11,887 maunds of grains were distributed. The operations closed in October, 1952. The succeeding *kharif* paddy crop in November and December was fair and all signs of scarcity disappeared with the harvesting of the crop. There was no starvation death or outbreak of epidemic reported from anywhere and the general public health was fair.

In the Khunti subdivision signs of scarcity were visible from May to the end of October, 1952. The price of rice soared to Rs. 30 per maund. The measures to remove distress were taken in time and thus the situation was kept under control. 37 Fair Price Shops were started throughout the subdivision. 12,573 maunds of foodgrains, wheat (5,850½ maunds) and rice (6,722½ maunds) were sold through Fair Price Shops. Relief projects were started to provide purchasing power to the landless labourers. A total sum of Rs. 1,93,000 was spent over these relief projects. It gave employment to approximately 3,100 labourers daily. Six minor irrigation schemes also gave employment to 200 labourers. The major scheme at Aradih executed on behalf of the Waterways Division also continued to give employment to 300 labourers daily. The problem of unemployment had become rather acute in view that quite a large number of labourers of the lac factory were thrown out of employment as most of these factories had closed down because of slump in lac trade. To the indigents and invalid who could not undertake hard manual labour, free ration cards were issued. 444 free ration cards were issued to 1,177 individuals and 126½ maunds of foodgrains were distributed free.

During the year under report the crop was good except *gora* and *gondli* which were partly damaged by insects. Steps were taken to fight this menace.

The general condition of the people on the whole was fair and emigration to labour district was very low as sufficient relief schemes involving hard manual labour were started.

The price of rice, paddy and other foodgrains was high up to September, 1952 and from October, 1952 it showed a downward tendency and in November, 1952 rice was selling at Rs. 17-8-0 per maund. It was selling at Rs. 18-8-0 till March, 1953.

1957-58 *and* 1958-59.

The years 1957-58 and 1958-59 were, however, a period of rather acute economic scarcity. The cause of distress was failure of *bhadai* crops and damage of *aghani* crops due to late transplantation and the failure of *Hathia* rains. During 1957-58 the areas of scarcity were Simdega, Kurdeg, Kolebira, Bolba, Bano, Thethaitangar, Khunti, Karra and Murhu. The less affected areas were Angara and Mandar and other thanas of Ranchi Sadar.

During 1957-58 about 9,15,730 persons were affected by scarcity. A sum of Rs. 15,320 was distributed towards relief work. Besides, a sum of Rs. 5,00,000 as Agriculturists' Loan and Rs. 56,000 as Land Improvement Loans were distributed. Fair Price Shops were also opened in the whole of the district.

During 1958-59 the most affected areas were Simdega, Kurdeg, Kolebira, Bolba and Bano thanas. The *bhadai* and *aghani* crops were lost to the extent of about 60 per cent. About 120 Fair Price Shops were opened in the district. Hard Manual Labour Schemes were started which gave employment to 8,112 persons at a total cost of Rs. 58,482. The Land Improvement Loan of Rs. 50,000 and Agriculturists' Loan of Rs. 8,50,000 were also distributed among cultivators.

CHAPTER VI.

INDUSTRIES.

Old Time Industries.

A number of indigenous industries existed in this district in olden times. The foremost among them are outlined below :—

Cotton Weaving.—The weaving castes such as Chik Baraiks, Pans and Muhammedan Jolahas used to manufacture coarse cloth, e.g., *Kareya* for local consumption. The cotton used in weaving was usually grown locally and spun by their women-folk at home. There were no large weaving centres and the production was on small scale, based on individual household. In spite of the dominance of mill-made cloths this tradition has been carried on though in a refined form, because of surplus domestic labour and specialised skill in weaving, e.g., manufacture of *lungis*, bed-covers and curtains of attractive designs to suit individual taste. The Co-operative Credit and Marketing have provided facilities to the weavers, who now use imported mill-spun yarn. The production is spread over villages throughout the district. Some important production centres are located in villages round Ormanjhi and Mandar in the Sadar subdivision. The goods now reach wider markets on account of improved communications, some being exported overseas as well.

Iron Goods.—The ordinary iron utensils for domestic use as well as ploughs were made locally throughout the district by the village Lohras and Lohars. Iron was extracted from iron-ore by the Asurs and Lohras, and sometimes by the Oraons and Mundas themselves. The appliances used by the blacksmiths were primitive and the products of their hearth and anvil had no pretensions to fine work. The weapons used by the tribals in hunting were sometimes good examples of such crude work, specially the hunting axes known as *balua* or *phalsa* according to their shape. Heavy axes (*tangi*) were made for wood cutting*. These primitive industries have now almost vanished because of the supply of better and cheaper mill-made wares, manufactured in local factories or imported.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), *p.* 171.

Other Domestic Industries.—The workers in brass and bell-metal, principally at Ranchi and Lohardaga, used to manufacture the ordinary vessels for household use; the village *Kumhars* supplied pottery of ordinary description; the carpenters turned out rough wooden work. The village *Kumhars* still carry on their work while the others have, more or less, disappeared from the scene. As in old times, basket-making is even now carried on by the Turis and Doms all over the district while rope is manufactured by Birhors and other aboriginal tribes from *sabai* grass and other fibres. Among musical instruments drums are locally manufactured.*

Gold-Washing.—In the Sonapet Valley, several unsuccessful attempts were made to develop the gold-washing industry. At one time this led to a so-called gold boom in Calcutta which landed many people in disaster. The Jhoras of Biru occasionally washed for gold in the auriferous sands of the river Sankh and other rivers, but a hard day's work was well rewarded if the gold-dust obtained was worth 3 or 4 annas.**

Diamonds.—This country was famous in olden times for diamonds. Tavernier refers to diamond-mining at Soumelpore in Lohardaga (now Ranchi) district of Chota Nagpur where diamonds were found in the sands of the river Koel.† But nobody has been heard prospecting about them now.

Coffee.—In the early part of the present century experiments showed that coffee could do well in Chota Nagpur. Its cultivation was started near Ranchi and the local Roman Catholic Mission made pioneering efforts to propagate it. However, cultivation remained restricted and at present no coffee is grown at all in the district.

Silk.—Formerly the rearing of tasar cocoons was carried out on a small scale in portions of Tamar and Khunti thanas. Wild cocoons were very rare and tasar was usually obtained from cocoons reared on the *asan* tree (*Terminalia Tomentosa*). The Roman Catholic Mission at Khunti made some efforts to encourage this industry in the vicinity of Khunti. However, there is now little trace of this industry.‡

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 172.

** *Ibid*, p. 172.

† R. R. Diwakar: *Bihar Through the Ages*, 1959, p. 564.

‡ *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 118.

Industrial Manpower.

According to 1961 census, out of a total of 12,04,919 workers (6,39,871 males and 5,65,048 females), 26,318 workers (18,971 males and 7,347 females) were engaged in mining, quarrying, livestock, forestry, fishing, hunting, plantations, orchards and allied services; 47,619 (27,918 males and 19,701 females) in household industries; 18,472 (15,450 males and 3,022 females) in manufacturing other than household industries; and 7,590 (6,449 males and 1,141 females) in construction work in the district.* Thus about 8.3 per cent of the total number of workers belonged to industrial occupations.

Sources of Power.

The Naisari Hydro-Electric Power Station† supplies electricity to Ranchi and Lohardaga towns. There are fuel generating stations at Netarhat (Palamau), Gumla and Simdega. The Bihar State Electricity Board purchases power from Damodar Valley Corporation to supply it to large-scale industries and other types of consumers in the district. It served 793, both low and high tension bulk consumers, in 1964 for various types of loads. The Khelari Cement Factory draws electric supply from its own power house while a private company with headquarters at Ranchi supplies power to the consumers in Ranchi town. Both these units are expected to be taken over by Government soon.

There were 24,937 consumers in the district, of whom about 13,845 were of domestic group (June, 1966). All the towns and about 127 villages in the district have been electrified till 1966.

The statement below shows the approximate volume of electricity consumed in the district from 1st April 1963 to 31st March 1966 under the following heads‡:—

Period.	Consumption.
(1st April 1963 to 31st March 1966).	
1. Domestic	77,474 Units.
2. Commercial	1,83,037 „
3. Industrial	64,23,315 „
4. Public lighting	17,491 „
5. Irrigation	3,21,393 „
6. Others	14,52,491 „

The value of the above units came to Rs. 1,05,91,888.

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-A, pp. 580—582.

† Near Ramgarh in the Hazaribagh district.

‡ Source.—State Electricity Board Office, Ranchi.

Hydro-Power.—There are river valleys in this district which can be utilised for hydro-power generation. The Sankh Hydro-Electric Scheme may yield an installed capacity of about 1,00,000 K.W. and the river Subarnarekha may be utilised for producing about 60,000 K.W. The details of the future programme are given below*:—

(1) *Sankh Hydro-Electric Power Project.*—The scheme consists of three power stations on the river Sankh, viz., (*a*) Juritilla of 22.5 M.W., (*b*) Sarubera of 163.00 M.W. and (*c*) Poraltoli of 165.00 M.W.

(2) *Subarnarekha Hydro-Electric Power Project.*—The scheme consists of a reservoir and two power stations, one of 50 M.W. and the other of 26 M.W. capacity respectively. It is also proposed to co-ordinate this scheme with a water-supply scheme for Ranchi and Hatia areas by diverting 75 cusecs of water, which may, however, reduce the capacity of these power stations to 26 M.W. and 15 M.W. respectively. The Government of Bihar has approved of the Subarnarekha Hydro-Electric-*cum*-Water-Supply and Power Project at Getalsud in the Ranchi district. The project, which is estimated to cost about Rs. 21 crores, will be executed in stages.

(3) *South Koel and North-Karo Hydro-Electric Project.*—The scheme consists of three reservoirs, viz., (*i*) Basia reservoir. (*ii*) North-Karo no. II reservoir and (*iii*) North-Karo no. III reservoir and three power stations of 449 M.W. capacity, namely, (*i*) Basia power station at Basia Dam site (54 M.W.), (*ii*) North-Karo no. II power station (320 M.W.), and (*iii*) North-Karo no. III (75 M.W.). The scheme is under investigation.

The general configuration of land in this district provides drops in many places to tap the falling water in rainy season to produce electricity to meet small domestic needs.

Thermal Power.—The Bihar Electricity Board proposes to carry out investigation on a thermal power station of 750 M.W. capacity at village Ray in Khelari thana.

Due to the fast pace of industrialisation of this district, there is growing demand for power and accordingly new sub-transmission and distribution lines are to be erected shortly at Gumla, Khunti, Simdega and Lohardaga.

* SOURCE.—Bihar State Electricity Board, Patna.

In pursuance of a suggestion from Government of India a load survey was conducted in 1961 by the State Electricity Board to furnish data on demand, both present and prospective, and availability of power in Bihar. According to this survey, a peak demand of 308 M.W. at the end of the Third Five-Year Plan and 934 M.W. at the end of the Fourth Plan was estimated for South Bihar and Chota Nagpur. It included the demand of 174 M.W. being met by the Damodar Valley Corporation, but to be replaced with the power to be generated by the Board itself by the end of the Fourth Plan.

For supplying power to the Heavy Engineering Corporation at Hatia, a double circuit of 132 K.V. line from Patratu to Hatia was proposed, length of the transmission being 50 miles. A 132 K.V. double circuit line was also proposed from Patratu to Ramgarh for linking the Patratu Steam Power Station with Damodar Valley Corporation Grid.

Wind Power.—Major J. Ramackers at his Daladali tea estate and Mr. Beed at Tatisilwai were successful pioneers in 1950s in tapping wind force to generate electricity for their domestic needs. The former also drew water from wells with this energy to irrigate tea plants. The high velocity winds in the district hold a fair prospect in this line.

MINERAL BASED INDUSTRIES.

The important economic minerals which occur in this district are: coal, limestone, laterite, barytes, fireclay, china-clay, bauxite, etc.

Coal.—The following eight collieries are being worked in this district*:—

Name of colliery.	Management.
Manki Colliery no. 1, P. O. Khelari, Ranchi.	M/s. N. C. M. I. Ltd., Modi House, Kanke Road, Ranchi.
Karkatta Colliery, P. O. Khelari, Ranchi.	M/s. Karkatta Coal Co. Ltd., Modi House, Kanke Road, Ranchi.
Ray Colliery no. 3, P. O. Ray, Ranchi.	M/s. N. C. M. I. Ltd., 82, Stephen House, Dalhousie Square East, Calcutta-1 or Modi House, Kanke Road, Ranchi.
Manki Colliery no. 2, P. O. Ray, Ranchi.	Ditto ditto.

* SOURCE.—District Mining Office, Ranchi.

Name of colliery.	Management.
West Tumang Colliery, P. O. McCluskieganj, Ranchi.	M/s. Chouhan Brothers, Old Commissioner's Compound, Ranchi.
Karanpura Dewarkhand Colliery, P. O. Khelari, Ranchi.	M/s. Karanpura Dewarkhand Colliery, F.-3. Gillander House, 8, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta-1.
Churi Colliery, P. O. Ray, Ranchi.	M/s. United Karanpura Colliery (P.) Ltd., P. O. Kharkharee, Dhanbad.
Dakra Bukbuka Colliery, P. O. Ray, Ranchi.	Ditto ditto.

The following quarries and mines are also being worked :—

Name of works.	Management.
Limestone.	
Khelari Limestone quarries, (Sarle), P. O. Ray, Ranchi.	Associated Cement Co. Ltd., Cement House 121, Queens Road, Bombay.
Khelari Limestone quarries, (Khelari), P. O. Khelari, Ranchi.	Ditto ditto.
Ray Dundu Limestone quarry, P. O. Ray, Ranchi.	M/s. Ray Limestone Co., P.-40, Princes Street (4th floor), Calcutta-13.
Laterite.	
Salaiya Laterite, P. O. Lohardaga, Ranchi.	National Cement Mines and Industries Ltd.
Barytes.	
Silwai Barytes Mine, P. O. Tatisilwai, Ranchi.	M/s. Orissa Manganese Minerals (P.) Ltd., 4, Lyons Range, Calcutta.

Name of works.	Management.
Fireclay.	
Ray/Bishejhapa Fireclay Mines, P. O. Ray, Ranchi.	Modi House, Kanke Road, Ranchi.
China clay mines.	
Charu China-clay, P. O..Charu, via Lohardaga, Ranchi.	M/s. National Cement Mines and Industries Ltd., 82, Stephen House, Dalhousie Square East. Calcutta-1.
Jaruadih China-clay, P. O. Chutupalu, Ranchi.	Shri S. N. Jaiswal, Lalpur, Ranchi.
Manhe China-clay, P. O. Lohardaga, Ranchi.	M/s. National Cement Mines and Industries Ltd., 82, Stephen House, Dalhousie Square East, Calcutta-1.

*Bauxite.**

History.—The history of bauxite mining in the Ranchi district dates back to 1933 when Morris Baldevin and Company commenced working the deposit at Bagru Hill. After a few years of active mining, the bauxite quarries were taken over by the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur in 1938. Other lease-holders in the area were Messrs. Jokhi Ram Mang Raj and Laterite Syndicate, managed by Messrs. Jessop and Company. The efforts of these companies did not prove successful in their objective to manufacture aluminium, cement and to obtain pig iron as by-product. About the end of 1938 a Canadian Company, the Aluminium Production Company of India Ltd. (now Indian Aluminium Company Ltd.) with a view to manufacture aluminium in India became interested in this bauxite deposit and took lease of the properties of Messrs. Jessop and Company and also of Messrs. Baldevin and Company from the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur and later started mining of bauxite on the Bagru Hill to feed their alumina plant at Muri.

The Aluminium Corporation of India Ltd. used to get bauxite ore for their plant at Jaykaynagar (West Bengal) from the Kelhari Pahar about ten miles south of the rail-head at Richughutu on the Barkakana

* SOURCE.—*Memoirs of Geological Survey of India*, Vol. 85, (1958), pp. 29, 84, 93—95.

line of the Eastern Railway. But due to inaccessibility of this area the Corporation discontinued quarrying at this place and obtained the ore from the Bagru Hill for some time.

Occurrence.—The bauxite enrichment in the laterite cappings on the north-west side of the Ranchi district and on the adjoining high lands of the Palamau district constitute the most important deposits in India. This area was geologically mapped during 1943–47 and covers more than 1,500 square miles, falling between the latitudes 23°00′ and 23°30′ and the longitudes 84°00′ and 84°45′. It has numerous occurrences of high grade ore of economically workable dimensions, some being thick and continuous over large areas. The reserves of ore amount to more than 1,00,00,000 tons. There are also other important deposits, particularly those bordering Surguja and Jashpur; but their development cannot be seriously considered until they are made accessible.

The bauxite deposits in the Ranchi district are detailed below :—

Location : Head-water region of the Auranga River.

Sub-region and area.	Minimum tonnage available.
Khamar Pat—Southern and eastern scarps ..	1,00,000
Mandua Pat—South of the village and wooded portion of the plateau.	1,00,000
Pokhra Pat—Northern, eastern and south-eastern scarps.	3,00,000
Garh Pat—Insignificant patches of alumina laterite	..
Dudhia Pahar—Eastern and northern scarps ..	2,75,000
Bangla Pat—At the headwestern of the Damohan ..	60,000
Dhauta Pat—Insignificant patches of aluminous laterite.	..
Mahua Pat—Insignificant patches of aluminous laterite	..
Kelhari Pahar—Eastern side, also defrital deposit on upper slopes.	60,000

Location : Head-water region of the Chanpi river.

Rudni Pat—North-west corner	5,000
Bagru Hill—Southern scarps	25,00,000

Sub-region and area.	Minimum tonnage available.
Maidan Pat—Irregular concentration on the southern side.	1,50,000
Plateau south of Maidan Pat—Mixed aluminous laterite.	
Garh Pat—Southern side	5,000
Saru Pahar—Northern scarp	1,50,000
Lalmatia Pat—All round the ruin, particularly to the south.	4,30,000
Dudha Pat—Eastern and western scarps	1,70,000
Manhe Pat—Northern side	74,000
Dhula Pat—South-eastern scarps	2,00,000

Catchment area of the Ghaghra Nadi and the Jori Nala (Serangdag Plateau).

Banjari Paltoli area	1,00,000
Dudhapattoli area	50,000
Chiropaltoli area	1,00,000
Bandapattoli area	1,60,000
Tuimu area	1,50,000
Serangdag	1,00,000
Mahua-Paltoli-Dungar Pattoli area	50,000
Pakripaltoli-Koilapattoli area	2,00,000
Kachki Pat	2,50,000
Hanrup area	50,000

Catchment area of the Dhardhari Nadi.

Amptipani area	4,50,000

Catchment area of the Sankh river.

Gurdari	1,30,000
Rajadera R. F. and Katabil R. F. areas ..	4,00,000
Luchupat	1,50,000
Ridge between Gharghutua Nadi and Barkadih ..	15,00,000
Jarda Pahar	10,00,000

Quality.

The quality of bauxite varies from *Pat* to *Pat* some being very high in Alumina, e.g., Rajadera with 66.98 per cent and some being as low as 48.65 per cent (Chanpi on Bagru Pat).

Analysis of a few bauxite samples are given below:—

....	Rajadera.	Bagru.	Chanpi.	Pakher.	Khamer.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Silica	0.30	1.08	2.06	1.74	1.16
Titania	7.40	8.90	7.11	8.17	9.95
Alumina	66.98	51.90	48.65	55.09	53.92
Iron Oxide ..	5.98	9.60	16.24	6.54	7.73
Combined water or Ignition Loss	21.40	28.84	26.10	28.58	27.73

The following mines are being worked in this district* :—

Name of mines.	Management.
Bagru Hill Mines, P. O. Lohardaga	M/s. Indian Aluminium Co Ltd., 31, Chourangee Road Calcutta.
Bagru Bauxite Mines (Hill-top), P. O. Lohardaga.	M/s. New Churulia Coal Co Ltd., 4, Lyans Range Calcutta.
Birhni Bauxite Mines, P. O. Lohardaga.	M/s. Hindustan Aluminium Corporation Ltd., P. O Richugutta (Palamau).
Champi Bauxite Mines, Lohardaga	M/s. Aluminium Corporation o India Ltd., 7, Council House Street, Calcutta-1.
Chulapani Bauxite Mines, P. O. Kuru	M/s. Bihar Fire Bricks and Potteries Ltd., P. O. Mugma (Dhanbad).
Khamar Bauxite Mines, P. O. Kuru..	M/s. Aluminium Corporation o India Ltd., Council House Street, Calcutta-1.
Khamar Bauxite Mines, P. O. Kuru (Dhaura).	M/s. Bishunpur Karanpura Coa Mines Ltd., 82, Stephen House, Dalhosie Square East Calcutta-1.

* Source.—District Mining Office, Ranchi.

Name of mines.	Management.
Khamarpat Bauxite Mines, P. O. Kuru.	M/s. N. C. M. I. Ltd., Modi House, Kanke Road, Ranchi.
Madanpurdugu Bauxite Mines, P. O. Pasrar (Ranchi).	M/s. Aluminium Corporation of India Ltd., 7, Council House Street, Calcutta-1.
Maidanpat Bauxite Mines, P. O. Lohardaga.	M/s. Hindustan Aluminium Corporation Ltd., P. O. Richugutta (Palamau).
Maidanpat Bauxite Mines, P. O. Lohardaga.	M/s. Minerals and Mineral Ltd., P. O. Lohardaga, Ranchi.
Pakhar Bauxite Mines, P. O. Lohardaga.	Ditto ditto.
Ditto ditto	M/s. Aluminium Corporation of India Ltd., 7, Council Street, Calcutta-1.
Ditto ditto	M/s. N. C. M. I. Ltd., Modi House, Kanke Road. Ranchi.
Pakhar Bauxite Mines. no. 3, P. O. Lohardaga.	Ditto ditto.
Pakhar Bauxite Mines, no. 4, P. O. Lohardaga.	Ditto ditto.
Serangdag Bauxite Mines, P. O. Adar	M/s. Indian Aluminium Corporation Ltd., 31, Chourangee Road, Calcutta.

Uses of Bauxite.—Apart from being the most suitable ore for the extraction of aluminium, bauxite is also used for the manufacture of alum. It has been found possible to purify kerosene by filtering it through partially calcined bauxite. It has also been discovered that by fusing bauxite and limestone and grinding the product, cement is obtained which is stronger and harder than the best Portland Cement. Bauxite can be manufactured into a high quality refractory brick for furnace linings and it is also the raw material for the manufacture of certain alumina abrasives which are used as grinding powders or made into grinding wheels, etc. It is also used for the manufacture of aluminium sulphate and other aluminous salts.

Future Development.—This bauxite area with its numerous perennial streams, deep gorge-like valleys and strong foundation rocks is ideally suited for future hydro-electric projects. The important sites which are likely to be found favourable for hydel-projects in this area are

the North Koel Valley, about two miles north of Tendor, Sadnighagh Falls of the Sankh river about two miles north-west of Rajadera and Burhaghagh Falls of the Burha river near Kukud. These projects may have a total capacity of about 2,00,000 K.W. The availability of cheap electric power would enable the existing plants to increase their production considerably.

Railway communication, if any, from Lohardaga through Adar pass, then along the upstream of the North Koel river into the plains of Chainpur and thence north-westward along the base of the ridges bordering Jashpur, and ultimately crossing into Surguja along the gap south of the Jamirapat will bring all the deposits, a total minimum tonnage of 1,40,00,000, within easy reach of the railhead. Such an alignment will provide an outlet for the bauxite ore to be taken to the east where the industries are likely to grow fast with the development of various power projects now under construction.

Heavy Industries.

*Heavy Engineering Corporation, Hatia.**

Heavy Engineering industries are considered as the base of economic stability of any modern country. These industries produce capital equipment and machinery vitally needed for the establishment of various other industries which in turn accelerate the economic progress of a country.

The capital equipment and machinery required for the development of basic industries have all along been imported. In order to make the country self-reliant and also to conserve foreign exchange as well as train and give employment to our own people, the Government of India established the Heavy Engineering Corporation, as a public sector undertaking, in 1958. This Corporation was entrusted with the setting up of a Heavy Machine Building Plant, a Foundry Forge Plant and a Heavy Machine Tools Plant at Hatia, Ranchi. These plants form the foundation for the development of basic industries in the country and a unique engineering complex in the world. The Heavy Engineering Corporation will have a capital outlay of over 200 crores of rupees. The annual turnover of the plants is expected to be worth about Rs. 100 crores and this amount can be considered as a saving on foreign exchange that the country is likely to need in near future.

The Foundry Forge Plant.

It is being set up in collaboration with Czechoslovakia for the manufacture of a variety of castings and forgings needed for any heavy equipment or machinery, be it an item for steel industry or equipment for mining, heavy earth-moving machine tool, power generation or for that matter anything that the country is likely to need in near future.

* Source.—' Heavy Engineering Corporation at a Glance ', supplied by Heavy Engineering Corporation Office, Ranchi.

The fenced area of the Foundry Forge Plant exceeds 13,00,000 sq. metres and the individual production units will be almost as big as many of the large factories in the country. In all, about 40,000 tonnes of machinery will be installed in the plant. A significant feature of the plant is that for the first time in India, all detailed designs and drawings required for a project of this complexity and size have been developed in the country by Indian Engineers under the technical guidance of Czech experts.

The Foundry Forge Plant will produce all the castings and forgings required by the other two units of Heavy Engineering Corporation, viz., Heavy Machine Building Plant and Heavy Machine Tools Plant. Provision has also been made for some surplus capacity to meet the demands of heavy castings and forgings from various other industries, both in public and private sectors. In this plant, castings and forgings of practically any type and composition from a few kilograms to 100 tonnes piece weight will be produced.

Equipped with the latest casting and forging techniques, the plant will be one of the biggest and most modern of its kind in the East. In terms of size, specification and quantum, some of the castings and forgings of this plant will be produced for the first time in India—the maximum piece weight being 100 tonnes for iron castings, 90 tonnes for steel castings and 50 tonnes for forgings. The plant is being equipped with a modern roll shop for the manufacture of 21,000 tonnes of grey iron, steel and forged rolls per year for meeting the requirement of the iron and steel industry. The plant will also be equipped with a 6,000 tonnes press, which will be the biggest so far in India.

The Heavy Machine Building Plant.

It has been set up in collaboration with USSR and is designed to produce annually 80,000 tonnes of heavy machinery items and equipment. Out of the total capacity, over 65,000 tonnes will be machinery and equipment required for steel plants and the rest for other industries like cement, fertilizers, mining, oil, drilling, etc.

Up-to-date equipment has been installed in the plant which enables to carry on various technological operations required for the manufacture of modern machines. Some of the special purpose machines are the horizontal boring machine with spindle diameter of 320 mm. with length of 34 metres; vertical boring and turning machines with face plate diameter of 6,300 mm.; lathes with distance between centres up to 20 metres; and the height of the centres 1,600 mm.; milling machine with table dimensions of 2.5 m.×8.5 m.; plate bending machine for bending plates up to 42 mm.; plate edge planning machine with planning length of 13 metres. There are 98 over-head travelling cranes and 118 pillar type cranes. The lifting capacity of the overhead cranes ranges from

5 tonnes to 150 tonnes. The layout of the plant has been designed with uniflow movement of materials for batch production for the manufacture of a variety of heavy machinery items. It covers an area of 160 hectares. The plant with its installed machinery of over 1,300 machines and 738 tools is expected to turn out all the machinery required for a one million tonnes steel plant. The plant is expected to achieve full production by 1970-71.

Most modern tools and machinery, latest technical know-how and design facilities will be employed for production in this plant. There will be flexibility for the manufacture of diverse types of machinery for any heavy industry, based not only on standard designs and specifications of proved performance elsewhere but also to customers' own designs. To enable the customers to have the benefit of the latest design facilities, a fully equipped design bureau with design engineers trained in most advanced plants and industries has been established.

The products include coke ovens and by-product equipment, blast furnace equipment, steel-making equipment, crushing and grinding equipment, crane equipment, rolling mill equipment and also spare parts for metallurgical equipment. Apart from these, miscellaneous heavy machine parts, heavy mining equipment, excavators, press forging equipment and heavy oil drilling rigs will also be manufactured in this plant.

The Heavy Machine Tools Plant.

It is being set up in collaboration with Czechoslovakia and will have an annual production capacity of 10,000 tonnes of machine tools, like central lathes, radial drilling machines, double column planning machines, horizontal boring machines, vertical boring and turning mills, plano-milling machines, precision cylindrical and roll grinding machines, etc. When in full production, the plant is expected to manufacture approximately 278 complete machine tools per year. The average weight of each machine will be 25|30 tonnes while the maximum weight of an individual machine is expected to be over 180 tonnes—the maximum piece weight of a single component being 50 tonnes. The production range will include 7 different capacity models.

Training.

To ensure a regular flow of technical personnel, skilled and semi-skilled workers, a comprehensive programme of training has been worked out. As a part of this programme, arrangements have been made for advanced and specialised training for several hundreds of engineers and workers in USSR and Czechoslovakia.

The Corporation has set up a modern training institute complete with workshop facilities to provide specialised training to meet the needs of the plants.

Experts from USSR and Czechoslovakia, experienced in design and technology, are also being drawn to assist the staff for training of engineers and technicians. The training facilities are provided to meet the total requirement of skilled personnel for the various plants. Supervisory and managerial staff are also being trained in scientific and modern methods of management.

A life-size bronze statue of Birsa Munda with hands in chains, stands on the entrance of the sprawling township of the H.E.C. Perhaps it is symbolic of the economic bondage of the country. This industrial complex, erected at a cost of Rs. 250 crores, may perhaps break this shackle on the economy of the people. But the production at 1,100 tonnes of structurals per month remains heavily behind the schedule. A target of 32,000 tons has been fixed for 1967-68, but in view of the current labour trouble it is not likely to be achieved*. The INTUC affiliated union has four different factions, all struggling to win over the workers' loyalties and breeding extremism in bargain. The communal disturbances (August, 1967) in the township have further handicapped the production.

LARGE AND MEDIUM SIZE INDUSTRIES.

Alumina Works, Muri.†

In 1938 a Private Company was registered under the name of "Aluminium Production Company of India Ltd.". It was converted into a Public Limited Company in June, 1944 under the name of "Indian Aluminium Company Ltd.". It owns and operates the following : Bauxite Mines at Lohardaga, Bihar; Alumina Plant at Muri, Bihar; Smelter and Extrusion Plants at Alwaye, Kerala; Smelter at Hirakud, Orissa; Aluminium Paste, Powder and Foil Mill Plants at Kalwa, Bombay; and Rolling Mills at Belur, West Bengal.

The construction of the plant at Muri was started in 1945 and the plant went on production in February, 1948 with a rated capacity of 10,000 tonnes of alumina to feed the smelter at Alwaye in Kerala which had gone on production in 1941. In 1958 the capacity of the plant was raised to 20,000 tonnes, in 1962 to 60,000 tonnes and in 1966 to 70,000 tonnes to match the expanded capacity of the smelter at Alwaye and to meet the requirements of the new smelter at Hirakud started in 1957.

The plant was located at Muri as at the time of its installation, it was at the junction of the narrow gauge line from Lohardaga‡ and the

* *Statesman*, Calcutta, dated the 4th December 1967.

† SOURCE.—General Manager, Alumina Plant, Muri, Ranchi.

‡ Lohardaga, western terminus point of the narrow gauge railway transports bauxite ores from Bagru. Now the section, Muri-Ranchi is served by broad gauge railway while that between Ranchi and Lohardaga continues to be as before.

broad gauge line to transport alumina to Alwaye. The Lohardaga Mines at Bagru Hills produce about 2,20,000 tonnes of bauxite annually to match the requirements of Muri Alumina Plant.

The plant is proposed to be expanded marginally to about 80,000 tonnes alumina per annum. A sum of Rs. 51 million has been invested in fixed capital on this plant and another sum of Rs. 10 million in raw materials, work in process, etc. The main raw material, bauxite comes from the Company's own mines at Bagru Hill near Lohardaga by rail. The other raw materials, caustic soda, coal, furnace oil, filter cloth, bags and starch are all indigenously procured. The finished product, i.e., alumina is sent to Company's smelters at Hirakud and Alupuram by rail. The factory employs about 455 daily-rated workmen, and 205 monthly-rated staff.

The factory has its own thermal power. Three B. & W. water tube boilers with a total installed capacity of 1,50,000 lbs./hour are in commission, and another boiler of 60,000 lbs./hour capacity is in the process of installation. These supply steam for the process, and also for producing electrical energy. Two turbo-alternator units of 1,500 KW each and one of 1,000 KW have been installed, one of them acting as a standby.

Water-supply requirements of about 50,000 gallons per hour for plant and colony are met by supplies from adjacent Subarnarekha river.

The reduction of aluminium from alumina is done through an electrolytic process, which requires large amount of power. To produce a pound of aluminium it requires approximately 10 KWH of electric power. Therefore, electric power at cheap rates is absolutely necessary for this industry. Smelters have, therefore, been set up at Alwaye and Hirakud at which places cheap hydro-power is available. The cost in transport of alumina over great distance between Muri and Kerala is explained by lack of local availability of hydro-power. Approximately 2.5 tons of bauxite yield one ton of alumina. The hydro-power projects, referred to above, may perhaps materialise some day and thus eliminate not only this wastage of transport, but also that between Lohardaga and Muri, by making it possible for reduction plants to be set up in the vicinity of raw materials.

The process of alumina manufacture requires large ponds where the residue after extraction of alumina is transferred in slurry form. The dilute caustic solution from these ponds is drawn back into the process and the solid residue settles in the ponds. The ponds are to be specially built on low lands for the purpose.

A caustic soda factory is possible as the annual requirement of caustic soda in the plant is about 7,500 tonnes.

Cement Industry.

Cement industry occupies an important position in the industrial economy of the district. The Associated Cement Company established a cement factory at Khelari on the border of Ranchi and Palamau districts on the Gomoh-Dehri Section of Eastern Railway in 1936.

The quarries of limestone, principal raw material for the manufacture of cement, are situated closeby in Khelari and Churi Hills. Coal is available from the local collieries. Gypsum is imported from Rajasthan. Limestone is quarried from the deposits in the local hills by manual labour by means of crowbars, picks, axes, etc., and transported to the crusher in wagons by steam and diesel loco. The electric power consumed is generated in the power station of the factory, having a capacity of 4,000 kilowatts. There were 1,193 male and 343 female workers in the factory in 1965.

The average production of cement during five years ending 1964-65 was : 1959-60 (1,26,046 tonnes), 1960-61 (1,00,520 tonnes); 1961-62 (1,10,715 tonnes); 1962-63 (1,05,545 tonnes); 1963-64 (1,01,500 tonnes) and 1964-65 (1,31,240 tonnes). The cement product of this factory is distributed throughout Bihar and West Bengal and is also exported to Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan.

Usha Martin Black Wire Ropes Ltd.

It is a public limited concern. The factory is situated at Tatisilwai, about eight miles east of Ranchi. It was started in 1961 and went on production in 1962. The bulk of the raw materials. i.e., the high carbon wire rods are imported from U. S. A. and Japan. The plant is located at this place due to the neighbourhood of market, i.e., the mining areas and the engineering industries of Chota Nagpur.

Its production in 1962 was 996 tonnes; in 1963, 3,249 tonnes and in 1964, 4,345 tonnes. In 1966 the factory employed 292 workers (all males).

High Tension Insulator Factory.

The High Tension Insulator Factory was started in 1961 at Namkum. It is managed by the Bihar State Industrial Development Corporation. The purpose of establishing this factory was to manufacture high tension and low tension insulators for electrical transmission and thereby help save foreign exchange. The factory is run by electric power. The raw materials used are China-clay, E.P. ball, Kotri or plastic clay, felspar, silica sand and quartz. The factory has started production from 1963 and the output in 1963-64 was 717.42 tonnes. The main purchasers of the products are the State Electricity Board and also some private parties. In 1965, there were 395 male and 65 female workers in this factory.

Waxpol Industries Ltd.

The Waxpol Industries Ltd., which has its head office in Calcutta, started a factory at Tatisilwai in 1962. It is a public limited concern. Its object is to manufacture waxpol chemicals to meet the demand of home market. The raw materials used are waxes, solvents, vegetable oil, fatty acids, tin sheets, lithographic ink and miscellaneous chemicals. The bee-wax is available from the forests of Chota Nagpur. The industry offers its finished products as a main industrial raw material for consumers in the cosmetic and pharmaceutical trades; manufacture of tin containers for packing; and manufacture of specialised foundry chemicals under a technical collaboration scheme with an American firm and also to foundries including Heavy Engineering Corporation, Ranchi. From October, 1962 to December, 1964 the value of products was of Rs. 5,12,901. The products are distributed all over the country.

Ranchi Distillery.

This distillery was started in 1906 and is located on Ranchi-Hazaribagh road off Lalpur Chawk. This is a private concern, but under the supervision of the State Excise Department. It prepares about 14,000 litres of alcohol daily which is despatched by road to different warehouses in Bihar, each litre costing 48 Paise. About 200 labourers (males) are employed in the factory.

Bharat Ball Bearing Industry.

Bharat Ball Bearing Co. Ltd. is a public limited concern, located at Ratu, seven miles west of Ranchi. It started production in March, 1963. The ball and roller bearing industry occupies a key position in the industrial development of the country. This factory will turn out on full production 2.5 million ball and roller bearings per year in wide range and will help not only to save but also to earn valuable foreign exchange. But one of its main customers, the automobile industry of the country, is facing slump in 1967, and thus reducing the demand for the products of this industry.

*Lac Industry.**

Lac is a unique natural resin, being the only one of animal origin. It has been cultivated in India since ancient times. About the beginning of the 19th century with the manufacture of lac dye, it made its debut in international market. It possesses properties of such value as to find ready use in a large number of industries. It is a commodity of considerable importance in the economy of India, its cultivation being a source of subsidiary income for a large number of families, majority belonging to the economically backward Adivasi communities of Chota Nagpur. It earns for the country foreign exchange

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 172.

of about Rs. 10 crores annually and thus occupies a position in the export list of the country. The growing of lac and its collection has been an important industry of the cultivators of this district. The manufacture of lac was carried on principally at Bundu in the Khunti subdivision. There were eight lac factories in the district at the Industrial Census of 1911, giving employment to 415 male and 220 female workers. These figures, however, underestimated the extent of the industry because many of the factories had been closed on account of lack of demands for lac in Europe, which was the scene of the First World War (1914–18).

The modern lac industry in the Ranchi district owes its development to Stainforth, a retired civilian, who established a factory at Doranda near about 1870. During the inter-war years (1919–45), a Jewish gentleman Arathoona, added considerably to its growth. The factories at Murhu (Khunti) still commemorate his name. Bihar produces the largest quantity of lac in India, accounting for nearly 41 per cent of the country's production. On an average the *baisakhi* crop accounts for more than 70 per cent and the *katki* for about 17 per cent of the total production in the State. In Bihar, the production is concentrated in Chota Nagpur Division, the Ranchi district having its own share.

The statement below shows the production of lac in quintals from 1959-60 to 1965-66*:–

Year.	Production (in quintals).
1959-60	93,311
1960-61	1,06,747
1961-62	75,583
1962-63	1,02,642
1963-64	75,209
1964-65	57,201
1965-66	51,392

The cultivation is done from broad lac, which in substance is a twig of the host tree carrying lac encrustation at a time when the young insects are about to emerge from the mother cell. Infection is effected by either natural or artificial measures. There are four crops in the year; two of *rangeeni* and two of *kusumi* strains. The raw product is refined by washing it with water to remove the soluble matter and other incidental impurities. The resulting product, seed lac, is processed into shellac or button lack by either the "hot melting" or "solvent extraction" method.

Seed lac and shellac find use as protective and decorative finishes, particularly for wood (french polish and floor polish); in the manufacture of gramophone records and printing inks; and in the electrical industry

* SOURCE.—Indian Lac Committee Office, Ranchi.

for the manufacture of micamite. Next in importance are such uses as stiffener for felt hats, as toring agent for leather finishes, and as base for sealing waxes and gasket cement.

In recent years, the Indian lac trade and industry have been facing competition from Siamese lac from Thailand and synthetic materials. To meet this situation, special attention is now being paid to research and developmental aspects of lac cultivation in the country. The Indian Lac Research Institute at Namkum carries on research on pests and lac and for the development of lac cultivation.

The most pressing needs of the industry are stabilisation of prices, provision of adequate marketing and credit facilities to cultivators and manufacturers, modernisation of production techniques, and provision of technical services to consumers both within the country and abroad. The Indian Lac Cess Committee had expected to cope with these needs under the Second and Third Five-Year Plans and to increase the production of lac from 41,000 tons to 63,700 tons annually, but it could not fulfil the target. However, India's share in the world products of lac has also now declined from about 90 per cent in the pre-war period (1939–45) to about 70 per cent in the recent years.

Lac finds its way to the manufacturing centres through rural and urban markets. These markets are commonly known as *hats* and play a very important role in feedling the big assembling and manufacturing centres with stick lac. The following are the important manufacturing and assembling centres in this district with their respective annual capacity:—

Place.	No. of factories.	Approximate quantity handled annually.
		Mds.
1. Murhu (Khunti) ..	7	65,000
2. Bundu (Khunti) ..	30	40,000

The shellac factories are seasonal because stick lac is mostly available during *baisakhi* and *kusumi* seasons. Therefore, the shellac factories usually work from April to June and November to February on cottage industry basis. The use of machinery is limited to washing process only.

The main markets for lac in the Khunti subdivision are Bundu, Talmasa, Tamar, Nawadih, Surjadih, Araki, Kujraon, Murhu, Ghunti, Maranghada, Saiko and Galponda. The main market in the Sadar subdivision is Jonka. The seed lac is exported to Calcutta, Jhalda and Balrampur from this district. The price of seed lac varies from time to time. In 1966 it was Rs. 42.10 per maund in the Ranchi district while in Calcutta it was Rs. 62 per maund.

*Tea Industry.**

The cultivation of tea in this district dates back to 1862 and also owes its origin to Stainforth. He started two gardens—one at Hotwar, about 3 miles north-east of Ranchi, and the other at Palandu, about 10 miles south-east, all lands leased from the Barkagarh Estate which had been confiscated by Government after the great revolt of 1857. In 1872, the whole area of the Palandu garden (184 acres) was under mature plants and yielded 20,500 lbs. of leaf, all of which was manufactured into black tea. Of the Hotwar estate only 35 acres were under mature plants at that time and the yield was 3,200 lbs. Since then a number of new gardens sprang up, all under European management, and near about 1915 there were 21 gardens with an area of 2,070 acres, the produce being over 3,00,000 lbs. The leaf was practically all manufactured into green tea*.

At present there are 12 tea gardens in the district, 11 under the Subarnarekha Agricultural Estate, Palandu, divided into two groups, viz., Sagaya and Palandu, and under the management of Jalan Industries Private Limited, Calcutta. The remaining garden, i.e., Daladali tea garden belongs to Dolla Tea Estate.

Tea cultivation depends upon rain. If there is sufficient rainfall, production goes up. From January to June there is no plucking. When the monsoon breaks, plucking of green leaves starts and continues up to the middle of December. The total area under tea comes to about 1,200 acres. Green leaves are collected from the gardens and brought to Palandu factory where tea is processed and graded and after final packing it is despatched to Calcutta for auction. Green tea leaves are not consumed in India and they are exported to Afghanistan, and other Middle East Countries from Calcutta. Some second grade tea is also sold in Amritsar.

The capital outlay on this industry is about 3 lakhs of rupees. About 55,000 Kg. of green tea are exported to different places every year and the price varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 per Kg. Previously, the production was about 3,000 maunds, but due to adverse climatic conditions the production has been on decline.

There are about 40 monthly-rated staff in both Palandu and Sabava tea factories. During the off season the number of workers is negligible, but during the peak season, about a thousand workers are employed daily. The Oraons and Mundas, both males and females, constitute the labour force. The rates of wages differed from Rs. 1.55 per day to Rs. 2. The casual workers are employed on contract basis, i.e., 50 Paise per Kg. of plucked leaves.

*Source.—Manager, Tea Factory, Palandu, Ranchi.

The Sabaya Tea Estate is soon to be merged with the Getalsud Dam in the Subarnarekha Hydro-electric Project. Hence the tea industry may lose about 600 acres of land in future. On the other hand, about 1,000 acres of land are under reserved forests which are under the same management, but will be soon released for tea cultivation.

Refractories.

At McCluskieganj there is a factory named Harish Tara Refractories, which manufactures refractories goods. It was established in 1959. The raw materials, fireclay, bauxite and china-clay are all indigenous. The factory is run by electric power. Its average monthly production comes to about 1,000 tonnes. It employs 30 male and 10 female workers. The products are mostly consumed in Chota Nagpur.

Fire-fighting Equipment.

The Minimax Limited (incorporated in England) started a factory at Kokar (Ranchi) in 1960. It produces fire-fighting equipments and has acquired international reputation. The raw materials used are aluminium sheets, blacksheets, galvanised sheets and mild steel plate, etc. In course of four years it produced 6 crash tender, 8 water tender and 26 trailer pumps. The finished products are supplied to the State Government, and local bodies such as municipalities, etc. There are 217 male workers employed in this factory.

Bharat Spun Pipe Company.

The Bharat Spun Pipe Company, a private undertaking, started a factory at Ranchi in 1955. It is run by electric power and employs 42 males and 10 females. The raw materials used are cement, iron, sand and chips which are locally available. The products are mainly sold in Chota Nagpur. In the initial stage the factory manufactures R.C.C. Spun Pipe up to 12″ inside diameter, but now it manufactures pipe up to 72″ inside diameter. The average production per annum during the five-year period ending 1964 was worth Rs. 3,19,471.

The Industrial Gases Limited.

The Industrial Gases Limited which has its head office in Calcutta, started working near Khijri (Ranchi) during 1963-64. It is a Public Limited Company. The location of this industry near Ranchi may be attributable to ready market, i.e., heavy consumption of gases in local industrial establishments. The raw materials used are calcium carbide and accetone which are available in abundance in Calcutta and Madras. The factory is in its initial stage. It employs only 22 male workers at present.

SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRY.

There is no sugar mill in this district. *Khandsari gur* is manufactured out of local sugarcane products.

There is an oil mill at Chutia which manufactures linseed, castor, *til* and mustard oil. There are two expellers which are run by steam power.

There are no rice mills of importance in the district; only 11 small hullers are being worked.

*M|s. Hindustan Abrasives, Ranchi.**

They manufacture coated abrasives, resin handed and water proof types 45,000 reams per year.

Government Vaccine Institute, Namkum.

They manufacture drugs and pharmaceuticals, particularly cholera and small-pox vaccines.

M|s. Bina Textiles, Ranchi.

They operate 25,000 spindles for the manufacture of cotton yarn.

Mahalaxmi Fibres and Industries Limited, Ranchi.

They operate about 25,000 spindles for the manufacture of cotton yarn.

Printing Press.

The Catholic Press, Ranchi, specialises in printing of scientific books and magazines in English as well as in Hindi with latest printing technique.†

There is a Government Printing Press at Doranda. Besides, there are a number of printing presses to meet the local demands in the district.

Hotels.

For some decades in the past the hotel run by the then B. N. Railway, now South-Eastern Railway, at Ranchi has had a reputation of fine lodging and boarding and now it is a very high class hotel and caters for international audience which has come up in the wake of industrialisation. Besides, Ranchi being a health resort for about a century it drew health seekers from Bengal who in turn encouraged hotel business. At present, Ranchi has a number of fairly good hotels to suit middle classes. More hotels are coming up.

* Industrial Directory of Bihar, Secretariat Press, Patna, 1966, p. 27.

† The G. E. L. Press are also quality printers.

House Building.

The influx of population to Ranchi gave a spurt to house construction, both in public and private sectors. Availability of raw materials, such as brick, cement, iron and timber has induced private persons to invest their capital in this business.

Saw Mills.

On old Ranchi-Hazaribagh road, a number of saw mills have been established by private persons.

Cottage Industries.

The main characteristics of a cottage industry are that it is carried on as a household occupation by the inmates of a family, mostly in their spare time. Traditionally each family invested its own capital or even borrowed it and also marketed the products personally in the local *hats*. The products usually bore the stamp of individuality. But with the growth of modern industries, producing goods on mass scale and division of labour the primitive cottage industries gradually vanished and as we have seen above some of them survived only on adjusting themselves to new conditions.

Weaving.

The table below shows the extent of the weaving industry prior to the last World War (1939–45)*:—

Subdivision.	No. of villages where looms were working.	Cotton looms.	Woollen looms.	No. of primitive looms.	No. of flysuttle looms.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Sadar ..	605	5,219	87	1,616	3,583
2. Khunti ..	599	2,112	49	2,008	104
3. Gumla ..	696	3,117	Nil	2,452	466
4. Simdega ..	403	2,528	Nil	2,402	126
TOTAL ..	2,303	12,976	136	8,478	4,279

The aforesaid figures were compiled after the industrial census of 1941. Since then no systematic census has been held in this respect; but from actual working, the Weaving Demonstration Party of the Industries

* SOURCE.—District Industries Office, Ranchi.

Department found that there had been 40 per cent to 50 per cent increase in general in the number of looms in the district. Among the important weaving centres, the villages Neori, Irwa, Chakla Barwe, Kuchchu, Kamte, Bajarmara, Kute, Baredih, Chandwa, Humbir and Hochar may specially be mentioned.

During war time, when the cotton mills in the country concentrated on defence production, there was a general scarcity of cloth in the country for popular consumption. This gave a fillip to the indigenous weaving industry to develop; but the prosperity could not be sustained. After cessation of the war-time controls mill-made cloth began to flood markets. This fierce competition and the rising cost of production gave serious blows to the industry. Since 1967 the weaving industry is passing through a difficult time.

Rope-making.

Local *sabai* grass and barks are utilised for making ropes of good quality which has a local market. The communities such as Korwas, Birjias and Birhors supplement their living through rope making. The industry is, however, not an organised entity. It survives on individual scale.

Basket-making.

It is carried on by Turis, Ghasis and Birhors, who obtain the raw material, bamboo, from the nearby jungle. The winnowing fan or *sup* is made by Parhaiyas. Due to the industrialisation of the district involving constructional works, the demand for baskets has increased appreciably.

Broom (Jharu).

The Parhaiyas and some scheduled castes make brooms (*jharu*) out of local material and sell them in local markets.

Khadi and Village Industries.

The State Khadi and Village Industries Board has been constituted for the expansion and development of village industries. It manufactures hand-made paper, cardboard files, blotting and drawing papers in its workshops in the Industrial Estate. Mustard oil (*Ghanis*), honey, pottery, tanning, leather goods, phenyl, washing and carbolic soaps are also produced by it. It maintains an emporium at Ranchi.

Engineering Workshops.

The South-Eastern Railway Construction Department runs an engineering workshop in Ranchi to repair and maintain railway machineries as well as vehicles. 58 males work in this workshop.

Another engineering establishment, Durga Laxmi Iron and Steel Company at Hinoo, started in 1947, manufactures malleable G. I. Pipe fittings, such as, elbows, tees, sockets, etc., ranging from ¼″ to 2″ in size. The malleable casting has great potentiality of development in this district. The raw materials are pig iron and steel scrap. About 50 workers are employed in this workshop.

Ambica Iron and Steel Company, started in 1948 at Ranchi mainly manufactures agricultural implements, household untensils, municipal dust-bins and steel almirah. About 26 workers are employed in this company.

Hand-pounding.

Local paddy is pounded by hand. Gumla hand-pounded rice has attained popularity within and outside the district. Besides rice, *chura* (flattened rice) is prepared by the Bhogtas and the Rautias, who derive their living through this trade.

Oil Industry.

Oilseeds, such as *surguja,* mustard, *karonj* and *mahua* seeds which grow locally are pressed in *kolhu.* In most villages *kolhus* are found. *Karonj* oil is exported for use in the soap factory and also used as cure for skin diseases.

Silk Industry.

Eri-silk is an important cottage industry in the district. It produces fine yarn, but there is scope for improvement. The Government Eri-silk farm in Ranchi has started as cottage industry. There is a State Tasar Seed Distribution Centre at Simdega. Disease-free lays are distributed to cocoon rearers, who raise them on *asan, sidha, ber* and *jamun* trees. This industry has much potentiality for development in future.

Biri-making.

The *biri* leaves are available in abundance in the local forests, while tobacco is mainly imported from Gujerat side. *Biri* is manufactured throughout the district. If tobacco could be grown on the upland of the district the industry may develop.

Toy-making.

The toy-making is a new industry. There are a variety of soft wood trees, viz., *salai, lot, karam* and *simul* that are available in the district. Toy-making centres have been started under the Industrial Estate. The Estate is manufacturing wooden toys, paper machine and card board toys.

Ironware and Cutlery.

Silli in the Sadar subdivision is an important centre for cutlery manufacture. Iron chains, scissors, knives, carpenter's tools, heavy axes (*tangi*), *balua* or *phalsa* are manufactured. The manufactured products have attained prominence. Even the ordinary village blacksmiths are capable of producing a number of articles; but are handicapped due to lack of finance, availability of raw materials and organised marketing. This industry may develop in future.

Trunk Manufacture.

Trunk manufacture is carried on mainly in Ranchi and Lohardaga towns. Hindpiri *mahalla* in Ranchi town is centre of trunk manufacture. Manufacture of water-tight and air-tight trunks, which require artisan skill and adaptation, is also carried on. The finished products are exported. There are about 25 trunk manufacturers in Ranchi employing about 150 workers.

Furniture-making.

A large number of saw mills and furniture works have sprung up in the district. This industry got a fillip due to various large-scale industrial concerns and Government offices which have opened at Ranchi. The Punjabis have more or less a monopoly in this industry. The Chota Nagpur Furniture Works, Dhiman and Co., and others are the main manufacturers.

There are two bucket manufacturing industries in Ranchi town. Each of them employ 30 to 40 workers. The buckets are sold locally.

Repair Works.

Besides, there are a large number of small engineering workshops, mainly in Ranchi town doing petty repairs.

Pottery.

A Pottery Development Centre was started in Ranchi in 1960. This is under the administrative control of the Bihar State Industries Corporation. The raw materials used are china-clay, quartz, felspar, fireclay and gypsum. The raw materials are imported from Bikaner, Rajmahal and Calcutta. The finished products are saucers, jars, *bati,* toys and flower vases. About 68 males and 11 females are employed.

Footwear.

A small footwear factory has been started in Ranchi in 1963. The leather is supplied from the local tanneries and also from Kanpur, Agra and Calcutta. About 10,000 pairs were the annual production in 1965. About 45 workers are employed in this factory.

Industrial Estate.

The Industrial Estate was started in Ranchi in December, 1957. It covers an area of 10.92 acres at Kokar on the Ranchi-Hazaribagh road. It is an administrative unit for the development of the small-scale industries. So far (1965) the estate has constructed 32 work sheds. These sheds have been allotted to both Government units and the private concerns. There are 13 factories located in the premises of the estate, i.e., the Dye Sinking-*cum*-common facilities service workshop, raw materials department of the Industrial Estate, Footwear Factory, Toy Development Centre, Hand-made Paper Centre, Small-Scale Industries Service Institute, Bihar Storage Battery, Bihar Steel Fabrics, National Industry, Poddar Industry, Minimax Limited, the Electromeck and the Bihar Plastic Industry. The first six are Government units and the rest are private concerns.

The Dye Sinking-*cum*-common facilities service workshop provides facilities to the industrial enterprisers on no profit no loss basis. The Footwear Factory and the toy development centre are of the Small-Scale Industries Corporation. The Small-scale Industries Service Institute is of the Central Government. It deals in leather goods.

The Bihar Storage Battery manufactures auto-battery. The Bihar Steel fabrics deal in the miscellaneous jobs of fabrication. The National Industry manufactures conduit pipes. The Poddar Industry manufactures nails and wire. The plastic combs are manufactured by the Bihar Plastic Industry. Electromeck is a branch of the Pradip factory. It manufactures calling bells.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIALS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT.

Ranchi is an important district from the point of view of industries. Generally industries based on extractive raw materials appear to have greater scope for expansion in this district than those based on agricultural produce. The present pattern of regional distribution of industries has been planned on the basis of accessibility of base raw materials. Availability of power, bauxite, coal and other raw materials such as timber, soft railway wood, etc., and technical skill may accelerate the development of industries in this district.

The district is rich in bauxite, which is the source of aluminium. With cheap hydro-electric power from the projects referred to above, more aluminium factories may spring up in the north-west of Ranchi.

Limestone, the leading raw material for cement industry, is available in plenty, some very rich in contents. It has also other uses, e.g., as flux in Iron and Steel Industry, and in manufacture of lime and also chemicals. There are potentialities for more cement factories in the district. The industries based on china-clay may also be started.

MANUFACTURE OF HEAVY ELECTRICAL EQUIPMENTS.

The Bihar State Industrial Development Corporation is working on the possibility of manufacture of heavy electrical equipments. An agreement with the General Electric Company for technical collaboration has been made. The factory will be located at Tatisilwai, 12 miles east of Ranchi town and it is likely to go into production by 1966. The estimated annual outturn is about Rs. 90 lakhs worth of industrial motors, transformers, switch gears, etc. About 200 acres of land is under acquisition of which the factory itself would take about 130 acres and the rest will be set apart for ancillary industries.

A licence has also been issued to a private concern for the manufacture of ropeway structures, buckets, cranes, conveyors and medium and heavy structures with an installed capacity of 13,000 tons per year and the factory will be located near Ranchi town.

The High Tension Insulator Factory near Ranchi has installed a second kiln to increase its production capacity. A malleable cast iron foundry is expected to be located adjacent to it for the manufacture of quality hardware for insulators for which there is a great demand in the country.

*Ranchi Ancillary Industrial Area comprises of an area of 112 acres of land. The site is located at about seven miles from Ranchi town on the Ranchi-Chaibasa road and is within two miles of H. E. C. Project. There is provision of 165 industrial plots in the area and about 150 ancillary units would be set up by 1970. The industrial area has a network of internal roads consisting of main roads and feeder roads. Almost all the plots have been made ready and construction of roads is nearing completion. Water supply is being made by tapping at a suitable point from H. E. C. Mains. There will be a 50,000 gallons capacity overhead water tank in the area. The laying of pipes from a suitable point in H. E. C. Mains to the water tank is almost complete. Construction of water tank is in progress, but in the meantime water will be given to the entrepreneurs from the main pipe line which has already been laid. Power is available at site. 33 KV and 11 KV electric lines pass through the area to provide power to the entrepreneurs as and when required. Simultaneously the Bihar Electricity Board is finalising the estimates of putting up a sub-station in the area.

57 entrepreneurs have already been selected for setting up industries in the Ancillary Industrial Area, Ranchi.

*Seminar on Small-Scale Industries (Souvenir—October, 1966), pp. 33—35.

The units to be set up are as follows :—

Units.	No. of units to be set up.
1. Tool Shop	5
2. Jigs and Fixtures	1
3. Hand Tools	1
4. Manufacture of Dye	1
5. Press and Boiler Tools	1
6. Machine Shop	9
7. Mining Tools, Dye and Cutting Tools ..	1
8. General Engineering	10
9. Non-ferrous Foundry	1
10. Cast Iron Foundry	1
11. C. I. and Malleable Foundry	1
12. Sheet Metal Unit	3
13. Electrical Maintenance	1
14. Wood Working Unit	2
15. Industrial Fasteners	4
16. Common Facilities :	
(*i*) Electroplating	1
(*ii*) Heat Treatment	1
17. Springs	2
18. Handling Equipment	2
19. Label and Name Plates	1
20. Steel Structure Fabrication	4
21. Forging Shop	2
22. Plastic Products	1
23. Electrical accessories manufacturing shop ..	1

Fifty ancillary units are already under the process of being set up in Ranchi in collaboration with Heavy Engineering Corporation and the State and Central Governments together with the entrepreneurs and will invest around Rs. 1 crore in machines and equipments and Rs. 50 lakhs in buildings besides an outlay of approximately Rs. 20 lakhs on land and essential infra structures of the Industrial Area. These units will execute orders of Heavy Engineering Corporation to the extent of Rs. 3 crores or more. More units in the meantime will be planned and set up as the production of Heavy Engineering Corporation develops. While

Heavy Engineering Corporation's annual turnover may be to the tune of Rs. 100 crores in near future, ancillary units may share 10 per cent of the turnover.

Forest Industries.

The major forest products are various types of timber and firewood. The timber is hard and durable and is used for railway sleepers, beams, rafters, etc. Other types of timber available include the hard *karan* suitable for toys, *gamhar* used for planking and general carpentry and other varieties such as *kusum* which make firewood and charcoal. Further, there are minor forest products such as *sabai* grass used in manufacture of ropes. Lac is another important forest raw material which occupies a significant position in the export trade. Forest industries are, in recent years, acquiring importance and there are great potentialities of development in future.

Fruits and Vegetables.

If the output of fruits and vegetables is increased by 20 and 50 per cent respectively there is scope for establishing a canning and preservation industry. Papaya fruit offers some possibilities. About 10 pounds of papain may be obtained from an acre of orchard. This industry could be developed into a cottage or small-scale industry.

Ceramics.

Bihar, one of the principal producers of Ceramics in the country, had 29 units till 1965, out of which Ranchi district has three. The manufacture of refractories is already having large expansion. With the growth of industry, accelerated electrification programmes and increasing urbanisation, the demand for porcelain pipes, sanitary wares, table wares, insulators and other electrical goods, fine cement, etc., is bound to rise in the district. The district has also ceramics raw materials like china-clay, bauxite and coal.

Bricks and Tiles.

The raw materials, clay and sand, as well as local labour and skill are abundantly available in the district. The industry can well be organised both on a large as well as small scale. With better transport facilities it would have good scope for expansion.

Distilleries.

In 1965 the district had one distillery for the manufacture of industrial alcohol, country spirit and denatured spirits from molasses and *mahua*. The utilisation of industrial alcohol and country spirit will constitute the main source of demand in future and its production could be planned on a substantial scale. The possibility of another distillery could well be examined.

Light Forge Plant.

An independent forging plant appears to be necessary in the district for the supply of drop forgings to major steel industries. Industries like cement, ceramics and other mining enterprises also require forged balls which are at present completely met from imports.

Electric Motors and Generator Plant.

With the increase in power generation there will be a proportionate increase in demand for electric motors, transformers and generators. The Heavy Machinery Plant in Ranchi will create demand for motors. The setting up of a plant for the manufacture of electric motors dynamos, transformers, switch gear, etc., may, therefore, have a ready market.

Production of Caustic Soda and Chlorine.

In 1965 there was short supply of caustic soda and its co-product, chlorine. The demand for caustic soda at Muri Plant of Indian Aluminium Co. is great and part of the demand is being met by imports. The petroleum refinery at Barauni, the expansion plans of Indian Aluminium, together with the increase in operations in the manufacture of chemicals, the demand for both caustic soda and chlorine will be very high. Chlorine too is currently in short supply and the possibility of its utilisation in future is great. The setting up of a caustic soda and chlorine plant has immediate scope and the location would obviously be at Muri.

Bakery and Confectionery Products.

The demand for bakery products has been increasing. In Ranchi town there are about 10 bakery industries, but the demand is not fulfilled and it requires much expansion.

Stone Dressing and Crushing.

The industry is concentrated in the district where rocks are found. No manufacturing process is involved in this industry except cutting the bricks and breaking the stones into small pieces. The main buyers of these stones are the railway and stone-chip contractors for the road departments of the Government. With increasing construction programmes in the district, this industry has scope for expansion.

Hand Tools.

There is an extensive demand for hand tool industry in Bihar, principally in Dhanbad, Ranchi, Hazaribagh and Santal Parganas. The household units are generally supplied with the raw materials by small-scale units, which in turn take the products from the household smithies for heat treatment, grinding and polishing. The demand for hand tools

depends upon the expansion of industry and service trades and with import restrictions and an increasing demand, there is good scope for more indigenous production. If assistance could be given for standardising and improving the quality of the finished products, by establishing training centres for smithies and small-units workmen and inspection and marketing services, there is good prospect for its expansion.

Toy-making.

Bihar has plenty of wood suitable for making toys. It has also a number of artisans engaged in this industry. In the beginning of the Second Five-Year Plan, the need for developing the industry was felt and a centre well-equipped with modern appliances and tool was opened at Ranchi, which is working well. The toys produced are sold locally through the emporium of the Bihar State Khadi and Village Industries Board and the sales depot of the department. There is a good demand for such toys and the industry appears to hold possibilities for expansion. Already some small-scale private enterprises have set up their organisation for making toys.

Labour and Employers' Organisation.

In the last few years several large-scale industries have been established in this district. Among them the Heavy Engineering Corporation is one of the largest undertakings in India. The Hindustan Steel with head office at Ranchi controls the Steel Projects at Durgapur, Rourkella, Bhilai and Bokaro. The National Coal Development Council also has its Central Office at Ranchi. These factors make Ranchi an important focus in context of industrial relations vis-a-vis labour.

The public as well as private undertakings have their Public Relations Officers as also Labour Officers of different grades to look after the interests of labour and maintain cordial relation between them and the management. The labour force in different undertakings have mostly their own labour unions. There are several political bodies like Indian National Trade Union Congress, Hind Mazdoor Sabha, United Trade Union Congress and All-India Trade Union Congress which take active interest in labour problems and have Labour Unions affiliated to their respective organisation. There are also certain labour unions which are not affiliated to any of these political organisations. Some of the labour unions in Ranchi are run by outsiders. In some of the undertakings there are rival labour unions run by different political parties or by different factions in the same political party. Naturally such unions cannot solve labour problems and due to mutual rivalries make the relations bitter in the ranks of labour. Some of the Labour Unions are quite well-organised and influential and have been able to bring about peaceful solution of labour problems through co-operation with management.

The following registered Trade Unions existed in the district on 31st March, 1965*:—

Serial no.	Name of the Union.	Registration no.	Date of registration.	Affiliated to—
1	Khelari Cement Mazdoor Union, P. O. Khelari.	72	8-1-1946	I.N.T.U.C.†
2	Muri Aluminium Factory Workers' Union, Ranchi.	263	14-3-1948	H. M. S.‡
3	Kanke Employees' Union, Ranchi ..	282	3-8-1949	I. N. T. U. C.
4	Chota Nagpur Bauxite Workers' Union, Lohardaga.	294	9-9-1948	Not affiliated.
5	The Karanpura Dawarkhanda Colliery Mazdoor Union, Khelari.	469	28-9-1950	Ditto.
6	G. M. Jainee Company Colliery Workers' Union, Ranchi.	516	23-3-1951	Ditto.
7	Karta Colliery Workers' Union, Khelari	555	30-4-1952	I. N. T. U. C.
8	Chota Nagpur Engineering Workers' Union, Ranchi.	599	2-6-1953	Not affiliated.
9	Khelari Cement Workers' Union, Khelari	738	4-8-1955	I. N. T. U. C.
10	Bihar Rajya Gramin Mazdoor Sangh, Khelari.	765	14-1-1956	Not affiliated.
11	The Ray Lime and Limestone Quarries Mazdoor Union, Ray.	827	1-5-1957	Ditto.
12	Ranchi Distillery Workers' Union, Lalpur, Ranchi.	848	12-4-1958	I.N.T.U.C.
13	Coal Workers' Union, P.O. McCluskiegunj, Ranchi.	860	17-7-1958	Not affiliated.
14	The National Mines Coal Workers' Union, P. O. Ray, Ranchi.	861	17-7-1958	Ditto.
15	The Hatia Project Workers' Union, At & P.O. Dhurwa, Ranchi.	875	24-11-1958	I.N.T.U.C.
16	Bharat Spun Pipe Workers' Union, Ranchi.	885	1-2-1959	Not affiliated.
17	Ranchi District Bauxite and China-clay Mines Employees' Union, Lohardaga.	911	29-8-1959	Ditto.

* Source.—Labour Office, Ranchi.
† I. N. T. U. C.—Indian National Trade Union Congress.
‡ H. M. S.—Hind Mazdoor Sabha.

Serial no.	Name of the Union.	Registration no.	Date of registration.	Affiliated to—
18	National Coal Organisation Employees' Association, Ranchi.	945	6-3-1960	Not affiliated.
19	Hindustan Steel Employees' Union, P.O. Hinoo, Ranchi.	954	8-5-1960	Ditto.
20	Khetihar Mazdoor Union, Ranchi ..	975	27-8-1960	Ditto.
21	Jayaswal Ceramic Industries Workers' Union, Ranchi.	1016	8-8-1961	I. N. T. U. C.
22	Jayaswal Mineral Industries Workers' Union, Ranchi.	1031	13-12-1961	I. N. T. U. C.
23	Minimax Workmen's Union, Tharpakhana, Ranchi.	1040	10-4-1962	U. T. U. C.*
24	Heavy Engineering Corporation Employees' Union, Dhurwa, Ranchi.	1048	25-6-1962	I. N. T. U. C.
25	High Tension Insulator Factory Shramic Sangh, Samlong, Ranchi.	1055	12-10-1962	I. N. T. U. C.
26	Swaranrekha Agricultural Estate Workers' Union, Ranchi.	1056	16-10-1960	I. N. T. U. C.
27	Pottery Development Centre Workers' Union, Ranchi.	1057	13-11-1960	I. N. T. U. C.
28	High Tension Insulator Factory Workers' Union, Namkum, Ranchi.	1063	14-2-1963	I. N. T. U. C.
29	Heavy Engineering Mazdoor Union, Ranchi.	1078	9-11-1963	U. T. U. C.
30	B.I.T. Workers' Union, Kokar, Ranchi	1084	4-1-1964	I. N. T. U. C.
31	Pindra Colliery Workers' Union, Kokar, Ranchi.	1085	4-1-1964	I. N. T. U. C.
32	Suvarna Rekha Van Udyog Workers' Union, Kokar, Ranchi.	1088	20-1-1964	I. N. T. U. C.
33	Minimax Karamchari Sangh, Kokar, Ranchi.	1091	4-3-1964	I. N. T. U. C.

* U. T. U. C.—United Trade Union Congress.

CHAPTER VII.

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE.

History of Indigenous Banking.

The old landed proprietors of the district had no large savings, and they did not enter into money transactions as lenders. Such transactions were carried on by *mahajans* or professional bankers and merchants, a few of whom were also land-holders and capitalists*. The loans were of two kinds—those in which land was given as a security without possession interest being charged at the rate of twelve per cent per annum; and those where the transaction took the form of a mortgage with possession, and the interest was at the nominal rate of one half or one per cent. In *Zarpeshgi* loans, the rate of interest was twenty-four per cent payable from the rents of the estate, and the amount of advance was adjusted in proportion to the rent-roll. Sometimes the precise rate of interest was not specified and the lender was allowed to realise whatever he could get from the collection of the estate.

Len-den or petty loans to *raiyats* were generally given in cash in the month of June when prices were at their highest, and repaid in grain after the winter harvest when prices were very low. Interest was charged at the rate of one-third of an anna for each rupee per mensem, and was also paid in kind. So that for every rupee advanced in June, a *raiyat* had to pay in December a rupee's worth of grain at the price then ruling, in addition to the worth of two or three annas on the rupee as interest.

Khepi was a form of loan made to persons taking a journey (*khep*) to purchase grain. Interest was paid at the rate of one anna per rupee for every journey.

Seri was a form of loan peculiar to the south-western portions of Palamau and the western *parganas* of the district. In the month of June the land-holder advanced to each of his tenants a *ser* of salt, which was repaid in December by one maund of grain. Sometimes tobacco was given instead of salt, and was paid for in the same manner and at the same time.

In small transactions where ornaments or household vessels were pawned as security for the loan, the rate of interest varied from 25 to 37 per cent per annum or from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ anna for each rupee per mensem. Such loans were not given for more than half the intrinsic value of the article pawned; and if the money was not paid on the date specified, the property was *ipso facto* forfeited to the lender. It may be presumed that the indigenous banking continued in the same manner for some decades.

* W. W. Hunter: *A Statistical Account of Bengal*, Vol. XVI (1877), pp. 421-22.

*The capacity of cultivators to tide over periods of stress, engendered by a partial failure of crops was small. The aboriginals and the semi-aboriginals could subsist in the midst of conditions which could play havoc with people accustomed to higher standard of life, and maintain themselves, even when their crops failed, on jungle fruits and vegetables, but even in good years they frequently had recourse to loans to meet some extra expenditure, e.g., on marriage, or borrow the seed for their holding at exorbitant rates of interest from the *banias* who were found in every aboriginal village. Interest at 75 per cent per annum was the normal, but not the maximum rate of interest charged to the cultivator and it was no easy matter for him to extricate himself. The oppression of the money-lenders had reduced some of the cultivators and labourers almost to the position of serfs and frequently drove the whole families to migrate to the labouring districts. Attempts had been made at various times to protect the *raiyat* from the results of his improvidence. Restrictions on the transfer of holding were introduced in the Tenancy Act of 1903, the object being to stop the sale of *raiyati* holdings by improvident *raiyats* and to restrict all forms of mortgage and thereby save the aboriginal population from becoming the serfs of the money-lenders.

The institutions of *Chara, Khepi,* and *Seri* loans are not prevalent now. But in spite of the Money-Lenders Act, 1938, the *mahajans* and *banias,* big or small, have continued and are still the most accessible source for finding credit.

Incidence of Indebtedness.

There has not been any survey as to the incidence of indebtedness, rural or urban, in the district. The middle class, particularly those dependent on fixed income, are the hardest hit in the present inflationary economy and a large percentage of them is running into debts. The average cultivator of the district, unless he has some monetary legacy, is also usually in debts.

The economy of the average family in rural areas is based on the quantum of land or on the earners' personal wages in case he has no land. Broadly, however, the cultivators may be divided into three categories, viz., (*i*) those who own up to ten bighas of land; (*ii*) those who own eleven to twenty bighas of land; and (*iii*) those who have land above 20 bighas. Besides the cultivators, there is a large number of landless agricultural labourers. On the abolition of Zamindari many of the ex-landlords have now taken to some service or professions, e.g., as contractors or businessmen. The economic condition of these categories excepting those who have more than thirty bighas of land, does not admit of much saving. The social obligations, e.g., marriage, sacred thread, *shraddha* and various religious festivals determine the pattern of expenditure in a family to a large extent and often lead to debts.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 161-62.

The general standard of living is going up without a corresponding rise in income. There is more of consumption of consumer goods. Shaving saloons, tea and betel shops have become common even in rural areas. Cycles, umbrellas, torches, lanterns, etc., are now articles of necessity even in a humble family. The presence of tailors, *halwais*, amusement centres even in remote parts show that the rural economy is assuming some urban characteristics. Our investigations in some of the villages in Mandar, Kuru, Ormanjhi and Khijri Blocks show that indebtedness is a normal feature and the indigenous population responds little to modern means of development to add to its economy.

The tribals spend a substantial portion of their earnings on drink. They are now taking to distilled liquor, which is more costly than *hanria*. The Christian tribals, however, are slightly less intemperate. The industrial workers in and about the urban areas are also heavily addicted to drink. Tea and smoking have now penetrated into the remotest parts and their incidence is particularly heavy in areas near towns. These take off a major portion of their income.

On account of high prices, the fixed income groups in urban areas, are badly indebted to grocers, cloth merchants and such other persons from whom they purchase the daily necessities of life. They pay off almost their entire earning in the first few days of the month as soon as they receive their salary.

The following table indicating the extent of sale or exchange deeds, mortgage deeds and other deeds in respect of land (and not many being business deals), during 1951–63 may give an idea of indebtedness in the district*:–

Year.	Sale or exchange of deeds.		Mortgage deeds.		Other deeds.	
	Total number.	Aggregate value.	Total number.	Aggregate value.	Total number.	Aggregate value.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
1951 ..	4,785	33,79,638	3,443	15,64,381	855	7,10,048
1952 ..	5,553	40,04,949	3,888	16,36,172	1,017	8,99,816
1953 ..	5,449	32,03,509	3,322	15,87,146	876	7,39,341
1954 ..	4,639	25,99,127	2,953	12,86,111	718	9,95,000
1955 ..	5,094	33,42,327	2,311	7,55,217	516	7,88,145
1956 ..	5,303	35,41,013	1,637	7,88,353	169	1,84,951
1957 ..	5,844	59,89,408	1,800	7,35,454	232	2,19,754
1958 ..	7,317	48,38,884	2,661	18,32,993	306	2,02,088
1959 ..	8,212	81,49,135	2,883	16,16,079	350	4,39,394
1960 ..	8,929	1,04,67,910	2,618	15,07,516	320	2,81,766
1961 ..	8,185	1,03,11,259	2,740	21,45,670	362	3,15,092
1962 ..	8,118	1,13,27,116	2,425	15,78,783	334	5,57,027
1963 ..	10,479	1,74,86,574	3,413	38,60,886	540	15,36,471

*SOURCE.—District Sub-Registrar, Ranchi.

The sale, exchange or mortgage deeds have recorded a progressive rise. Due to high prices of essential commodities a large percentage of small cultivators had to sell their lands to meet their primary necessities. The high prices of lands were also availed of to wipe out old debts in many cases.

Money-lenders.—The Money-Lenders Act, 1938, intended to protect cultivators from the village *mahajans* has fixed the following rate of interest :–

	Secured loan.	Unsecured loan.
Single interest ..	9 per cent	Prohibited.
Compound interest ..	12 per cent	Prohibited.

The table below gives details of licensed money-lenders in the district from 1953-54 to 1963-64*:–

Number of licensed Money-lenders.

Year.	At the beginning of the year.		Those registered for the first time during the year.		At the close of the year.	
	Urban.	Rural.	Urban.	Rural.	Urban.	Rural.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1953-54 ..	643	470	104	63	700	490
1954-55 ..	700	490	80	52	744	493
1955-56 ..	744	493	53	67	742	515
1956-57 ..	743	515	66	81	736	530
1957-58 ..	736	530	52	55	715	522
1958-59 ..	715	522	76	61	696	540
1959-60 ..	696	540	74	64	740	551
1960-61 ..	740	551	153	16	768	554
1961-62 ..	768	554	64	129	780	592
1962-63 ..	780	592	133	87	584	607
1963-64 ..	854	607	165	158	969	696

* SOURCE.—District Sub-Registrar, Ranchi.

In the Sadar subdivision there are about 21 families carrying on money-lending business of an annual turnover of Rs. 20,000 and above. The subdivisions of Khunti, Gumla and Simdega have no such money-lenders.

General Credit Facilities.

The general credit facilities in the district are provided by *sahus, mahajans,* registered money-lenders, joint stock banks, co-operative banks, *kabulis* and Sikh money-lenders. Besides, various types of Government loans are also available. The *sahus* and *mahajans* dominate over the rural credit. They charge higher rates of interest than the other agencies, but they are still popular in rural areas because they are easily approachable, and sometimes even advance loans without security.

In former times the *mahajans* used to secure loans on the lands of the Adivasis and ultimately grabbed them. In this way much land of the aboriginals passed into the hands of the *mahajans.* In order to safeguard the interests of the tribals against the rapacious *mahajans,* Government enacted from time to time several legislative measures, one being the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act which, as amended in 1955, debarred alienation of an aboriginal's land without the permission of the Deputy Commissioner. The *taccavi* and land improvement loans and also grain-*golas* are meant to help the cultivators and deter the *mahajans* from resorting to onerous terms of loan.

Banks.

The statement below gives the details of the banks, other than the Co-operative Banks, in the district as in October, 1964 :—

Name of place.	Name of bank and year of starting.	Nature of office.
Ranchi town ..	(1) State Bank of India (1955) ..	.. Branch Office.
	(2) Central Bank of India (1959) ..	.. Pay Office.
	(3) United Bank of India (1936) ..	.. Branch Office.
	(4) United Commercial Bank (1960) ..	.. Ditto.
	(5) Punjab National Bank (1948) ..	.. Ditto.
	(6) Bank of Bihar (1950)	.. Ditto.
	(7) Bank of India (1962)	.. Ditto.
	(8) Allahabad Bank (1964) ..	.. Ditto.
Doranda ..	State Bank of India (1963) ..	.. Ditto.
Hatia ..	(1) State Bank of India (1963) ..	.. Ditto.
	(2) United Commercial Bank (1964) ..	.. Ditto.
	(3) United Bank of India (1964) ..	.. Ditto.
Mesra ..	United Commercial Bank (1963) ..	.. Ditto.

The subdivisions of Khunti, Gumla and Simdega have no banks except the branches of the Central Co-operative Bank. The rate of interest per annum charged by banks varies. In October, 1964 it was nil on current deposit, 3 per cent on savings bank deposit and 4 to 6½ per cent on fixed deposit. About 8 to 9 per cent is usually charged on advances against cash credit accounts, gold ornaments and *hundis. Hundi* business is still continuing and is generally confined to the business in foodgrains and cloth.

In Ranchi town there was a well established bank, viz., a branch of the Chota Nagpur Banking Association, started in 1875. It went into liquidation in April, 1958. It had about 800 fixed and current accounts and five share-holders and used to advance loans on hand-notes and against mortgage of properties. Due to mismanagement it went into liquidation, ruining a large number of small depositors.

Co-operative Movement.

History.—Sometime before 1872, the Lutheran Pastor, E. Muller founded the Chota Nagpur Christian Co-operative Bank*, which remained in existence till about the fifties of the present century and did useful work. The Co-operative Movement, however, in a comprehensive sense started in the district in the wake of the scarcity of 1908. A Relief Committee with the Deputy Commissioner of Ranchi as Chairman had collected funds to administer gratuitous relief. In November, 1908 this Committee wound up its operations and appointed another committee, consisting of officials and non-officials, and made over the cash balance to them to organise Co-operative Credit Societies.

The Organising Committee took up the work and by the end of 1909 there were 27 Credit Co-operative Societies in Ranchi town and its suburb. The Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Bengal, visited Ranchi in January, 1910 and suggested the formation of a Union or Central Bank and this led to the registration of the Ranchi Central Co-operative Union Ltd., in June, 1910.

The Christian Missions by this time had also taken up fostering the co-operative movement. Rev. Lonsdale of the Anglican Mission, Rev. Paul Waquer of Purulia, representing the Lutheran Mission and Rev. Father Hoffmann of the Roman Catholic Mission had done pioneering work among the Christian aboriginals, organising Co-operative Societies with a view to give them relief from the rapacious *mahajans.*

The Co-operative Society of the Catholic Mission strictly confined its membership to the Roman Catholics only. But the societies organised by the German missionaries allowed the non-Christians also to become

* Rev. Father Camil Bulcke, S. J. Monograph, 1967.

their members. The societies under the influence of the Roman Catholic Mission got themselves registered as Roman Catholic Co-operative Credit Society Ltd., in Ranchi town in 1909. Another Central Union Bank was registered as Govindpur Lutheran Co-operative Banking Association Ltd. at Govindpur in 1921.

The Subdivisional Central Co-operative Banks were also organised at Khunti, Gumla and Simdega in 1921, 1926 and 1930, respectively. The Govindpur Co-operative Banking Association was converted into Chota Nagpur Central Christian Co-operative Bank Ltd. with headquarters at Ranchi and it extended its area of operation throughout the Chota Nagpur Division.

Growth.—The movement was at a very low ebb when in 1937 the Government ordered the rehabilitation of the entire co-operative structure. All the five Central Co-operative Banks in the district were reorganised and the new scheme took effect from January, 1945. The Second World War gave an opportunity for the rehabilitation of the co-operative movement. The co-operative organisations were utilised for distribution of controlled essential commodities like foodgrains, sugar, kerosene oil and cloth, both in rural and urban areas. All the 114 Credit Co-operative Societies were converted into Multipurpose Co-operative Societies and they were entrusted with the distribution of fertilisers worth about Rs. 50,000. 150 new Multipurpose Co-operative Societies were also formed. During 1952–56 the societies distributed 1,902 tons of chemical fertilisers in 300 villages. A loan of Rs. 3,05,977 was also advanced to the societies for meeting the short-term and the medium-term requirement of their members. A number of Weavers' Co-operative Societies were also started.

In order to make the Central Co-operative Bank financially strong, the Subdivisional Co-operative Banks at Ranchi, Khunti, Gumla and Simdega were reorganised. Ranchi and Khunti Subdivisional Banks were amalgamated into one unit with headquarters at Ranchi while those at Gumla and Simdega into the other with headquarters at Gumla.

Catholic Co-operative Society, Ranchi.

This society was founded in 1909 by Jesuit J. Hoffmann. It is a registered body. The membership is limited to the tribal members of the Catholic Church of Chota Nagpur. However, surplus funds were accumulated in the mid forties and loans were made to non-members also, primarily to the businessmen of Ranchi, who were not under the influence of the Society.

The membership of the Society and volume of its transactions have grown up steadily as will appear from the table below :—

Year.	Number of members.	Deposits by members.	Loans to members.	Deposit by non-members.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1961 (30th June) ..	25,791	10,70,826	3,51,718	35,55,979
1964 (September) ..	29,427	15,71,556	8,23,045	24,99,662

In 1964 the rates of interest on loans and deposits were as follows:—

On loans to the borrowers	..	7 per cent per annum.
On deposits to the members—		
Current	..	½ per cent per annum.
6 months	..	1 per cent per annum.
1 year	..	2 per cent per annum.
On deposits to the non-members—		
Current	..	½ per cent per annum.
1 year	..	1½ per cent per annum.

The rate of interest on loans is ¼ per cent less than the rate charged by Government Co-operatives.

About 90 per cent of the villages, which have churches and schools also have local units of the Society. A unit consists of one or more villages. These units are federated into circles each administered by an Assistant Director. The following table gives details of the administrative set-up and volume of transactions of this Society in 1964* :—

Subdivisions.	Members.	Units.	Circles.	Loans outstanding.	Loans advanced† in 1963 and 1964.	Deposits by members.	Deposits by non-members.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Sadar (8 branches‡).	3,603	117	28	1,24,727	1,05,425	3,19,826	10,40,718
2. Khunti (6 branches).	4,205	134	19	1,21,570	75,337	1,75,882	4,46,972
3. Gumla and Simdega (25 branches).	19,929	548	111	9,68,263	6,76,965	10,28,117	14,60,587
Total ..	27,737	799	158	12,14,560	8,57,727	15,23,825	29,48,277

* Source.—Catholic Co-operative Society, Ranchi.

† The State Government do not advance any loan to the Catholic Co-operative Society.

‡ The branches of the Catholic Co-operative Society Ranchi are not registered.

In 1967 the Society had over 39,000 members, grouped in 950 rural units and received deposits from members and non-members amounting to rupees 95 lakhs while the total amount of advances stood at Rs. 31 lakhs. To make farming more profitable it has recently attached agricultural advisers to rural units to teach improved methods of cultivation to its members. It has also inspired, and often financed, various schemes of rural development such as minor irrigation, supply of improved seeds and chemical fertilisers*.

Co-operative Societies.

Prior to the adoption of the recommendations of the Rural Credit Survey Committee in 1953 the Co-operative Movement was rather non-official in character†. Thereafter, Government aid began to be given to it in the shape of contribution to share capital in the primary and apex institutions and also managerial assistance. During 1958–64 the number of societies, their membership and share capital showed a progressive rise as will appear from the details given below‡.

Year.	Multipurpose Co-operative Societies.			Large-sized Societies.			Vyapar Mandals.		
	Number.	Membership.	Share capital.	Number.	Membership.	Share capital.	Number.	Membership.	Share capital.
1	2	3	4	5	6.	7	8	9	10
			Rs.			Rs.			Rs.
1958	797	24,424	74,926						
1959	805	28,336	8',664	23	3,023	1,75,389	9	118	1,24,487
1960	865	30,801	1,17,747	23	3,498	2,16,444	10	165	1,26,015
1961	1,018	46,508	1,77,750	25	3,561	2,17,030	12	224	1,26,485
1962	1,115	49,905	2,30,851	25	4,330	2,10,464	17	466	1,93,090
1963	1,287	59,117	3,30,814	25	4,461	2,13,544	18	534	2,03,501
1964	1,416	66,954	4,45,463	26	4,687	3,75,470	19	628	2,94,741
				26	4,746	2,76,661	19	657	2,95,702

Year.	Joint Farming Societies.			Other types of Societies.		
	Number.	Membership.	Share capital.	Number.	Membership.	Share capital.
1	11	12	13	14	15	16
			Rs.			Rs.
1958 ..	Nil	Nil	Nil			
1959 ..	7	127	898	25	342	1,890
1960 ..	14	265	4,168	81	2,975	5,215
1961 ..	20	376	4,712	135	3,117	6,786
1962 ..	23	446	7,465	279	7,365	91,062
1963 ..	29	638	10,810	311	25,644	1,40,332
1964 ..	30	671	19,701	399	29,695	1,52,083
				417	29,917	1,55,437

* Rev. Father Camil Bulcke, S. J., Monograph, 1967.

† The Rural Credit Survey Committee functioned during 1951-52. Its recommendations were adopted in 1953 and the following years.

‡ Source.—Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ranchi.

Out of 3,858 villages in the district, 2,614 have been brought under co-operative fold till 1964*.

Multipurpose Societies.—Out of 1,416 Multipurpose Co-operative Societies in the district, 134 are either moribund or defunct and have not borrowed any amount from the Central Co-operative Banks during the last five years. In addition to the credit business, 121 Multipurpose Co-operative Societies are also running Fair Shops in Government foodgrains.

Weavers' Societies.—There are (September, 1964) 65 Weavers' Co-operative Societies in the district with a total membership of 8,273 and share capital of Rs. 1,32,443.

Industrial Societies.—There are (September, 1964) 377 Industrial Co-operative Societies of different cottage industries in the district with subdivisional break-up: Sadar—168; Khunti—101; Gumla—79 and Simdega—29. These societies are formed by artisans of particular vocations in the locality. They are supplied credit by the Industry Department of Government as also the Bihar State Khadi and Village Industries Board for purchasing raw materials, accessories and tools equipment, etc.

Joint Farming Societies.—In 1959, such societies were formed, the target for this district during the Third Five-Year Plan being 45. Till September, 1964, 30 Joint Farming Co-operative Societies with 671 members and share capital of Rs. 701 have been organised in the district. An investigation was made to ascertain the working of the Rajaulahatu Joint Farming Co-operative Society, in the Khijri Block, which was started on 1st April, 1959 with 16 members and a share capital of Rs. 400 and 59.04 acres of land (*tanr*). The State Government advanced Rs. 30,000 to the society from 1959 to 1963. The yield has been as follows†:—

Year.	Average produce (in maunds).
1959-60	135
1960-61	84
1961-62	282
1962-63	202
1963-64	115

The produce includes potato, groundnut, vegetable, sweet potato, *surguja, kurthi,* maize, *marua,* etc. The intense love of cultivators for traditional individual farming is a big hurdle to success of this experiment.

* Source.—Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Ranchi.

† Source.—Rajaulahatu Joint Farming Society, Ranchi.

Central Co-operative Banks.

The Central Co-operative Banks are the pivot of Co-operative banking and credit. All the Co-operative Societies are affiliated to them for the purpose of supervision, guidance and credit facility.

The following table indicates the details of the credit facilities extended to the co-operative societies during 1958-59 to 1963-64 by Ranchi-Khunti Bank*:—

Year.	Paid-up share capital.	Amount of loans advanced.	Total demand.	Total collection.	Percentage of collection to demand.
1	2	3	4	5	6
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1958-59 ..	1,59,051.00	3,06,415.00	2,84,000.00	1,13,000.00	40 per cent.
1959-60 ..	1,76,167.00	3,08,207.00	2,60,000.00	1,39,000.00	53 per cent.
1960-61 ..	1,81,530.00	3,23,477.00	2,99,000.00	2,27,000.00	76 percent.
1961-62 ..	1,95,437.00	4,04,505.00	3,72,000.00	3,45,000.00	92.4 percent.
1962-63 ..	2,22,026.00	7,33,021.00	5,05,764.00	3,75,443.00	74.2 percent.
1963-64 ..	2,35,551.00	10,10,032.00	11,35,541.00	9,13,069.37	80.4 percent.

The following table shows the working of the Gumla-Simdega Co-operative Bank from 1960-61 to 1962-63†:—

	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63
1. Number of members	421	481	550
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
2. Paid-up share capital	2,44,055	50,682	59,776
3. Deposits	2,57,042	4,29,167	5,07,009
4. Loans advanced	2,34,225	3,94,698	6,32,696
5. Loans realised	1,14,121	2,27,703	2,51,020
6. Demand	1,40,362	2,44,228	2,79,484
7. Percentage of collection	81 per cent	92 percent	86 per cent

These banks give credit only for agricultural purposes for short or medium terms to meet immediate needs such as seeds, manures, etc. The short-term loans are to be repaid within nine to twelve months. The

* Source.—Manager, Ranchi-Khunti Central Co-operative Bank, Ranchi.

† Source.—Gumla Central Co-operative Bank, Gumla.

medium-term loans are advanced for the purchase of livestock, agricultural implements, etc., and are to be repaid within three to five years. The rate of interest was 6½ per cent per annum from the ultimate borrower, i.e., the cultivators, but from January, 1961 it had been raised to 7½ per cent. In 1965 the interest was charged at the rate of 7 per cent for both kinds of loans. Loans are advanced on the security of cent for both kinds of the members; but such securities are not required for landed properties of the members; but such securities are not required for loans below Rs. 200. Personal sureties are taken in all cases.

The Ranchi Central Consumers' Co-operative Stores Ltd., Ranchi.

This was started on 13th April, 1964 with a view to assist the public in general and members in particular, in procuring all essential commodities, such as consumers' and industrial goods and foodgrains by undertaking their supply and to distribute them at reasonable rate. Its area of operation is limited to the Ranchi district. The authorised share capital of this society is Rs. 2 lakhs, divided into 8,000 shares of the value of Rs. 25 each to be subscribed by members only.

The following table indicates the progress of this society :—

Year.	Turnover.
	Rs.
1963-64	1,27,924
1964-65	54,61,288
1965-66	1,21,52,785
1966-67	37,18,741

(till October, 1966).

The amount of turnover includes the value of Government foodgrains which the society handles as a stockist*.

The latest progress of this society is borne out by the following figures†:—

	Membership.	Share capital.	Sale.		Total.
			Controlled goods.	Non-controlled goods.	
1	2	3	4	5	6
July, 1967.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Individual ..	2,490	67,795	9,29,762	1,44,157	10,63,919
Societies ..	84	23,450			
Government	1	4,02,500			
Total ..		4,94,745			

* Source.— First Annual Report, dated 26th November 1966, on Ranchi Central Consumers' Co-operative Store, Ltd.

† Report, dated 19th August 1967 of the Honorary Secretary of the Society.

The society has made the following profit*:—

Year.	Amount.
	Rs.
1964-65	54,823.00
1965-66	1,04,009.00
1966-67	1,25,000.00

The Central Consumers' Co-operative Stores have extended their activities by opening a co-operative market (*Apna Bazar*) on the main road on usual pattern to cater for the consumer goods of standard quality to suit the taste of a cosmopolitan clientele.

General and Life Insurance.

Prior to the creation of the Life Insurance Corporation of India on 1st September 1956, a number of Life Insurance Companies were doing insurance business in this district through their agents. From the aforesaid date the life insurance business was nationalised in the country and accordingly all those companies including foreign life insurance companies as also Provident Fund Societies ceased their life insurance business, which was taken over by the said Corporation.

General Insurance work which includes fire, marine, accident, theft, burglary, motor vehicles, etc., has been left to the concerns in the private sector. Some of the former Life Insurance Companies and Societies have now switched over to the General Insurance business also.

Life Insurance business in this district has been expanding as is shown by the figures given below for the years 1959 to 1964. They include the figures of the District Sub-office in Ranchi town as well†:—

Year.	Proposals introduced.		Proposals completed.	
	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.
		Rs.		Rs.
1959	2,724	1,37,63,750	2,401	1,16,86,363
1960	3,381	1,85,00,000	3,177	1,77,00,000
1961	3,778	1,90,61,000	3,475	1,78,94,000
1962	3,459	1,86,60,000	2,545	1,60,87,000
1963‡	3,319	1,88,81,950	2,892	1,54,18,000
1964 (up to August) ..	1,630	1,06,11,800	1,851	1,18,76,750

* Report dated 19th August 1967 of the Honorary Secretary of the Society.

† Source.—Branch Office, Life Insurance Corporation, Ranchi.

‡ Excluding business registered by the District Sub-Office, Ranchi as the figures of Sub-office are not readily available.

So far as the General Insurance is concerned which includes the insurance of godowns, money and goods in transit, personal accident, fire, etc., the incidence is not so high. but may increase with the progressive industrialisation of the district.

The Oriental Fire and General Insurance Company does general insurance business through about 128 agents in the district and has posted a paid Inspector in Ranchi. This district is looked after directly by the Divisional Office at Patna where there is a Divisional Secretary. The other General Insurance Companies have also their agents and inspectors in the district.

The Life Insurance Corporation has been allowed to take up the General Insurance work in the district since April, 1964 and till October, 1964 it booked three General Insurance cases, i.e., one relating to burglary, next to public carrier and the third to motor cycle.

Small Savings.

The State as well as the Central Government have agencies to absorb the small savings of individuals, societies and companies. The State Government also float loans from time to time which are subscribed to by public in general. The post offices draw the savings of common man through Savings Bank, National Savings Certificate, etc. In September, 1964, there were 137 post offices with Savings Bank facilities in the district, including the head office at Ranchi and sub-post offices in its town areas.

The following table gives the balance amount at the close of the respective year in Savings Bank Account*:—

Year.	Amount.
	Rs.
1960-61	1,10,20,354.96
1961-62	1,54,28,271.50
1962-63	1,06,69,126.64
1963-64	2,57,86,747.85

The savings are not commensurate with area and population of the district.

National Savings Scheme.

The following categories of investment have been classified as small savings investment since 1957:—

(1) Twelve-Year National Plan Savings Certificate issued in denominations of a minimum of Rs. 5.00 and the maximum of Rs. 5,000 and yielding interest at 5.41 per cent.

* Source.—Postal Department, Ranchi.

(2) Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificate issued in denominations of Rs. 50 and Rs. 100 and yielding interest at 4 per cent per annum which is paid every year.

(3) Fifteen-Year Annuity Certificate whereby accumulated savings can be invested as a lump sum and received back in monthly instalments for a period of 15 years, the rate of interest being about $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent compound.

The annual value of the National Savings Certificates issued and those discharged for the years 1960-61 to 1963-64 is given below*:—

Year.	Value of certificates issued.	Value of certificates discharged.
	Rs.	Rs.
1960-61	14,56,530.00	5,37,781.02
1961-62	21,40,840.00	7,60,914.08
1962-63	58,49,780.00	9,41,894.66
1963-64	74,44,815.00	16,96,460.15

As an inducement towards savings, the Government started on 1st April, 1960, a scheme of five years interest-free Prize Bonds, drawable quarterly every year till 31st March, 1965. These bonds were of two denominations, viz., of Rs. 5 and Rs. 100. The attractive feature of the bonds was that at each draw prizes were available ranging from Rs. 50 to Rs. 7,500 for each five-rupee bond and Rs. 500 to Rs. 25,000 for each 100-rupee bond.

The value of the prize bonds issued under Ranchi Head Post Office since its introduction was as follows*:—

Year.	Value of prize bonds.
	Rs.
1960-61	2,26,795.00
1961-62	86,125.00
1962-63 .. .. .. (Up to August, 1962)	26,945.00
1963-64† .. .. .. (From December, 1963 to March, 1964).	44,475.00

* SOURCE.—Ranchi Head Post Office, Ranchi.

† Since September, 1962 to November, 1962, this scheme was closed.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

In olden times the principal centres of trade in the district were Ranchi, Lohardaga, Palkot and Govindpur where stick lac, resin, catechu, cocoons of *tasar* silk, hides, oil-seeds were collected for export. Rice and other foodgrains, brass vessels, piece goods, cloth, tobacco, spices, drugs and beads were brought to these markets for local consumption. All over the district the trade was carried on by periodical markets, held once or twice a week according to the importance of the neighbourhood which they served.* This pattern of trade continued until it was revolutioned by modern means of communications, towards the late thirties of the present century, with the result that the primary centres of collection such as Palkot and Govindpur, have now become insignificant while Ranchi and Lohardaga command the *hats* direct even in the remotest interior.

†The trade from the southern portion of the district went to the main line of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway‡ at Chakardharpur, Rajgangpur and the other stations. Apart from the railways, a considerable amount of trade went by road *via* Hazaribagh and Chatra to Gaya. In the wilder parts of the district pack-bullocks were regularly used as the only means of conveyance, and long trains of them were seen passing through Barwe bringing oil-seeds from the Feudatory States of Jashpur and Surguja. Small ponies also carried goods to local *hats* and markets. The chief articles of export were oil-seeds and rice. Stick lac was also exported, chiefly to the manufacturing centres in Mirzapur and Manbhum. Other items of export were hides and skins, tea, timber and bones. Sugar, salt, kerosene oil, coal and manufactured articles were the principal articles of import. The opening of the Purulia-Ranchi branch of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway had made Ranchi easily accessible from Calcutta and elsewhere.

The table below shows the volume of chief exports from and imports at Ranchi Railway Station in 1908–15**:—

Exports

	1908 (In tons).	1912 (In tons).	1914-15 (In tons).
1. Grains and pulses	306	214	223
2. Rice	1,489	5,513	228
3. Hides and skin	567	851	435
4. Lac stick	1,662	2,007	1,427
5. Oil-seeds	963	6,897	3,618
6. Tea	105	172	107
7. Timber	101	174	641
8. Bones	343	527	344

* *A Statistical Account of Bengal*, 1877, p. 420.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, pp. 172-73.

‡ Now South-Eastern Railway.

** *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 181.

Imports.

	1908 (In tons).	1912 (In tons).	1914-15 (In tons).
1. Coal	1,905	2,747	10,032
2. Cotton	805	912	1,021
3. Rice	6,241*	46	1,017
4. Wheat	402	290	253
5. Wheat flour	467	562	720
6. Lime	119	1,802	3,630
7. Kerosene oil	875	1,496	1,719
8. Salt	4,659	5,640	5,856
9. Sugar	1,728	1,319	711
10. *Mahua* flower	1,052	39	340

The volume of goods traffic from and to Ranchi Railway Station during 1962–64 was as follows†:–

Imports.

Name of commodities.	1962.	1963.	1964.	Places from where imported.
	Quintals.	Quintals.	Qunitals.	
1. Iron and steel ..	98,948	96,321	95,013	Jamshedpur (Bihar) and Burnpur (West Bengal).
2. Rice and paddy ..	58,344	106,886	98,227	Kukinara (West Bengal) and Kurukshetra (Hariyana).
3. Salt	151,000	107,000	93,000	Tuticorin (Madras).
4. Cement	154,321	144,900	95,849	Japla and Khelari (Bihar).
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	
5. Coal	22,272	24,321	26,435	Argada (West Bengal), Bhaga and Bhojudih (Bihar).
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	
6. Petrol and kerosene oil	63,435	61,327	64,527	Budge Budge (West Bengal).
	Quintals.	Quintals.	Quintals.	
7. Other grains and pulses.	75,635	67,324	72,637	Aligarh, Allahabad and Agra (Uttar Pradesh).
8. Paddy straw ..	15,342	14,321	18,432	Jhumri Tilaya (Bihar) and Jhalda (West Bengal).
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	
9. Timber ..	23,142	24,241	27,342	Raipur (Madhya Pradesh) and Cantabhuji (Orissa).
	Qunitals.	Quintals.	Quintals.	
10. Cotton piece goods. ..	10,242	15,259	17,113	Ahmedabad, Madras and Bombay.

* 1908 was a year of scarcity in the district.

† SOURCE.—Ranchi Railway Station, Ranchi.

Exports.

	1962.	1963.	1964.	Places where exported.
	Quintals.	Quintals.	Quintals.	
1. Hides	2,509	7,364	2,281	West Bengal.
2. Bones	1,900	8,828	4,678	West Bengal.
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	
3. Kerosene oil ..	1,182	3,211	1,318	Within Ranchi district.
	Quintals.	Qunitals.	Quintals.	
4. Iron and steel ..	21,260	30,101	28,617	Kanpur.

The volume of goods traffic from and to Lohardaga Railway station during 1962–64 was as follows*:–

Imports.

Name of the commodities.	1962.	1963.	1964.	Places from where imported.
	Quintals.	Quintals.	Quintals.	
1. Cement... ..	3,425	4,625	6,245	Japla and Khelari (Bihar).
2. Chemical manures ..	4,742	5,847	7,245	Sindri (Bihar).
3. Salt	2,241	3,041	4,257	Tuticorin (Madras).
4. Tabacco ..	2,245	3,041	3,247	Shahpurpatori in Darbhanga (Bihar).

Exports.

	1962.	1963.	1964.	Places from where exported.
	Quintals.	Quintals.	Quintals.	
1. Bauxite ore ..	194,321	214,105	243,521	Anupnagar (West Bengal), Durgapur and Rourkella Steel Plants.
2. China Clay ..	15,437	21,435	20,421	Janskaynagar (West Bengal), Calcutta.
3. *Mahua* flower ..	2,421	2,567	2,842	Within Ranchi district.
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	
4. Country spirit ..	542	637	845	Ditto.

* Lohardaga Railway Station, Lohardaga.

Certain commodities like petroleum, kerosene oil, cloth, grains, spices, sugar, etc., are both imported and exported. The wholesalers and distributors import the goods and despatch them to their retailers at various destinations in the district. The cinematic films are imported from Bombay, Madras, Calcutta and other places in the country and after being exhibited they are despatched to various destinations outside the district for the same purpose. The main commodities imported by trucks into Ranchi town are cloth, mustard oil, grain, pulses, potato, coal, sulphate of ammonia, dry chillies, etc. The main commodities exported from Ranchi town are vegetables, *mahua* seeds, lac and forest products.

Trade Centres.

Ranchi and Lohardaga are main trade centres in the district. In 1965, Ranchi had about 287 wholesalers and 1,800 retail dealers*. Retail shops for almost all the commodities of normal use exist in it. Among them, the grocery group is the most important. It has the largest number of shops and provides the maximum employment. Cereals, pulses, spices, jaggery, oil, *ghee*, condiments and a number of miscellaneous goods are sold in these shops. The town has about 500 consumer stores shops which sell cosmetics and various other consumer goods. Generally, the value of stock in trade of individual shops varies widely, say, from about Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 15,000 and above per shop. Next in importance to groceries come the sweetmeat and other shops that sell cooked food. Ranchi town has the largest number of sweetmeat shops among the towns in Bihar. It has about 150 sweetmeat shops, big or small, and there is a brisk sale. The stock-in-trade of this type of shops varies from Rs. 500 to Rs. 25,000 and above per shop.

The town has five backery establishments, viz., Ferrazzinis, Ananda, Sindhi, Hindustan and Rajni which have a brisk sale in the town and outside. Besides, there are about twenty-five small backery units in the town that sell loaves, biscuits, pastries. cakes, etc. The industrial township of Dhurwa, residential colony of the Hindusthan Steel in Doranda and that of the National Coal Development Corporation in northern part of Ranchi, have boosted this trade by providing ready market.

The consumption of tea in Ranchi town is heavy. There are about 15 shops in the town dealing in wholesale and retail tea trade. They import tea (loose as well as packed) from Calcutta and supply to the grocery shopkeepers and also to the hotels and restaurants in the town†.

Fish and meat have also a brisk sale in the town. It has about 100 shops for meat and 20 for fish. Bulk of fish is generally imported from Calcutta. The average daily consumption of fish in Ranchi town as

* Source.—Commercial Taxes Department, Ranchi.

† Tea manufactured locally is all exported.

reported by the Inspector of Fisheries, is about 20 maunds. Ranchi town has a big turnover in vegetables also. About a dozen truck-loads of vegetables are sent to different parts of Bihar and outside. Cauliflowers, tomatoes, beans and pea, are the main vegetables that are sent out. Dhanbad, Jamshedpur and Rourkella depend mainly on Ranchi market for supply of vegetables. *Pan, bidi* and cigarette shops are also in plenty.

The cloth and hosiery goods have a brisk sale. The stock-in-trade of an average shop is usually worth about Rs. 1,000; but a few wholesalers stock goods worth many lakhs of rupees. Handloom and power-loom products manufactured in the district are obtained either from the manufacturers direct or from retail dealers who number about 100. Ready-made garments have also a very good sale in the district.

There are about 500 footwear shops in the town including agencies of Bata, Flex, Dayalbagh, etc. Besides, some shops sell other leather goods and accessories for shoe-making.

The shopkeepers under the group of Chemists and Druggists sell medicines, foreign and Indian and surgical instruments. There are about 100 such shops in the town. A large part of the chemical drugs and medicines are brought mainly from Bombay and Calcutta. There has been a large expansion of business in medicines and surgical goods in the town.

The general expansion of education including opening of a University at Ranchi with various faculties has accelerated demand for text-books, newspapers and magazines, which are imported and distributed through retailers. This trade, however, is of small volume at present.

Due to industrialisation the town has now many shops of automobiles and spare parts of motor vehicle. There are about 40 shops of this type in the town.

There are about 12 fuel stations of different companies. Due to the opening of Heavy Engineering Corporation and other industries, vehicles of all descriptions have multiplied and accordingly there is much demand of petrol and diesel.

Soap industry has also flourished. There are about eight indigenous soap factories in the town, which employ about 40 persons and sell their products in the local markets.

The other retail marketing centres in the district are at Muri, Lohardaga, Gumla, Khunti and Simdega. At all these places retail shops for almost all commodities are found. There are about 84 wholesale and 1,525 retail dealers in the district, excluding those in Ranchi town*.

* The figures relate to 1965.

Export and Import.

The statement below shows the main centres of export therein the district with commodities and destination:—

Export.

Places.	Commodities.	Destination.
1. Ranchi ..	Vegetable, *Kendu* leaf, rice, *mahua*, grain.	All over Bihar, Calcutta, Delhi and Uttar Pradesh.
2. Lohardaga ..	*Mahua*, bauxite* ..	All over Bihar, West Bengal, Madras, Kerala.
3. Khelari ..	Cement	All over India.
4. Gumla ..	Forest produce, livestock, grain, vegetable, poultry, rice, etc.	Ranchi, Rourkella, Calcutta, Birmitrapur, Patna and Gaya.
5. Simdega ..	Rice, *mahua*, lac, *Chiraunji-dana* and *Kendu* leaf.	All over Bihar, Birmitrapur, Rourkella, Ranchi, Calcutta, Patna, etc.

Mahua oil is mainly consumed as the basic raw material for soap. The annual average export of *mahua* seeds from Ranchi town is about 70,000 maunds a year.

The forest products of Ranchi like timber, *bidi* leaves, crude gum, bee-wax and honey are mostly exported. About 3,000 maunds of bee-wax are exported to Calcutta from Ranchi. Crude gum to the extent of about 1,500 maunds is exported annually to Katni and Bombay.

Import.

The commodities of import include foodgrains, salt, spices, cotton textiles, petrol, kerosene oil, sugar, *vanaspati* oil, mustard oil, cosmetics and other luxury goods, cycle, radio sets, crockery, etc.

Commodities.	Origin of import.
1. Cotton piece goods ..	Kanpur, Ahmedabad, Bombay, Calcutta, Bhagalpur.
2. Salt	Calcutta, Dungri, Tuticorin.
3. Iron and steel	Tatanagar, Kulti, Calcutta.
4. Wheat	Punjab, Shahabad.
5. Gram and pulses ..	Kanpur, Agra, Hapur, Madhya Pradesh.
6. Kerosene oil	Budge Budge.
7. Petrol, Diesel	Budge Budge.
8. Mustard oil	Patna, Gaya.
9. Shoes	Kanpur, Agra, Delhi, Calcutta, Patna.
10. Fish	Calcutta.
11. Sugar	Dalmianagar, Bihta.
12. Chillies	Patna.
13. Coal	Dhanbad.

* Bauxite ores are exported to Muri and after reduction into alumina to Kerala.

The railway stations of commercial use are Dhurwa, Ranchi, Lohardaga, Muri, Khelari and Rai. The only development of railways during the Post-independence period was substitution of the former Muri-Ranchi section of the narrow gauge by broad gauge and opening of a new section of broad gauge between Ranchi and Bondamonda (Rourkella) which have contributed to the industrial expansion of the district.

The district has now a net-work of highways connecting it not only with the neighbouring districts, namely, Hazaribagh, Palamau, Singhbhum and Dhanbad, but also with Birmitrapur and Rourkella in Orissa; Calcutta *via* Dhanbad and Kharagpur; Patna *via* Bakhtiarpur and Assam *via* Mokameh. Thus easy communications have considerably helped the trade and commerce of the district. Heavy trucks have now replaced the caravans of bullock carts, which were seen on roads even a decade ago.

Roadways play a very important role in the movement of goods, particularly because some of the trade centres in the district are not yet served by railways. It is estimated that during 1965 the average number of trucks moving daily on the roads in the district, carrying stuff to and from the trade points, was near about 1,532.

Retail Marketing Centres.

Hats, fairs and *melas* are important links in rural economy inasmuch as they are primary collecting centres of goods of their respective hinterland and are also distributing centres of imported goods.

The following statement gives details of such markets in 1967*:—

Serial no.	Name of Thana.	Sadar-subdivision. Name of Market.	Days on which held.
1	Angara ..	.. Jonha ..	.. Tuesday.
2	Ditto ..	.. Angara	.. Sunday.
3	Ditto ..	.. Berwari	.. Thursday.
4	Ditto ..	.. Sikidiri	.. Saturday.
5	Ditto ..	.. Guridih	.. Friday.
6	Ditto ..	.. Rajadera	.. Thursday.
7	Ditto ..	.. Getalsud	.. Monday.
8	Ditto ..	.. Barwadag	.. Monday.
9	Mandar ..	.. Mandar (two places)	Sunday and Thursday.
10	Ditto ..	.. Tangerbansli	.. Friday.
11	Ditto ..	.. Kurkura	.. Thursday.
12	Ditto ..	.. Opa ..	.. Friday.
13	Ditto ..	.. Korra	.. Saturday.
14	Ditto ..	.. Chorea (two places)	Thursday and Friday.
15	Ditto ..	.. Chund	.. Friday.
16	Ditto ..	.. Hutab	.. Wednesday.
17	Ditto ..	.. Beasi ..	.. Friday.
18	Ditto ..	.. Sonse ..	.. Monday.
19	Ditto ..	.. Brombay	.. Tuesday.
20	Ormanjhi ..	.. Ormanjhi	Tuesday and Friday.
21	Ditto ..	.. Kuchu	.. Thursday.
22	Ditto ..	.. Kutey	.. Sunday.
23	Kuru ..	.. Kuru ..	.. Thursday.
24	Do. ..	.. Kairo ..	.. Wednesday and Sunday.
25	Do. ..	.. Jingi ..	.. Tuesday.
26	Do. ..	.. Baridih	.. Saturday.

*Source.—Additional Collector's Office, Ranchi.

Serial no.	Name of Thana.	Sadar-subdivision. Name of Market.	Days on which held.
27	Kuru ..	.. Lawagain	.. Sunday.
28	Do. ..	.. Champi	.. Monday.
29	Kisko ..	.. Kisko	.. Tuesday and Friday.
30	Do. ..	.. Makka	.. Thursday and Sunday.
31	Lapung ..	.. Mahugaon	.. Thursday.
32	Ditto ..	.. Dolaicha	.. Tuesday.
33	Silli ..	.. Patratu	.. Friday.
34	Do. ..	.. Silli ..	.. Monday.
35	Do. ..	.. Muri ..	.. Thursday.
36	Do. ..	.. Goradih	.. Sunday.
37	Do. ..	.. Tetebandhacharloo	Friday.
38	Do. ..	.. Sarjamdih	.. Thursday.
39	Do. ..	.. Banta ..	.. Sunday.
40	Do. ..	.. Basantpur	.. Thursday.
41	Kanke ..	.. Pithoria	.. Sunday.
42	Do. ..	.. Nethkonki	.. Thursday.
43	Do. ..	.. Urugutu	.. Saturday.
44	Do. ..	.. Kumharia	.. Monday.
45	Do. ..	.. Mesra	.. Monday.
46	Do. ..	.. Sukurkutu	.. Monday and Friday.
47	Khijri ..	.. Tatisilwai	.. Tuesday.
48	Ditto ..	.. Hatia ..	.. Tuesday.
49	Ditto ..	.. Jagarnathpur	.. Sunday.
50	Ditto ..	.. Tunju ..	.. Thursday.
51	Ditto ..	.. Hardag	.. Friday.
52	Ditto ..	.. Hajam..	.. Sunday.
53	Ditto ..	.. Rampur	.. Friday.
54	Ditto ..	.. Namkum	.. Sunday.

Serial no.	Name of Thana.	Sadar-subdivision. Name of Market.	Days on which held.
55	Ratu ..	.. Ratu ..	.. Sunday.
56	Do. ..	.. Daladali	.. Sunday.
57	Do. ..	.. Bajpur	.. Thursday and Monday.
58	Do. ..	.. Nagri ..	.. Tuesday and Friday.
59	Burmu ..	.. Ray ..	.. Tuesday.
60	Do. ..	.. Umadanda	.. Sunday.
61	Do. ..	.. Thakurgoan	.. Monday and Thursday.
62	Do. ..	.. Churugara	.. Friday.
63	Do. ..	.. Barandi	.. Tuesday.
64	Do. ..	.. Burmu	.. Wednesday.
65	Do. ..	.. Hesalong	.. Friday.
66	Ranchi ..	.. Ranchi	.. Saturday and Wednesday (under municipal area).
67	Lohardaga ..	.. Lohardaga	.. Monday and Friday.
68	Ditto	.. Nagjua	.. Monday.
69	Ditto ..	.. Bhandar	.. Tuesday and Friday.
70	Ditto ..	.. Chatti ..	.. Saturday and Wednesday.
71	Ditto ..	.. Danru ..	.. Saturday.
72	Ditto ..	.. Irgaon	.. Sunday.
73	Ditto ..	.. Patratu	.. Sunday.
74	Ditto ..	.. Bhaskohratoli	.. Thursday.
75	Ditto ..	.. Manhe	.. Wednesday.
76	Ditto ..	.. Heswa	.. Wednesday.
77	Ditto ..	.. Korambe	.. Saturday.
78	Bero ..	.. Bero ..	.. Monday.

Serial no.	Name of Thana.	Sadar-subdivision. Name of Market.	Days on which held.
79	Bero ..	.. Irri ..	.. Tuesday.
80	Do. ..	.. Itki ..	.. Wednesday and Saturday.
81	Do. ..	.. Khirda	.. Wednesday.
82	Do. ..	.. Lamkana	.. Wednesday.
83	Do. ..	.. Jaria ..	.. Thursday.
84	Do. ..	.. Tuko ..	.. Friday.
85	Do. ..	.. Tilaksuti	.. Sunday.

Khunti subdivision.

The important *hats* are held at Taimara, Bundu, Khunti, Torpa, Karra and Murhu.

Gumla subdivision.

The *hats* are held at Kumhari, Raikera, Sarita, Adar, Puto, Tengaria, Duria, Kendra, Patratoli, Kariga, Titi, Basua and Gumla *bazar*. Of these, Raikera, Adar, Patratoli and Gumla Bazar are important.

Simdega subdivision.

The important *hats* are held at Simdega, Tamra, Phulwantnagar, Kochedega, Kelukera, Kinkel, Bolba, Kolebira and Bano.

Fairs and Melas.*

Trade News Service.

Trade news of markets generally reaches the local merchants through letters, daily papers, radio, telephone and telegrams. A marketing section has been started since 1964 under the Agriculture Department and a Price Reporter has been appointed who is expected to communicate the news regarding the trade and commerce including fluctuations of daily rates of market to traders.

Regulated Market.

There is a regulated market in Ranchi town, started in 1964. The State Government passed the Bihar Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1960, to regulate the various features of agricultural marketing with a view to enable the agriculturists to get the best prices for their produce. The areas under the Ranchi town and Ranchi Kotwali thanas in the Sadar subdivision have been declared as regulated market area and the commodities to be dealt with are paddy, rice, *marua,* mustard seed, potato and lac. There is a Committee of 15 members consisting of agriculturists, traders, members of co-operative societies and co-operative banks, *gram panchayats* and a Government representative to administer

* *See* the Chapter 'People'.

the provisions of the aforesaid Act. A gazetted officer designated as Market Secretary has been posted in Ranchi town. The regulated market will cover the wholesale transactions. Under Bihar Agricultural Produce Markets Rules, 1962, no person shall do business as commission agents or traders in agricultural produce in the regulated market area without obtaining a licence from the Market Committee.

Hawkers.

The hawkers sell comparatively cheaper articles of common use, viz., fruits, nuts, sweetmeats, cheap utensils, toys, etc. They are licensed on a fee of Rs. 4 each per month.

Centres of Wholesale Business and *Mandis*.

There are mainly six commodities, namely, cement, cloth, grain, lac, *kendu* leaves and turmeric in which the wholesale business is carried on in the district. Many retail dealers of other districts, e.g., Palamau, Singhbhum, Hazaribagh, Gaya, Patna, Bhagalpur have a direct contact with the wholesale dealers of this district.

The main centres of wholesale business in the district are Ranchi, Muri, Lohardaga, Khelari, Gumla and Simdega. In Ranchi town there is a grain *mandi* where *arhatias* (commission agents) have a big godown. The contractor of the *mandi* charges Rs. 1.50 per truck-load; 00.50 per tyre cart-load and 00.25 per ordinary cart-load of the grain brought at the *mandi*. The rate of weighment charge is 12 Paise per bag of 2½ maunds. The sellers also pay Rs. 1.20 per 100 rupees worth of commodities to the commission agents. The purchaser has to pay Rs. 2 per 100 rupees worth of commodities. The charge for *dharmada* is 20 Paise per hundred rupees of the turnover and is paid by the purchaser. The *dholai* (carriage) charge ranges from 12 Paise to 37 Paise per bag of 2½ maunds.

The statement below shows the wholesale business centres, the important commodities dealt in and total turnover in maunds in 1964*:—

Name of commodities.	Ranchi town. (In maunds.)	Lohardaga. (In maunds.)	Gumla. (In maunds.)	Simdega. (In maunds.)
1. Rice	11,00,000	7,00,000	3,00,000	60,000
2. Wheat	4,35,000	Nil	Nil	Nil
3. Maize	70,000	35,000	20,000	Nil
4. Gram	1,60,000	18,000	15,000	8,000
5. Pulses	5,50,000	1,25,000	50,000	45,000
6. Mustard seed	1,50,000	25,000	18,000	5,000
7. *Mahua*	80,000	65,000	55,000	60,000
8. Turmeric	45,000	4,000	5,500	4,000
9. Green vegetables ..	6,00,000	1,20,000	55,000	40,000
10. Lac	8,000	Nil	5,000	4,000

* Source.—Office of the Agricultural Marketing Officer, Ranchi.

Price Control Measures.

The Fair Price Shops were first started in Ranchi town in 1942 for the supply of rice, wheat, sugar, kerosene oil and cloth, etc., on prices fixed by Government. This was with a view to supply essential commodities to people and also to restrain the rising prices on account of inflation, short supply, hoarding and other allied factors connected with the Second World War. The Government also imposed control over steel, iron goods, cement, petrol, coal, etc., but these commodities were not sold in the Fair Price Shops. The usual trade channels, subject to price control and other restrictions imposed by statutory orders, continued to distribute these commodities. The control on cloth and some of the essential foodgrains was withdrawn in the later part of 1946, but had to be reimposed in December. 1949.

In 1964, there were four registered iron stockists in the district, i.e., three in Ranchi town and one at Lohardaga. There were 15 cement licensees in the district, i.e., 7 in Ranchi town, 1 at Lohardaga, 1 at Silli, 1 at Gumla, 2 at Simdega, 1 at Khunti, 1 at Bundu and 1 at Murhu. The present quarterly quota of cement for the district is about 150 wagons. There is no problem of supply of coal in this district as it is easily brought from Dhanbad and also from the local collieries. There were about 65 licensed coal dealers. The rural areas have plenty of wood and, therefore, they do not need coal for domestic fuel. 81 wholesale and 873 retail dealers were registered in cloth.

The State Government promulgated the Bihar Foodgrains Control Order, 1950, in the same year. The Bihar Agricultural Levy Order, 1950, was also enforced in the district and substantial quantities of rice and paddy were purchased from large producers and rice mills. The food position, however, eased by 1953 due to good harvest and till 1956 the Fair Price Shops were not much in demand. During the later part of 1958, there was scarcity of rice and the prices soared high. The Government introduced the Bihar Milled Rice Procurement (Levy) Order, 1958, according to which the mill-owners and the dealers were required to deliver 25 to 50 per cent of their production to Government.

The Government foodgrains godowns are located at Chutia, Ranchi town, Lowadih, Kantuatoli, Lohardaga, Mandar, Burmu, Lapung, Silli, Bero, Khunti, Karra, Torpa, Tapkara, Tamar, Bundu, Gumla, Chainpur, Bishunpur, Ghaghara, Palkot, Sisai, Raidih, Basia, Simdega, Kolebira, Bano, Kurdeg and Thethaitangar. The godown in Ranchi town works as the central store house.

The statement below shows the supply of foodgrains (wheat and rice, etc.) through the Fair Price Shops, number of godowns and the

number of Fair Price Shops functioning in the district of Ranchi during 1960–64 (August)*:–

Year.	Number of godowns.	Supply of foodgrains.		Number of Fair Price Shops.
		Wheat	Rice.	
1	2	3	4	5
		In maunds.	In maunds.	
1960	9	2,26,371	24,386	348
1961	9	2,05,592	51,923	368
1962	8	70,557	14,506	397
1963	29	126,239 quintals.	44,952 quintals.	437
1964 (up to August, 1964) ..	29	41,460 quintals.	7,796 quintals.	437

A flour mill in Ranchi town and a Bihar Udyog Vikas Corporation at Chutia village were established in 1961 to cope with the demand of flour. The State Government grants permits for wheat to these mills and in 1964 the mills got a supply of about 150 tons of wheat daily from the Government of India.

The State Government issued permits to eleven flour mills, all located in Ranchi town to make *atta* from wheat. The Central Government supplied wheat to these flour mills. There is a Central Food Storage Unit in Ranchi town maintained by the Government of India. It is the feeding centre of all the godowns in the district.

Warehousing Corporation, Ranchi.

The warehousing scheme is centrally sponsored under which a warehouse was set up in Ranchi town by Government in 1961. In 1964, there were 10 godowns under the Corporation all located in Ranchi town where the commodities are stored. 75 per cent of the value of the stored goods is advanced from banks on the token of receipt from the warehouse where the goods are stored. The main commodities stored are paddy, rice, wheat, maize, mustard seed, oil, gram and pulses. The cultivators or the traders who store the grains in the warehouse have to pay the following charges per bag to the corporation :–

Rice, wheat, maize and pulses–18 Paise per bag.

Paddy–15 Paise per bag.

Mustard seed–21 Paise per bag.

Oil–6 Paise per tin.

* Source.–District Supply Office, Ranchi.

The table below shows the stock of grains in the warehouse during 1961–64 (August)*:–

Year.	Stock in maunds.
1961	39,400
1962	27,392
1963	39,130
1964 (August)	84,255

Merchants' and Consumers' Association.

The Trade Associations of Ranchi are–

(1) Chota Nagpur Chamber of Commerce.

(2) Cloth Merchants' Association.

(3) Wholesale Foodgrains Merchants' Association.

(4) Retail Cloth Dealers' Association.

(5) Sugar Merchants' Association.

Except the Chota Nagpur Chamber of Commerce, the rest are unregistered and do not appear to play any active role as their membership does not cover the bulk of the traders in their respective lines.

Chota Nagpur Chamber of Commerce.

It was started in 1961 and registered in 1963. It has a Managing Committee consisting of Chairman, Vice-Chairman, Secretary and 21 members. It has been formed to safeguard the general interests of the businessmen in the private sector of the Ranchi district and eliminate unhealthy competition among them and resolve disputes relating to business matters.

Wholesale Foodgrains Merchants' Association.

It was formed in 1959 and has about 60 members. The association is unregistered, but tries to protect the trade interests of its members.

Weights and Measures.

The Bihar Weights and Measures Enforcement Act, 1959, was given effect to in January, 1961 in Ranchi town only. This led to the replacement of the old weights and measures by metric counterparts. Since

* Source.–Warehousing Corporation Office, Ranchi.

15th November 1962, the State Government extended the provisions of Bihar Weights and Measures Enforcement Act, 1959, to the whole of the district. However, in the remote parts of the district the old weights and measures may still be found here and there.

According to metric system only the following weights are recognised:—1 gram; 50 grams; 100 grams; 1,000 grams; 1 kilogram*; 5 kilograms; 10 kilograms; 20 kilograms; 50 kilograms; 100 kilograms (= 1 quintal); 10 quintals (= 1 metric ton).

The following prosecutions have been launched for breach of the provisions of the Act :—

Subdivision.	Prosecution.
Ranchi sadar	5
Khunti	37
Simdega	17

Fifteen persons had been convicted till September, 1964.

Modern Trends and Banking

In pre-Independence era Ranchi had only two commercial banks which transacted small volume of business. The industrialisation of the district in post-1948 period and international character of credit and supply, imports and exports have revolutionised the pattern of banking. As many twelve new banks of standing (Pp. 258-259 *supra*) have opened their branches at Ranchi and handle enormous volume of business both at national and international levels. This is mainly on account of the industries being run under the Heavy Engineering Corporation, Hatia, though the N. C. D. C., the Hindusthan Steel Ltd., and various ancillary industries also play no mean role.

The Development Projects under the first three Five-Year Plans have also added to the volume of banking transaction. Thus a fair number of people who had nothing to do with banks, now transact their work with them. Though nearly a century old now the co-operative movement has but made only modest advance and is yet to make its impact on rural population. The transactions of the Catholic Co-operative Society, Ranchi (Pp. 260–262) and that of Central Co-operative Banks (Pp. 264-265 *supra*)

* 1 Kilogram—1,000 grams or 86 *tolas* (i.e., 1 seer and 6 *tolas*).

bear testimony to this. The Land Mortgage Banks are yet to make their presence felt in context of rural credit which continues to be dominated by traditional *sahus* and *mahajans*.

Pattern of Trade and Commerce.—Ranchi has had a tradition of international trade for over a century in respect of lac (usual markets : U. S. A. and U. S. S. R.), tea (Markets : Afghanistan, Iran. Sikkim, Bhutan, etc.) and lace and embroidery (European markets). The products of the Heavy Engineering Corporation are now being exported to various parts of the world.

From national point of view export of alumina and timber of various grades are noteworthy. The climate and natural scenery of Ranchi district are its imperceptible exports inasmuch as they have been drawing tourists and health seekers. Its vegetables feed Bihar coal fields, Jamshedpur, Rourkela and Calcutta markets. The nurses from this district are employed all over Northern India, particularly in eastern part.

Ranchi leads the State of Bihar in respect of modern hotels and also departmental stores.

CHAPTER VIII.

COMMUNICATIONS.

Old Time Trade Routes, Highways and Modes of Conveyance.

An old adage* says that as soon as you see women carrying their children tied to their back and with basket loads on their head, think that you have reached Ranchi. Indeed till about the turn of the present century, communications between Bihar and Chota Nagpur were so difficult that common traveller might have had no clear indication of his route to Ranchi.

In olden times there was a well-established trade route between Lohardaga and Gaya, passing *via* Balumath and Chatra, for transport of local goods as also those from Jashpur and Sarguja to Calcutta. This remained in use till the advent of railways early in the present century.

A traditional route for pilgrims from Bengal to Puri passed through Bankura, Purulia, Ranchi, Keonjhar and Jajpur while that from Palamau through Singhbhum. The bulk of the trade of the district except on roads, was carried on pack-bullocks and long streams of pack-bullocks and pack-ponies were met crossing the hills in the west of the district and bringing to the rail-head at Lohardaga or Ranchi the produce of Barwe, Biru and the Feudatory States. Bullock carts were numerous on the metalled roads radiating from Ranchi and much of the trade with the Gaya district and South Bihar was carried in carts along the road to Hazaribagh, instead of the circuitous railway route *via* Purulia and Asansol. For these carts, large bullocks were imported from Bihar, as the small and undersized bullocks of Chota Nagpur could not pull anything heavier than the *sagar*†, the ordinary cart of the district.

The tribals usually carried their goods by means of *bhar* or *banhgi*, a flat elastic wooden or bamboo rod, about four feet long, which was carried on shoulder, the articles being placed in two baskets or nets,

* पीठ पर छौंआ, माथ पर खांची।
जब देखो तो समझो रांची॥

In spite of industrialisation and urbanisation of Ranchi, this scene is still an integral part of rural life.

† A low cart with two solid wheels, built up of three blocks of wood. and capable of traversing the toughest country with a light load.

suspended from the ends. The well-to-do people travelled in *palki* (palanquin), covered bullock carts and by elephants while the rank and file used *sagar* and country ponies.

Road Transport.

Early Survey *.—The British on assuming power directed their attention to surveys for laying lines of communications, both as a matter of military necessity as well as administrative convenience.

A survey of Ramgarh was undertaken by Cameraon, John in 1767. About that time Camac, who was in command of the South-West Frontier, suggested a survey of Chota Nagpur and Palamau and accordingly Carter was deputed by Government to survey the road to Ramgarh. In 1773 Rennel completed the survey of the southern jungles of Chota Nagpur. Lt. Fennell undertook the survey of Ramgarh, Palamau, Chota Nagpur, Tori and Koondah in 1774, but it was not completed till 1777. In 1781, James Stewart ran a traverse from Chatra through Lohardaga, Ratanpur and Khairagarh to Nagpur, besides surveying various other routes. When the Maratha War in 1803 led to the occupation of Sambalpur, Cartwright surveyed the route for the Ramgarh Battalion from Hazaribagh to Sambalpur and subsequently Lt. Sealy suggested a survey from the present station of Hazaribagh through Chota Nagpur and Singhbhum, skirting the western frontier of Bengal and along the course of the rivers Sankh and Bamney (i.e., Brahmani) to Cuttack. Rankin made a survey of a route through Patkaom and Tamar, for the march of the Ramgarh Battalion. In 1803, Smyth completed the survey of strip, about three miles wide, along the western frontier of Chota Nagpur, i.e., the present districts of Palamau and Ranchi. Kewney, Henry surveyed parts of Chota Nagpur in 1832-33. A map of Chota Nagpur and also of the jungle Mahals was prepared by Addiscombe after a survey of the Kol country in 1835-36. By the end of 1837 another map was prepared under the supervision of De Penning showing the route to Ratanpur through Chota Nagpur. In 1838, Samuel Tickell made a plan to survey Doranda and accordingly the Doranda Cantonment was surveyed by Gerld Harney in 1840. Addiscombe, Connoley surveyed the roads of Chota Nagpur in 1845.

Incentive to Development.—On the establishment of the Agency in 1834, roads were constructed from Ranchi to the headquarters of the surrounding districts.

As early as 1839 Ousley, Governor-General's Agent, after making an experiment of growing tea in his own compound had suggested to the

**The Historical Records of the Survey of India by* Col. R. H. Phillimore, Vols. I, II, III and IV.

Government of Bengal that tea could be grown in Chota Nagpur.* This proposal was accepted and several tea and coffee plantations were started in the neighbourhood of Ramgarh and Ranchi. Tea together with other products of economic importance, such as coffee, lac and jungle produce gave encouragement to the development of road communications.

There are certain natural factors common to all parts of Chota Nagpur plateau that have led to the construction of good roads, costing comparatively very little for maintenance, though proving costly initially, the hilly nature of the country, steep gradients of the hills and *ghats*, innumerable hill streams and rapids, etc., stand in the way of construction of roads in this region. As the roads have to pass through and over rocks of varying intensity of hardness which have to be cut and levelled, the cost of first construction is heavy. Further, when the roads have to pass through cuttings in the hills, enormous quantity of water usually flows along the roads during the rains causing erosion in them, and to prevent this embankments have to be constructed for protecting them from such erosion. This causes additional expenditure. When roads have to pass along the sides of hills, cuttings have to be made in the rocks on these sides and the sides of the road falling towards the steep side have to be specially protected. Examples of such cuttings are to be met with in the Ranchi-Hazaribagh road, Ranchi-Netarhat road, Ranchi-Chaibasa road, etc. As compared with roads on plains, the cost of construction of roads on the plain portion of the plateau is small, as only surface levelling has to be done and very little earthwork is necessary. Further, the cost of maintenance of roads on the plateau is smaller as their surfaces, being mostly rocky, are not much subject to erosion. Due to the road gradient and the slope on either side water does not accumulate on the roads, but is carried off to the side. The roads are protected from erosion caused by the moving vehicular traffic although the water running off often forms gullies on either side. With all these advantages this district has been able to construct and maintain a large number of good roads.

The administrative exigencies in the wake of the great revolt of 1857 also gave a spurt to the development of roads. The mineral resources of the district drew the attention of geologists, leading to geological surveys which in turn helped lay alignments of future roadways†.

* Consultation, Revenue Agriculure Department, Agriculture Branch, 24th January, 1839 (No. 21/22).

† The following original maps are preserved in the National Archives of India, New Delhi :—

(1) Chota Nagpur, parts of Lohardaga and Singhbhum, 1853;
(2) Parts of Chota Nagpur Division, 1861-62;
(3) District Lohardaga and Subdivision Palamau, 1863—69 by Col. Vanrenen:
(4) District Lohardaga and Chota Nagpur, 1874;
(5) Portions of Chota Nagpur and Central Provinces.

In 1870, only 175 miles of roads were maintained*. In 1877, the principal roads in the district were†: (*i*) Ranchi to Silli, 39 miles; and (*ii*) Ranchi to Bankheta (northern boundary of the district), 18 miles. There were also the following subsidiary fair-weather roads under local management : (*i*) Ranchi to Chandwa (Palamau), 50 miles; (*ii*) Ranchi to Bandgaon, 34 miles; (*iii*) Lohardaga to Chatra (Hazaribagh), 60 miles; (*iv*) Ranchi to Pithoria, 11 miles; and (*v*) Ranchi to Tilmi, 12 miles.

Under the Road Cess Committee many new roads were constructed, and existing roads were improved, and in 1888 there were 700 miles of road, many of which were only fair-weather tracts. The improvement of the communications had been carried on by the District Board. But the small resources of the District Board were no match for the vast area of the district and the metalled roads connecting Ranchi with the neighbouring districts had to be maintained at the cost of Government. By 1910 the Public Works Department maintained 129 miles of metalled road which opened up the north-west, north-east and south of the district. The District Board was responsible for the roads connecting Ranchi with the subdivisional headquarters at Gumla and with the west and south-west of the district, and also for the feeder roads to the railway. In all 901 miles of roads, including village roads, were maintained, all of which, except for a few miles near Ranchi, were unmetalled. The more important roads were surfaced with red gravel (morum), but the majority were merely tracks over the highlands with drains cut on either side and brick or wooden culverts for drainage purposes**.

In 1910, the following roads were maintained by the Public Works Department‡:—

(1) Ranchi-Purulia, 74½ miles (38½ miles in the district);
(2) Ranchi-Hazaribagh, 58 miles (20 miles in the district);
(3) Ranchi-Chaibasa, 88 miles (38 miles in this district) and (4) Ranchi-Daltonganj, 36¾ miles in the district.

Due to the opening of Ranchi-Lohardaga section of narrow gauge line, the importance of Ranchi-Daltonganj road was somewhat reduced, but later, exploitation of forests and minerals in Palamau added to the importance of this road. The Ranchi-Hazaribagh road, now National Highway connecting Ranchi with Patna and also Bihar with Orissa was a favourite route of motorists from Calcutta who took off the Grand Trunk Road at Bagodar to reach Hazaribagh. The mineral exploitation in the neighbourhood of Ramgarh also added to the development of this road.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 175.

† W. W. Hunter: *A Statistical Account of Bengal, Vol. XVI* (1877), pp. 411-12.

** *Ibid*, *pp.* 177—79.

‡ M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 175.

In early years a number of important roads like Ranchi-Chaibasa, Ranchi-Simdega *via* Basia and Gumla, Ranchi-Daltonganj, etc., did not have proper bridges over streams and rivers. Till 1940 Simdega could not be reached in the rainy season by road from Ranchi or Gumla as many of the intersecting streams in between Gumla and Simdega had no proper bridges*.

The present main road of Ranchi town was in existence in the early part of the present century, but the traffic on this was so light that the entire road from the Head Post Office up to Doranda used to present a deserted look. From the Ranchi Club up to the bridge on the river Harmu, there was hardly any habitation on either side of it.

Vehicles and Conveyances.—In the early part of the present century, as usual, pack-bullocks, pack-ponies and bullock carts continued to provide the transport in the countryside though *palki* or *dolis* were also occasionally seen. There were no *ekkas, phaetons,* cycle-rickshaws, cars or taxis plying as public vehicles. A heavy hand-pulled rickshaw, driven by two men, was seen in the street of Ranchi town. The "Camel Carts" services were plying between Ranchi and Bundu, Khunti, Tamar, Ratu, etc. They were actually bullock carts with palanquin-like bodies running to schedules. But the most characteristic vehicle of the district was the "Push-Push", which was the only mode of conveyance for journeys of 75 miles between Ranchi and Purulia, and even with fresh relays of coolies every eight mile, the journey under the most favourable circumstances could seldom be performed in less than twenty hours. In the 1880s visitors to Ranchi from Calcutta had an even longer journey in this uncomfortable conveyance, as the route from Calcutta was by rail to Giridih, and thence by road through Dumri, Bagodar and Hazaribagh. Since the opening of the railway between Purulia and Ranchi, the "Push-Push" was rapidly becoming a relic of the past.

There was only a narrow gauge railway line connecting Ranchi with Purulia at one end and Lohardaga at the other. Trains ran very slow on this line, covering a distance of about 75 miles between Ranchi and Purulia in nine hours.

The first bus service between Ranchi and Hazaribagh was introduced in 1920 and it covered the distance of 58 miles in six hours. By 1930s fast moving vehicles began to replace the slow moving ones and the Second World War (1939–45) unexpectedly accelerated the pace of development when new feeder roads were constructed and old ones were improved and black-topped to facilitate easy movement of heavy military vehicles, stationed all over the district to meet the eventuality of the Japanese attack from the east.

* Now bridges have been provided. This improvement has brought in a large number of passenger buses and trucks on these roads.

By 1950s motor cars, trucks and jeeps became very common everywhere. In the wake of industrialisation in post-1960 era they have become rather too numerous. The public carrier or privately-owned trucks now call at the remotest village *hats*. Cycle-rickshaws and taxis have multiplied in the last decade. In peak hours the *kutchery* road and the main road of Ranchi town, up to the railway crossing present an enormous slow moving mass of conveyances, not without potential hazards to pedestrians and causing frequent traffic jams.

Present System of Roads.

Types of roads.—The present roads of this district may roughly be classified as (*i*) metalled with black top, (*ii*) metalled and (*iii*) non-metalled, including morum surfaced and *katcha* roads. There is no cement-concrete public road.

Category of roads.—This district has the following categories of roads: (*i*) National Highways, (*ii*) State Highways, (*iii*) Zila Parishad Roads, (*iv*) Municipal Roads, (*v*) Village Roads, (*vi*) Forest Roads and (*vii*) Hill Paths. These categories are based on specification of construction, cost, agency of execution, economic and strategic importance of the area of operation, etc.

National Highways.

Ranchi-Hazaribagh road (Part of National Highway no. 31.)—This road is an old one, now forming part of the National Highway no. 31, which connects Ranchi with Patna *via* Hazaribagh. About twenty miles of this road fall within the Ranchi district. It also links Ranchi with Calcutta meeting Grand Trunk Road at Barhi and also North Bihar *via* Barauni and Assam *via* Purnea. It is one of the most important roads in Bihar and favourite to the motorists. It serves a number of collieries in Ramgarh areas and also the locality of Thermal Power Station at Patratu (Hazaribagh). A large volume of vehicular traffic passes on this road everyday both from and to Jamshedpur, Rourkela and Hatia. It passes through a section of *ghats* in Chutupalu hills, which command a picturesque view of the country. Two modest Bungalows of P.W.D., Chutupalu and Ormanjhi, are on this highway, falling in this district.

Ranchi-Bahragora National Highway no. 33.—Seventy-five miles of this National Highway fall within the Ranchi district. Passing through Namkum, Rampur, Bundu and Tamar it touches Chandil, Jamshedpur, Ghatsila and meets the Calcutta-Bombay National Highway at Bahragora (Singhbhum). Thus it links Ranchi with Calcutta *via* Kharagpur and also Bombay. Formerly, the journey between Ranchi and Jamshedpur was *via* Chaibasa, covering a distance of 128.6 miles and traversing dangerous *ghats* over a distance of 22 miles. It has now been reduced by 53.6 miles through this direct route.

State Highways.

Public Works Department roads.—The Public Works Department in the district has the following three divisions for maintenance of roads : (*i*) Ranchi Division I, (*ii*) Ranchi Construction Division I and (*iii*) Ranchi Construction Division II.

Roads under Ranchi P. W. D. Division I.—The Ranchi Division I maintains National Highways consisting of 59½ miles of National Highway-metalled road and also 86¾ miles of unmetalled under the Five-Year Plans. The following roads totalling 222¾ miles State Highway in length are under its control.

Silli-Banta Hajam-Muri road.—This road was sponsored under the Five-Year Plan Fund. It is 23 miles in length within Ranchi district and serves the locality of Gola (Hazaribagh), Silli, Banta Hajam and Pandudih (near Singhbhum district border).

Khunti-Tamar road.—This road was sponsored under the Five-Year Plan Fund. It is 27½ miles in length, gravelled and connects Ranchi town with Khunti, Tamar and Bundu.

Itki-Sissai-Gumla road.—This road was sponsored under the Five-Year Plan Fund. 36¼ miles of this road falls under this division and is *kutcha*. It connects Itki and Sissai with Gumla.

Ranchi-Purulia road.—This old road, now a State Highway, connects Ranchi town with Purulia. It is metalled and black-topped. 39 miles of this road falls within Ranchi district and 35 miles beyond Muri and up to Purulia in West Bengal. The surface of this road is smooth and the gradient of the *ghat* portion easy enough to permit pleasant drive to Purulia.

Ranchi-Itki road.—This is part of Ranchi-Gumla road *via* Bero, 13 miles in length up to Itki being metalled. It connects Ranchi town with Itki Sanitorium.

Namkum-Doranda road.—This road is black-topped and is four miles in length. It connects Doranda town with Namkum Military Camp.

Ranchi-Pithoria road.—This is 5¼ miles long black-topped road connecting Ranchi town with the Indian Mental Hospital, Kanke and Veterinary College, Kanke.

Doranda Cantonment road.—It is one mile in length and is black-topped. It circles round the Bihar Military Police Line, Doranda and connects it with Ranchi town.

Link Road between Ranchi-Purulia and Ranchi-Hazaribagh road.—It is a black-topped road of 4½ miles and connects the Ranchi-Hazaribagh road with the Purulia road.

Muri Feeder road.—It is black-topped and ½ mile in length connecting Muri Railway Station to Ranchi-Purulia Highway.

Old Hazaribagh road.—It is black-topped and 2½ miles in length joining the main road of Ranchi with the Ranchi Railway Station.

Ranchi-Chaibasa road.—This is a continuation of Hazaribagh-Ranchi National Highway. The importance of this road has increased owing to the rapid industrialisation of the district. It connects Ranchi town with Khunti, Murhu and Chakradharpur (Singhbhum). This road passes through *ghats* over a stretch of 22 miles, abounding in rich natural scenery.

Town roads.—The important roads in Ranchi town are Kutchery road, around Government House, Booty Road, Circular Road, etc. All are black-topped.

Construction Division no. I, Ranchi.—The Ranchi Construction Division no. I of the Public Works Department has a total length of 343¼ miles of roads, of which 274 miles are metalled and the rest are under improvement.

Kuru-Gumla-Simdega-Birmitrapur road.—This is a portion of Ranchi-Lohardaga-Gumla-Simdega-Birmitrapur road. The Bihar portion of the road, 121 miles in length, ends at Bansjor and connects this district with Rourkella (Orissa). It passes through two subdivisional headquarters, Gumla and Simdega and some of the thana headquarters, such as Lohardaga, Ghagra, Gumla, Palkot, Kolebira, Simdega and Thethaitangar. This is a black-topped road and gaining progressively in vehicular traffic.

Khunti-Torpa-Kolebira road.—It starts from Khunti and joins Ranchi-Gumla-Simdega road at the 108 mile. It is 51 miles in length, *pucca* but under further improvement. It passes through two thana headquarters, namely, Torpa (Khunti) and Basia (Gumla) and Kamdara, an important village of Basia thana.

Bano-Manoharpur road and Kolebira-Bano road.—This is a portion of Kolebira-Bano-Manoharpur and Chaibasa road. Kolebira and Bano portion is under Central Road Fund and Bano-Manoharpur is of State Highway. This is under improvement. When completed, it will be the shortest route from Jamshedpur to Rourkella *via* Bano thana headquarters. The length of Bano-Manoharpur road is 21 miles and of Kolebira-Bano 16 miles.

Ranchi-Netarhat road (from Ghagra).—This road originates from Ghagra and terminates at Netarhat (Palamau). The entire length of 34 miles is *pucca*. From the Koel bridge on mile 82 the road ascends the Netarhat plateau which has the highest elevation in Ranchi district. It passes through two thana headquarters, namely, Ghagra and Bishunpur.

Kuru-Chandwa road.—It starts from Kuru and continues up to Chandwa where it bifurcates into two roads, one branch going to Daltonganj (Palamau) and the other to Chatra (Hazaribagh). This is a metalled road, the length under this division being only four miles. It passes through Kuru thana in Ranchi district and Chandwa in Palamau district.

Roads over Netarhat plateau.—The length of these roads is only four miles. They are gravelled.

Sissai-Itki-Gumla road.—It is a portion of Ranchi-Itki-Sissai-Gumla road, only 22½ miles being under this division. It is *katcha* and passes through Sissai, the thana headquarters and connects Gumla.

Gumla-Raidih-Chainpur road.—It is a *pucca* road, 31 miles in length. It starts from Gumla and passing through Patratoli, headquarters of Raidih Block, terminates at Chainpur. An arm branches off from this road at 15 mile for Jashpur in Madhya Pradesh and crosses the river Sankh near Majhatoli in Raidih thana.

Dorma-Lapung-Sissai road.—It starts from Dorma at 10 mile of Khunti-Torpa-Kolebira road and at 38 mile of Ranchi-Sissai-Gumla road, and thus provides a connecting link with Lapung thana headquarters, which was inaccessible in not too distant past. It is 29 miles in length and is under improvement.

The Ranchi Division no. II maintains the following roads:—

Ranchi-Daltonganj road.—This is a State Highway, 34 miles being in Ranchi district. It is an old road. It has a heavy traffic due to the industrialisation of both Ranchi and Palamau. It passes through two thana headquarters, viz., Mandar and Kuru in Ranchi district.

Tangar-Khelari road.—This is a State Highway, 14.93 miles long. Only 12 miles of this road are metalled. It connects Khelari Cement Factory with Ranchi town. It passes through jungles and *ghats*.

Khelari-Ray-Tandwa road.—This is a State Highway, about seven miles long connecting Khelari Cement Factory with Tandwa *via* Ray.

Namkum-Tupudana road.—This is a State Highway, 10 miles long. It is *pucca*, connecting Namkum Cantonment area with Ranchi-Chaibasa National Highway.

Ranchi-Bariatu road.—This is a State Highway, 4.3 miles long, all *pucca*. It passes through the junction of Booty road to Medical College, Bariatu and joins Ranchi-Hazaribagh road.

Ranchi-Patratu road.—This is a State Highway, 15.5 miles long. It starts from Kanke and connects Patratu (Hazaribagh), an important Thermal Power Station. When fully constructed, it will be the shortest route between Ranchi and Patratu reducing the distance of 55 miles *via* Ramgarh to about 22 miles *via* Kanke.

Zila Parishad Roads.

The Zila Parishad roads are mainly intended to serve the rural areas. Most of them are very old routes. At present only about 1|6th of the total number of villages in the district are approachable by direct routes. There are about 57 roads under the Zila Parishad, Ranchi. Of them 35.61 miles are metalled, 198.79 miles unmetalled and 291.97 miles *katcha*. Some of the important roads are*:

Ranchi-Palkot road.—It starts from mile 5 of Ranchi-Khunti Public Works Department road, total length being about 50 miles. It is gravelled. The river Subarnarekha at mile 9 is unbridged.

Ranchi-Pithoria road.—It starts from mile 6 of Ranchi-Kanke Public Works Department road. Its total length is about 5½ miles out of which ½ mile is metalled and the rest gravelled. It is not well maintained. The river (Jumar) at mile 6 is unbridged.

Pithoria-Thakurgaon road.—It starts from Pithoria in continuation of Ranchi-Pithoria road and meets Ratu-Murmu road in mile 15 at Thakurgaon. Its total length is 9½ miles, all gravelled, but in a bad state. At mile 2 there is an unbridged river.

Ratu-Burmu road.—It is gravelled and about 13 miles long. It takes off from mile 7 of Ranchi-Lohardaga Public Works Department road and terminates at Burmu police-station. There is an unbridged river at mile 13. The condition of the road is poor.

Chama-McCluskiegunj road.—It is gravelled and about 9 miles long. It takes off from mile 29 of Ranchi-Bijupara-Khelari Public Works Department road and terminates at Booth's Farm. This is a fair weather road.

Choreyatoli-Ratu road.—It starts from mile 6 of Ranchi-Palkot road and terminates near Ratu Block office, meeting at Ratu-Burmu road in mile 7. Its total length is about 11 miles out of which about 1¼ miles are metalled and the rest gravelled. It is in indifferent shape.

* Source.—Zila Parishad Office, Ranchi.

Club-Daladali road.—It starts from Ranchi near the railway crossing, length being about 7 miles. It has bridges and is drained throughout. It is gravelled and in indifferent shape.

Daladali-Piska road.—This is a gravelled road, about 3½ miles long. It starts from mile 13 of Choreyatoli-Ratu road and terminates at Piska after crossing Ranchi-Gumla road in mile 8. All culverts are *pucca* with stone slab.

Ranchi-Argora road.—It starts from Ranchi, about 1½ miles being under Ranchi Municipality. The rest, about 2 miles, are under the District Board. The District Board portion begins from the Harmu causeway. This road meets Club-Daladali road in mile 4 and terminates there. It is partly gravelled and partly *katcha.*

Chutia-Namkum road.—This is partly *katcha* and partly gravelled, the total length being about 1½ miles. It starts from village Chutia and terminates at Namkum.

Tupudana-Birmad road.—This is *katcha,* about 1¼ miles long. It starts from mile 9 of Ranchi-Khunti Public Works Department road.

Bargaon-Tupudana road.—This is gravelled, about 1 mile long. It takes off from mile 3 of Ranchi-Namkum-Bundu road and meets Namkum-Doranda road *via* Chagra.

Ranchi-Dirdeg road.—It starts from Ranchi near the Morhabadi hill, length being 15½ miles, out of which the first two miles are under Ranchi Municipality. It is gravelled, having two unbridged rivers one in mile 4 and the other in mile 6.

Nagri-Lodma road.—This is gravelled, seven miles long. It starts from village Nagri in mile 10 of Ranchi-Gumla road *via* Bero and terminates at Lodhma in mile 15 of Ranchi-Palkot road. There is one unbridged *nulllah* in mile 7. All other culverts are *pucca* with stone slab.

Karra-Khunti road.—This is gravelled, about 12 miles long, but in bad shape, particularly at miles 11 and 12. It starts from Khunti in mile 24 and meets Ranchi-Palkot road at Karra. There is an unbridged river named Chatti in mile 2. This is a fair-weather road.

Khunti-Bustee road.—This is *katcha,* about ½ mile long, and confined to Khunti town.

Khunti-Burju road.—This is *katcha,* about 4¼ miles long. It takes off from Ranchi-Khunti-Chaibasa road and terminates at Burju. This is in a bad shape.

Gundu-Torar road.—This is a *katcha* about 1½ miles long. It takes off from mile 11 of Ranchi-Khunti road and terminates at Torar. Its condition is not fair.

Kundu-Sorar road.—This is *katcha,* about 2½ miles long, having several unbridged rivers and *nullah.* It takes off from mile 14 of Ranchi-Chaibasa road. Its condition is not good.

Bundu-Silli road.—This is partly gravelled and partly *katcha.* It starts from Bundu and terminates at Silli on Ranchi-Purulia road. About five miles of this road from Silli side have been provincialised and a stretch of about ¼ mile in Bundu Bazar improved out of Government grant.

Bundu-Sonahatu road.—The road takes off from mile 1½ of Bundu-Silli road. This is partly *katcha* and partly gravelled, 7 miles long. It is in bad shape.

Kedal-Rudia road.—This takes off from mile 51 of Hazaribagh-Ranchi road and terminates at the gate of Birla Institute of Technology. Its total length is about 2½ miles, the first mile being gravelled and the rest metalled.

Chakla-Gola road.—This takes off from mile 46 of Hazaribagh-Ranchi road and after crossing the district boundary, proceeds to Gola in Hazaribagh district. The 1st to 5th mile is metalled and the rest gravelled and in a bad shape.

Ormanjhi-Maheshpur road.—This takes off from Ranchi-Hazaribagh road at 45th mile at Ormanjhi and terminates at Maheshpur, meeting Angara-Hundrughagh road at mile 4. This is *katcha,* length being about 4½ miles.

Silli Railway Feeder road.—This is metalled, about ½ mile long. It takes off from Ranchi-Purulia road in 39th mile and terminates at the Silli Railway Station.

Jonha-Gurudih fall road.—It takes off from mile 52 of Ranchi-Purulia road. It is black-topped and about 2½ miles long, but not in good condition. It terminates at the top of the hill from where foot track starts for the Jonha falls.

Bero-Lohardaga road.—It starts from mile 22 of Ranchi-Gumla road and terminates at Lohardaga, total length being about 24 miles. Mile 22 to 29 is gravelled and the rest *katcha.* It has three small unbridged *nullahs* and one big unbridged river. Culverts in mile 30 are all *pucca.* The condition of the road is bad.

Kaimo-Chapi road.—This is *katcha,* about eight miles long. It takes off from mile 45 of Ranchi-Lohardaga road. The condition of the road is bad.

Basia-Sissai road.—This is *katcha,* about 23 miles long. It starts from Basia police-station from mile 52 of Ranchi-Palkot road and meets Ranchi-Gumla road at Sissai in mile 41. It has several unbridged *nullahs* and rivers and is in bad shape.

Gobindpur-Sissai road.—It is *katcha,* 15 miles long. It starts from Gobindpur and meets Ranchi-Gumla road in mile 37 near Sissai. Its condition is bad.

Dorma-Gobindpur road.—This is partly *katcha* and partly gravelled. It starts from Dorma in mile 9 of Khunti-Kamdara road and terminates at Gobindpur after crossing Ranchi-Palkot road at mile 31.

Simdega-Kurdeg road.—This is *katcha,* about 28 miles long. Its improvement was taken up under Second Five-Year Plan and all minor culverts have been completed. The road surface is bad, but jeepable during fair weather.

Simdega-Rangari road.—It takes off from mile 4 of Simdega-Kurdeg road and terminates at Rangari-Kurdeg road. It is parlty gravelled and partly *katcha,* total length being about 10½ miles. Some culverts have been improved out of welfare grant. It has two big and one small unbridged *nullah* and is motorable only during fair weather.

Thethaitangar-Bolba road.—It takes off from the Public Works Department Road to Birmitrapur from mile 135 and terminates at Bolba police-station, total length being about 12 miles. It is partly *katcha* and partly gravelled. It has six small unbridged *nullahs* and also the unspanned river Chhinda. The Public Works Department have taken up construction of all the minor culverts up to 12 miles.

Joram-Deobahar road.—It takes off from 13 mile of Public Works Department road and ends at Deobahar, its total length under the Zila Parishad being about five miles. It is gravelled and not in good shape.

Biru-Karanga road.—It starts from village Biru at mile 119 of Ranchi-Gumla-Simdega road and meets Simdega-Kurdeg road in mile 7. This is *katcha,* about 10¼ miles long. The unbridged rivers Sankh and Palamada cut across this road. It is not in good shape.

Tamra-Simdega road.—This is *katcha,* about 2½ miles long. It starts from Simdega and terminates at village Tamra. It is intervened by an unbridged *nullah,* and is jeepable during fair weather only.

Municipal Roads.

The municipalities, viz., Ranchi and Lohardaga and the Notified Area Committee at Doranda maintain the following roads in their respective jurisdiction*:—

Municipality/N. A. C.	Total mileage of road.	Classification of roads.	
		Katcha (in miles).	Pucca (in miles.)
Ranchi	139.07	85.36	53.71
Lohardaga	12	7	5
Doranda Notified Area Committee	11.67	10	1.67

Village Roads.

Some 470 miles of new village roads have been constructed by *gram panchayats* in the district. They have also repaired 782 miles of old roads. The Welfare Department has also constructed 78 miles of village roads and hill pathway in 1962-63 and 24 miles in 1963-64.

Forest Roads.

The Forest Department has constructed the following fair-weather roads, length being about 434 miles†. They are mainly to help develop the forest resources of the district:—

Serial no.	Name of road.	Length in miles.
1	Bagru-Pesrar road	12
2	Chainpur-Pesrar road	4
3	Pesrar-Pahardamu road	6
4	Pundag-Mungo road	8
5	Mungo-Barchorgain road	8
6	Pakhar-Jawakhar road	4
7	Mungo-Manhepat road	5
8	Kisko-Semardih road	3
9	Murhu-Birbanki road	22
10	Churgi-Tapkara road	5
11	Tapkara-Lohajimi road	6
12	Taimara-Dasamfall road	6
13	Arra-Horhap road	4

*Source.—Deputy Commissioner Office, Ranchi.

†Source.—Chief Conservator of Forests, Ranchi.

Serial no.	Name of road.	Length in miles.
14	Horhap-Lali-Heslatoli road	8
15	Silwai-Bongai road	5
16	Horhap-Heslabera road	3
17	Umedanda-Hendigir road	5
18	Burmu-Rai road	10
19	Burmu-Mandar road	10
20	Chora-Patkoi-Piragutu road	10
21	Makha-Umedanda road	4
22	Tailea Kandir-Kuria road	9
23	Erki-Doraiya road	7
24	Jonha-Tati-Sorso road	10
25	Silli-Losera road	6
26	Bagesakhna-Sadmi road	17
27	Banri-Nirasi road	16
28	Labga-Tuimu road	17
29	Gumla-Sibil road	25
30	Kharka-Rajadera road (up to Kurumgarh) ..	14
31	Lodapat-Upper Tendar road	13
32	Jamti-Kumari road	6
33	Adar-Helta-Barpat (Part) road	12
34	Tuima-Chaprong-Garatu road	11
35	Nawatoli-Besna-Gurumgarh road	17
36	Hapad-Nindi-Chaprong road	5
37	Upper Tendar to Lower Tendar road	7
38	Jori-Jamti road	6
39	Bishunpur-Kurumgarh road	18½
40	Banalat-Hapad road	11
41	Narma-Samundari-Champatoli road	11
42	Keodtoli-Sijang road	8
43	Patratoli-Bansdih road	7
44	Chainpur-Dirgaon road	3
45	Kharka-Kurumgarh (from Kurumgarh to Rajadera) road.	20
46	Toto-Anjan road	4½

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The district is not yet adequately provided with road communications. All the thana headquarters are yet to be linked with Ranchi by bus services throughout the year.

In Sadar subdivision McCluskiegunj gets cut off during the rainy season. The hilly portion of Lohardaga and Lapung thanas also have very poor communications.

In Khunti subdivision only Khunti, Bundu and Karra thanas have tolerable roads while the rest, viz., Tamar, Sonahatu, Torpa, Murhu and Erki are still to have them.

In Gumla subdivision only Gumla thana may be considered to be well provided with roads. The villages in Chainpur, Basia, Sissai, Bishunpur, Ghagra, Raidih and Palkot thanas require further extension of roads.

In Simdega subdivision road communications are generally very poor. Only Simdega and Kolebira thanas have some roads. The remaining four thanas, viz., Bano, Bolba, Kurdeg and Thethaitangar badly lack them. With the opening of Ranchi-Bondamunda broad gauge section of the South-Eastern Railway, which passes through Kolebira and Bano thanas, it is expected that these thanas may get an incentive to develop roads.

Vehicles and Conveyances.

The common conveyance on roads at present are bullock carts, pack-animals, ponies, cycles, cycle-rickshaws, *thelas* (platform on wheels), motor cycles, scooters, motor cars, taxis, buses and trucks. Bullock carts still continue as the main conveyance for transport of grains and goods in the remote interior of the district. The total number of bullock carts in the district cannot accurately be ascertained. The number of registered cycles, cycle-rickshaws and bullock carts within the Ranchi Municipality and the Doranda Notified Area Committee in 1963-64 are given below*:—

Municipality/N. A. C.	Cycles.	Cycle-rickshaws.	Bullock carts.
Ranchi Municipality	6,607	2,222	229
Doranda Notified Area Committee	1,491	252	7

* Source.—Offices of Ranchi Municipality and Doranda Notified Area Committee.

The statement below shows the number of cars and jeeps, buses, trucks, motor cycles and scooters, taxis and trailors and tractors registered in the district during five years ending 1962*:—

Year.	Car.	Bus.	Truck.	Motor cycle and scooter.	Taxi.	Miscellaneous (Tractors and Trailors).	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1958 ..	1,194	176	1,276	569	3	182	3,400
1959 ..	1,275	191	1,496	650	9	292	3,910
1960 ..	1,403	205	2,006	701	20	412	4,738
1961 ..	1,568	234	2,602	782	36	597	5,799
1962 ..	1,959	257	3,570	989	132	820	7,729

Public Transport.

In order to control public transport (trucks, buses and taxis) there is a statutory body named Chota Nagpur Regional Transport Authority in Ranchi which issues permits to vehicles and also prescribes their areas of operation, routes and timings in Chota Nagpur Division. This Authority works under the Government Transport Department, Bihar.

The statistics below show the number of permits issued for different kinds of motor vehicles in the Ranchi district since 1959 to 1963 and also the permits valid up to 31st December, 1963:—

Description of vehicles.	Permit issued (in number).					Permit valid up to 31st December 1963 in number.
	1959.	1960.	1961.	1962.	1963.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Public carriers ..	265	330	445	585	422	1,826
Private carriers ..	38	37	63	60	74	330
Taxi cabs ..	12	22	38	77	35	145

A number of routes including destination have been allotted both to Bihar State Road Transport Corporation and the private operators to run passenger buses.

*Source.—Police Office, Ranchi.

The Bihar State Road Transport Corporation runs a number of passenger buses from Ranchi to Khunti, Gumla, Simdega, Muri, Lohardaga, Hatia, Kanke, Ratu, Mesra, Hinoo, Khijri, Kuru, Tori, Basia, Palkot, Bano, Chainpur, Hundru Fall, Netarhat, Hazaribagh, Chaibasa, Giridih and Dhanbad.

Besides, the following inter-State and inter-regional bus services are also run by the Bihar State Road Transport Corporation in the district:—

Route.	Distance (in miles).	Number of service trip each way.
Ranchi-Patna	210	3
Patna-Tatanagar *via* Ranchi	334	1
Ranchi-Gaya	144	7
Ranchi-Bihar	160	1
Ranchi-Aurangabad	144	1
Ranchi-Tatanagar *via* Chaibasa	124	4
Ranchi-Barauni	225	3
Ranchi-Muzaffarpur	300	1
Ranchi-Deoghar	200	2
Ranchi-Bhagalpur	274	2
Ranchi-Dumka	204	2

The following inter-State and inter-regional services are also run by private operators in the district:—

Route.	Distance (in miles).	Number of service trip in each way.
Ranchi-Purulia-Tatanagar	130	1
Ranchi-Purulia	75	5
Ranchi-Purulia-Chas-Dhanbad	135	1
Ranchi-Bansjor-Birmitrapur	155	3
Ranchi-Dhanbad *via* Chas	120	2
Ranchi-Tulin	42	1
Muri Railway Station-Purulia	35	1
Muri Railway Station-Dhanbad *via* Jhalda	92	1
Ranchi-Gumla-Jashpur	110	1
Tori Railway Station-Jashpur	90	1
Ranchi-Ramanujganj-Daltonganj	Not available	1

Besides these, the Orissa Government runs two bus services up and down daily from Rourkella to Ranchi.

Private operators also run a number of passenger buses throughout the district.

The number of passengers travelling by Bihar State Road Transport Corporation buses in 1963-64 was 88,32,789 in the Ranchi Division. The increase in the number of passengers is partially due to the expansion of the bus routes. The rapid industrialisation and urbanisation of the area has also brought in more turnover of passengers.

Most of the routes have been nationalised, but there are certain partially nationalised routes where both private and State buses ply. Normally the fare charged by private buses is lower. State buses only stop at fixed places while private buses may stop on demand anywhere. Taxis shared by passengers run in competition with buses, but are usually overcrowded.

Railways.

Purulia-Ranchi Branch (narrow gauge) of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway (now South-Eastern Railway) was the first railway line begun in 1905 and was opened by Sir Andrew Fraser, Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, on 14 November, 1907. This made Ranchi easily accessible from Calcutta and elsewhere. There were six intermediate stations between Ranchi and Purulia, those at Tatisilwai, Ganga Ghat, Jonha and Silli being within the district boundaries. The journey from Calcutta to Ranchi could now be accomplished in 14 hours. The extension of the line to Lohardaga was begun in 1911, and was opened for traffic in October, 1913*.

By the end of March, 1927 a broad gauge line was opened from Chandil to Barkakana about 16 miles of which pass through the Ranchi district. On this portion of the line there are three stations, viz., Ray, Khelari and McCluskiegunj in the north-west of the district and one at Muri to the east of Ranchi.

In the post-Independence period the district has been provided with a new broad gauge railway line which connects Ranchi with Patna in the north *via* Muri and Chandrapura and Orissa in the south. The survey of the entire 299 kilometres railway route from Chandrapur in Bihar to Bondamunda in Orissa was completed in May, 1957. This line was constructed in phases. First of all the section between Chandrapura and

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 180.

Muri was completed and opened in 1959. Then the construction of the Muri-Ranchi-Hatia section was taken up. It began in 1958 and was opened in 1960. Then the construction of Hatia-Nawagaon section was taken up in 1960 and was first opened for goods traffic in 1964 and for passengers from 27th December, 1964.

The Chandrapura-Ranchi-Bondamunda line provides an independent route for the movement of coal, iron-ores, limestone and steel ingots between Bokaro, Ranchi, Hatia, Rourkella and Bhilai reducing the previous distance by rail between Rourkella and Ranchi by about 115 kilometres. This line is expected to handle seven million metric tons of coal for the steel plants at Bhilai and Rourkella and four million metric tons of iron-ore for the proposed Steel Plant at Bokaro. This line opens up vast tracts of virgin country, rich in minerals, which had remained unexplored for want of transport facilities. It will also bring Adivasis in contact with the world outside.

The total running kilometres of railways in this district is about 296 out of which 227 running kilometres are broad gauge and 69 running kilometres are narrow gauge. The broad gauge line between Muri and Ranchi has completely replaced the narrow gauge between these two places but the narrow gauge line between Ranchi and Lohardaga still exists.

In this district, besides the raiway stations, Ray, Khelari and McCluskiegunj on the Eastern Railway and Muri on the South-Eastern Railway, the following stations are located on the broad gauge Chandrapura-Bondamunda section: Muri, Silli, Kita, Barwadag, Gautamdhara, Heslabera, Ganga Ghat, Tatisilwai, Namkum, Ranchi, Hatia, Balasring, Lodhma, Girgaon, Karra, Kotio, Gobindpur, Jariagarh, Bakaspur, Pokla, Pakra, Kurkura, Mahuang, Bano, Kanarana, Barbera, Tanti, Parbatonia and Orga. The distance between Muri and Orga is 210 kilometres. Beyond Orga, this line has the following stations which fall in Orissa: Nawagaon, Bispur, Rangurkela, Bondamunda and Rourkella. By this line the distance between Ranchi and Rourkella comes to 173 kilometres.

The following stations are located on the narrow gauge section (69 Km.) from Ranchi to Lohardaga: Ranchi, Argora, Piska, Itki, Tanger Bansli, Narkopi, Nagjua, Akasi (Halt), Irgaon and Lohardaga.

Passenger and Goods Traffic through Railway

The following statistics indicate inward and outward passenger traffic at Ranchi and Lohardaga Railway Stations of South-Eastern Railway and

those at Ray, Khelari and McCluskiegunj Railway Stations of the Eastern Railway during 1962–64:–

Inward passenger traffic (on average).*

Name of station.	1962.	1963.	1964.
1. Ranchi	21,619	22,086	22,873
2. Lohardaga	3,974	3,070	3,138
3. Ray	Not available	3,018	3,246
4. Khelari	1,880	1,894	1,987
5. McCluskiegunj	341	336	398

Outward passenger traffic (on average).*

Name of station.	1962.	1963.	1964.
1. Ranchi	23,376	37,331	26,426
2. Lohardaga	3,649	3,331	5,255
3. Ray	Not available	5,172	5,479
4. Khelari	3,558	3,365	3,612
5. McCluskiegunj	1,399	1,357	1,408

The present railway map of the district will show that only small bit of the extreme northern portion of the district and that between Muri and Lohardaga could be said to be well served by railways. The Ranchi-Orga portion of Ranchi-Bondamunda section cuts the district into two halves in a south-westerly direction from Ranchi as its starting points. This section is primarily meant for carrying minerals and the manufactured plants and machineries at Hatia and will have increasing importance as the Bokaro Steel Plant will develop. This section will also improve the agricultural economy of the area.

But a vast area of the district on either side of Ranchi-Orga section remains absolutely uncovered by any railway system. The bulk of the area in Khunti, Gumla and Simdega subdivisions have no railway system. The Ranchi-Orga section touches only a fringe of Gumla and Simdega

* SOURCE.—Station Masters (Ranchi, Lohardaga, Ray, Khelari and McCluskiegunj Railway Stations).

subdivisions. There is no direct rail link with Madhya Pradesh. The difficult jungly terrain and consequent huge initial expenditure stand in the way of opening up further railway communication in near future. There is, however, ample scope for the extension of further railway facilities for exploiting the natural resources of the district. The replacement of the narrow gauge line between Ranchi and Lohardaga by one of broad gauge will greatly add to the economy of bauxite industry by carrying ores direct to Muri Plant from Lohardaga.

RAIL-ROAD COMPETITION AND REGULATION OF TRANSPORT.

In this district roads run from Muri to Ranchi and Ranchi to Lohardaga, parallel to the railway lines between Muri and Lohardaga. Railways deal mainly with materials and minerals in bulk needed for the big industrial undertakings, which road vehicles carry commodities consisting of general merchandise for traders. There is not much of competition between railways and roadways in this respect. There is also no competition in passenger traffic cutting each other's custom. Both railway passenger trains and buses are nearly always overcrowded, and so one supplements the other.

WATERWAYS.

There are no rivers or navigable canals in the district. The larger rivers are crossed during the rains in *donga,* a primitive longish boat constructed of the hollowed-out trunk of a tree and propelled with long bamboo poles. Lodhna is the only ferry *ghat* on the river Sankh at village Ketkeya in Chainpur *anchal* of Gumla subdivision. It is maintained by the Revenue Department.

AIR TRANSPORT.

Ranchi has an aerodrome at Hinoo. It is maintained by the Central Public Works Department. The Indian Air Lines Corporation operates scheduled services four days a week, viz., Sunday, Monday, Wednesday and Friday, connecting Ranchi with Patna, Jamshedpur and Calcutta. This service is also linked with Kathmandu from Patna. This service is developing with the progressive industrialisation of Ranchi.

The length of the runway of this aerodrome is 9,000 feet. It is *pucca* and fenced. This aerodrome is also used by Government planes, and those belonging to the Hindustan Steel Limited (which has two planes of its own housed in a hanger in the aerodrome) and other bodies and private individauls. Such planes are subject to instructions issued by the control tower. Private planes are allowed to use the landing

ground on payment of charges leviable under the rules. This aerodrome is controlled by an Assistant Technical Officer in charge of aerodrome and communications.

There is a landing ground at Gumla with a *katcha* runway of about 1,500 feet. It is fenced and is maintained by the Public Works Department. It is not on any scheduled route. Only small Government planes use it in fair weather.

Ropeway.

There is only one ropeway, nine miles long, in the district connecting the bauxite mines at Bagru with Lohardaga. It belongs to the Indian Aluminium Company and carries bauxite ores from the mines at Bagru hills to Lohardaga Railway Station.

Travel and Tourist Facilities.

Dharmashala.—Ranchi town has four *dharmashalas,* namely (*i*) Jain *dharmashala* (opposite Jain temple); (*ii*) Brahman *dharmashala;* (*iii*) Bhim Rai Bansidhar *dharmashala* and (*iv*) Bhuru Mal *dharmashala.*

Hotels.—One of the oldest hotels in Ranchi is the South-Eastern Railway hotel (previously known as B. N. Railway Hotel), situated near Ranchi Railway Station. It is a modern hotel maintained in western style and is managed by the South-Eastern Railway administration.

Besides, there are some fairly good hotels, kept in Indian style, which cater for both non-vegetarian and vegetarian meals. Industrialisation of Ranchi has given a fillip to the growth of hotel business.

Restaurants.—Among the restaurants in Ranchi town the following may be mentioned: (*i*) Pintoo Bar and Restaurant, Main Road, (*ii*) Nu Dine, Main Road; (*iii*) Delhi Restaurant, Main Road and (*iv*) Sudershan, Main Road. The bars are multiplying all over the town.

Circuit Houses.—Ranchi town has two Circuit Houses, one old and the other new, on Circular Road. Gumla has also one.

Inspection Bungalows, etc.—There are following Inspection Bungalows and rest houses in Ranchi town: (*i*) P. W. D. Inspection Bungalow on Circular Road; (*ii*) P. W. D. Rest House, Doranda; (*iii*) Electricity Department Rest House, Doranda; (*iv*) Forest Rest House, Doranda. Besides, N.C.D.C., H.E.C. and Hindusthan Steel Ltd. maintain their Guest Houses.

Besides, there are Dak and Inspection Bungalows and Rest Houses dispersed all over the district. Their names and location are given below:—

Serial no.	Name.	Classification.	Location.
		P. W. D. BUNGALOWS.	
1	Opa ..	.. Inspection Bungalow	Opa.
2	Angara ..	.. Ditto	Angara.
3	Ormanjhi ..	.. Ditto	Ormanjhi.
4	Chutupalu ..	.. Ditto	Chutupalu.
5	Khunti ..	.. Ditto	Khunti.
6	Murhu ..	.. Rest Shed	.. Murhu.
7	Tamar ..	.. Ditto	Tamar.
8	Lohardaga ..	.. Inspection Bungalow	.. Lohardaga.
9	Gumla ..	.. Ditto	Gumla.
10	Simdega ..	.. Ditto	Simdega.
11	Banki ..	.. Rest Shed	.. Banki.
12	Solga ..	.. Ditto	Solga.
13	Torpa ..	.. Inspection Bungalow	.. Torpa.
14	Kamdara ..	.. Rest Shed	.. Kamdara.
15	Adar ..	.. Ditto	Adar.
16	Chainpur ..	.. Inspection Bungalow	.. Chainpur.
17	Kassir ..	.. Rest Shed	.. Kassir.
18	Bano ..	.. Inspection Bungalow	.. Bano.
19	Banari ..	.. Ditto	Banari.
20	Netarhat ..	.. Ditto	Netarhat.
		ZILA PARISHAD BUNGALOWS.	
1	Hundrughagh ..	.. Inspection Bungalow no. I	Hundrughagh.
2	Hundrughagh ..	.. Ditto no. II	Hundrughagh.
3	Simdega ..	.. Ditto	.. Simdega.
4	Lohardaga ..	.. Ditto	Lohardaga.
5	Bundu ..	.. Ditto	Bundu.
6	Gumla ..	.. Ditto	Gumla.
7	Jaria ..	.. Ditto	Jaria.
8	Sissai ..	.. Ditto	Sissai.
9	Bero ..	.. Ditto	Bero.
10	Chama ..	.. Inspection Hut	.. Chama.
11	Lodhma ..	.. Ditto	Lodhma.
12	Bhandra ..	.. Ditto	Bhandra.
13	Karangagari ..	.. Ditto	Karangagari.

Serial no.	Name.	Classification.	Location.
		FOREST BUNGALOW.	
1	Tamar ..	.. Rest House	.. Tamar.
2	Dasamfalls ..	.. Ditto	.. Dasamfalls.
3	Mandar ..	.. Ditto	.. Mandar.
4	Kuru ..	.. Ditto	.. Kuru.
5	Dulli ..	.. Ditto	.. Dulli.
6	Burmu ..	.. Ditto	.. Burmu.
7	Pakhar ..	.. Ditto	.. Pakhar.
8	Pesrar ..	.. Ditto	.. Pesrar.
9	Horhap ..	.. Ditto	.. Horhap.
10	Jamti ..	.. Ditto	... Jamti.
11	Netarhat ..	.. Ditto	.. Netarhat.
12	Rajadera ..	.. Ditto	.. Rajadera.
13	Kurumgarh ..	.. Ditto	.. Kurumgarh.
14	Basia ..	.. Ditto	.. Basia.
15	Chainpur ..	.. Ditto	.. Chainpur.
16	Kolebira ..	.. Ditto	.. Kolebira.
17	Kurdeg ..	.. Ditto	.. Kurdeg.
18	Sadani ..	.. Ditto	.. Sadani.
19	Raidih ..	.. Ditto	.. Raidih.

All these bungalows, rest sheds and huts are available to Government officials as well as non-officials on certain fixed charges. The Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi, reserves accommodation in Circuit Houses; the P. W. D. Executive Engineer concerned in P. W. D. bungalows and sheds and the District Engineer in Zila Parishad bungalows and huts.

Postal Communications.

In 1914-15 there were 35 post offices in the district, including one head office, 11 sub-offices and 23 branch offices, and 475 miles of postal communication. The average number of postal articles delivered weekly was 38,000, while the value of money orders issued in 1914-15 was Rs. 17,33,315 and of money orders paid was Rs. 8,71,910. 694 accounts had been opened in the Savings Banks, the deposits amounting to Rs. 1,65,834 in the year 1914-15. There were six combined post and telegraph offices in the district. The number of messages despatched was 17,905 in 1911-12 before Ranchi became the headquarters of the Local Government and 73,856 in 1914-15.*

In 1963-64 the number of post offices increased to 346 including one head post office, 53 sub-post offices and 292 branch post offices. Out of these 137 post offices were doing Savings Banks' business. The total length of the postal communication in 1964 was 1,198 miles, of which 251 miles were served by Railway Mail Service, 485 miles by Motor Service and 462 miles by runners.

The sub-post offices were located at : A. G. office, Hinoo, Agriculture College, Kanke, Bundu, Chainpur, Chuta, Muri, Church Road, Chutia, Doranda, Dhurwa, Gumla, Ghagra, Hatia. Hehal, H. E. C. P. O., H.E.C. Apprentice Hostel, H.E.C. Colony, H.E.C. Expert Hostel, Hindpiri, Hindustan Steel Colony, Hinoo, Itki, Kanke, Kantatoli, Karra, Khunti, Kolebira, Kuru, Lohardaga, Lohardaga Bazar, Ranchi Lower Bazar, Mandar, Ranchi Medical College, Mesra, Morabadi, Namkum, N.C.D.C., Huri, Vikas Vidyalaya, Netarhat, Nibaranpur, Ormanjhi, Pathalkudua, Ranchi Court, Ranchi Aerodrome, Ratu, Ranchi University, Ranchi Veterinary College, Silli, Simdega, Sissai, Tamar, Thethaitangar, and Ranchi Upper Bazar.

The branch post offices are located mostly in villages near about police-stations and block offices. In all the post offices including branch post offices ordinary postal work including money orders are transacted.

913 villages get tri-weekly deliveries, 224 villages bi-weekly deliveries, and 346 villages weekly deliveries. But the villages which have post offices attached to them get delivery daily.

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 182.

The following statistics indicate the average weekly postal business done in 1960-61, 1961-62, 1962-63 and 1963-64*:—

	1960-61.	1961-62.	1962-63.	1963-64.
1. Average weekly number of articles delivered ..	60,889	79,685	96,933	1,90,879
2. Average weekly number and amount of money order issued—				
Number	7,863	7,450	6,879	10,415
Value .. .. .. Rs.	4,92,980	Rs. 3,41,700.75	Rs. 3,88,804.41	Rs. 92,984.02
Commission .. .. Rs.	6,220	Rs. 5,840.36	Rs. 4,566.16	Rs. 7,724.16
3. Average weekly number of amount of money order paid—				
Number	4,379	4,638	4,621	4,938
Value .. .. .. Rs.	16,854.53	Rs. 1,88,514.53	Rs. 2,13,229.73	Rs. 2,15,700.63
4. Average weekly number and amount of Savings Bank deposits—				
Number	4,379	4,638	4,621	4,938
Amount .. .. .. Rs.	1,68,514.53	Rs. 1,88,533.53	Rs. 2,13,229.73	Rs. 2,15,700.63
5. Average weekly number and amount of Savings Bank withdrawal—				
Number	3,565	4,318	4,458	4,865
Amount .. .. .. Rs.	1,78,230.51	Rs. 1,79,230.51	Rs. 2,10,963.86	Rs. 2,82,766.78
6. Average number and amount of National Savings Certificate issued—				
Number	68	81	328	121
Amount .. .. .. Rs.	14,630	Rs. 22,640	Rs. 2,12,675	Rs. 60,395
7. Average number and amount of National Savings Certificate discharged—				
Number	83	167	131	31
Amount .. .. .. Rs.	4,737.50	Rs. 29,660	Rs. 15,756	Rs. 56,385

*Source.—Postal Department, Ranchi.

Telegraphs and Telephones.

There are 15 telegraph offices in the district. Besides, there are 25 post offices which send and receive telegrams through phones.

The district has the following five telephone exchanges:—

Serial no.	Name of Exchange.	Capacity.	Working connection.
1	Ranchi	1,200	1,065
2	Doranda	480	300
3	Gumla	50	30
4	Silli	25	15
5	Mesra	25	10

Schemes have been sanctioned for opening telephone exchanges at Simdega, Lohardaga, Khunti, Bundu and Dhurwa. Besides, there are 48 public call offices in the different parts of the district.

Radio and Wireless Station.

The All-India Radio has a broadcasting station in Ranchi town.

In 1963 there were 9,915 licensed radio sets in the district. The Public Relations Department of Government had distributed 250 community listening sets till 1964 in rural areas, specially to *panchayats*, libraries and schools.

The army maintains its wireless station to transmit and receive messages for its own purpose.

The police have five wireless stations, viz., at Ranchi Sadar Thana, Ranchi Kotwali Thana, Gumla, Simdega and Khunti meant for administrative purposes only.

Organisations of owners and employees in the field of Transport and Communications.

No such organisations have come to notice in the district.

The employees of railways look to Railwaymen's Association at their district headquarters for the redress of their grievances, if any.

CHAPTER IX.

ECONOMIC TRENDS AND MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

Livelihood Pattern.

The economy of the district is mainly based on agriculture and forest produce which provide the source of livelihood to bulk of the population. It is only in the post-1960 era that industrialisation has made a rapid progress in the district and attracted people from outside. The indigenous population still follows the traditional occupations.

The Census Report of 1951 broadly records the following eight livelihood classes, four being of the agricultural and the remaining four of the non-agricultural category:—

Agricultural Classes.

(1) Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned by them and their dependants;

(2) Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned by them and their dependants;

(3) Cultivating labourers and their dependants; and

(4) Non-cultivating owners of land and their dependants, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants.

Non-agricultural Classes.

Engagement :

(5) Production other than cultivation;

(6) Commerce;

(7) Transport; and

(8) Other services and miscellaneous sources.

The table below gives the break-up figures of the livelihood classes as per 1951 census*:—

Principal livelihood classes.	Number.	Percentage out of the total population.	Self-supporting.	Non-earning dependants.	Earning dependants.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Agricultural classes ..	16,66,917	90	5,38,527	10,63,841	64,549
TABLE I.					
Percentage out of the agricultural population.					
(*i*) Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned by them and their dependants.	15,78,275	95	5,14,390	10,03,435	60,450
(*ii*) Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned by them and their dependants.	32,015	1	7,779	23,273	963
(*iii*) Cultivating labourers and dependants.	48,563	3	13,421	32,502	2,640
(*iv*) Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent-receivers and their dependants.	8,064	1	2,937	4,631	496
TABLE II.					
Percentage out of the non-agricultural population.					
(*i*) Production (other than cultivation).	58,212	30	17,286	38,496	2,430
(*ii*) Commerce ..	39,847	21	10,137	28,653	1,057
(*iii*) Transport ..	7,473	3	2,040	5,318	115
(*iv*) Other services and miscellaneous sources.	88,758	46	25,301	62,410	1,047

These broad categories cannot be exclusive. The non-earning dependant persons constituting about 64 per cent of the total agricultural population are composed of women, children and old, infirm persons. But a large number of women among the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes actually work in fields during agricultural operations, besides working as labourers on road and building works. It is not correct to compute them as dependants. The earning dependants counting about 4 per cent of the agricultural classes, may not be earning sufficient even to support themselves. Besides, there is also a certain

* *District Census Hand-Book*, Ranchi (1956), pp. 18—25.

amount of mobility in occupations. An agriculturist may be a school teacher or a lawyer. A landless labourer may change over to the occupation of a rickshaw-puller or a casual factory hand. But the aforesaid figures do show the trends of occupation. 16,66,917 persons or about 90 per cent of the total population fall under the Agricultural classes and the remaining 1,94,290 persons or about 10 per cent under Non-agricultural classes.

In the census of 1961 the population has not been divided into agricultural and non-agricultural categories, but into those of workers and non-workers. The population under the category "workers" has been further subdivided into the following nine livelihood classes:—

(1) Cultivator; (2) Agricultural labourer; (3) Mining, quarrying, forestry, fishing, hunting, etc.; (4) Household industry; (5) Manufacturing other than household industry, (6) Construction; (7) Trade and Commerce; (8) Transport, Storage and Communications and (9) Other services.

According to 1961 census, the total population* of the district is 21,38,565 (10,76,251 males and 10,62,314 females). Of these† 12,04,919 (6,39,871 males and 5,65,048 females) are workers and 9,33,646 (4,36,380 males and 4,97,266 females) are non-workers. These figures show that 56 per cent of the total population come under the category of workers.

The different categories of workers are as follows‡:—

Categories.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Percentage of the total workers.
1	2	3	4	5
Cultivators	9,47,131	4,64,396	4,82,735	78.6
Agricultural labourer	67,506	32,408	35,098	5.6
Mining, Quarrying, Livestock, Forestry, Fishing, Hunting, Plantations, Orchards and allied activities.	26,318	18,971	7,347	2.2
Household Industry	47,619	27,918	19,701	0.4
Manufacturing other than Household Industry.	18,472	15,450	3,022	1.5
Construction	7,590	6,449	1,141	0.7
Trade and Commerce	16,012	13,920	2,092	1.3
Transport, Storage and Communications	7,794	7,669	125	0.6
Other services	66,477	52,690	13,787	5.5

* *Census of India*, 1961, Volume IV, Bihar, Part IIA, p. 57.
† *Ibid*, pp. 580 and 583.
‡ *Ibid*, pp. 580—83.

Level of Prices.

The level of prices has a bearing both on the real income and the standard of living of the people. A rise in prices with income being constant lowers the purchasing power of money and affects the consumers directly. The variations in the price level from the last quarter of the nineteenth century to the present times are reviewed below.

W. W. Hunter observes that in the rural parts of the district and even in Ranchi itself, the rise and fall of prices was indicated by the variations of the size of the *paila*, or measure holding about a *ser* weight of grain. Rice was sold at the uniform rate of one pice per *paila;* but as the price rose, the size of the *paila* diminished.*

The prices of certain commodities in Ranchi during 1893—1900 are given in the following table†:—

Prices in seers per rupee in Ranchi.

Year.	Commodities.							
	Wheat		Rice		Gram.		Salt.	
	Seer	Chhatak	Seer	Chhatak	Seer	Chhatak	Seer	Chhatak
1	2		3		4		5	
1893 ..	11	0	13	0	9	0	9	4
1894 ..	11	0	17	0	14 to 15	0	9	0
1895 ..	11	0	18	8	12 to 13	0	9	0
1896 ..	11	8	14	0	13 to 14	0	9	0
1897 ..	8	8	8	4	9	8	9	0
1898 ..	8	0	12	0	9	8	9	0
1899 ..	18	0	20	0	20	0	9	8
1900 ..	7 to 10	4 8	9	2	11	0	9	0

* *A Statistical Account of Bengal* by W. W. Hunter, Vol. XVI, Districts of Hazaribagh and Lohardaga (1877), pp. 357-58.
† *Ranchi District Gazetteer Statistics*, 1901-02 (1905), p. 9.

In 1859 paddy was sold at two maunds to the rupee and rice at one maund; by 1870 the price had only increased by 35 per cent. In 1888 rice was sold at two rupees a maund; in 1902 fifteen seers of rice could be obtained for a rupee in Ranchi and sixteen at Lohardaga and Palkot, and in 1914 rice was selling in Ranchi at eight or nine seers while in the outlying parts one or two seers more were obtainable. The rise in prices in the Ranchi market was due partly to the increased demand of the commodity by the growing population of the town since it became the district headquarters.

From 1901 to 1914 the prices of essential commodities went on rising steadily. There was a more acute rise from 1914 onwards because of the outbreak of the First Great War and this phase continued till 1918. On the cessation of the War in 1918 the price level started falling and in spite of slight fluctuations, there was no abnormal rise in the prices of essential commodities for some years. From 1930 onwards there was a down grade move in the level of prices and this phase continued till about 1934-35. There were large scale mortgages and sale of land by cultivators who were very badly affected. There was but a slight rise from the next year till the outbreak of the Second Great War in 1939 when the prices of essential commodities began to soar. As long as this War lasted there was a continuous spiral rise in the prices of essential commodities due to their short supply and much greater demand*.

The prevailing price of rice in Ranchi district in 1901 was from Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 3 per maund. Its variations during 1926–1935 were as follows†:–

	(In decimal of rupees per maund.)
1926	6.66
1927	5.614
1928	6.465
1929	6.095
1930	4.571
1931	2.909
1932	2.922
1933	2.678
1934	2.90
1935	3.20

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 160.

† *Final Report on the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operation in the district of Ranchi* (1927–35), p. 10.

The average wholesale prices of certain commodities at the district headquarters for the years 1901, 1953 and 1965 are given below*:–

Commodities.	Prices prevailing in 1901.	Prices prevailing in 1953.	Prices prevailing in February, 1965.
Rice fine (per md.) ..	Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 3 ..	Rs. 21 to Rs. 23 ..	Rs. 30 to Rs. 31.
Rice medium (per md.)	Rs. 2-0-0 ..	Rs. 19-8-0 to Rs. 20-8-0.	Rs. 27.50 to Rs. 28.50
Rice coarse (per md.) ..	Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 1-14-0.	Rs. 18-8-0 to Rs. 20-0-0.	Rs. 26 to Rs. 27.
Wheat (per md.) ..	Rs. 3 to Rs. 3-4-0 ..	Rs. 19 to Rs. 26 ..	Rs. 38 to Rs. 41.
Maize (per md.) ..	Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2-4-0	Rs. 17-8-0 to Rs. 18	Rs. 25.50.
Gram (per md.) ..	Rs. 1-14-0 to Rs. 2-8-0.	Rs. 20-12-0 to Rs. 24.	Rs. 37 to Rs. 39.
Arhar (whole grain) (per md.).	Rs. 2 to Rs. 2-8-0 ..	Rs. 18 ..	Not available.
Arhar dal (per md.) ..	Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 ..	Rs. 21-8-0 to Rs. 23	Rs. 48 to Rs. 52.
Khesari (whole grain) (per md.).	Rs. 1-4-0 ..	Not available ..	Not available.
Khesari dal (per md.) ..	Rs. 1-10-0 to Rs. 1-12-0.	Rs. 22-12-0 to Rs. 23-4-0.	Rs. 26 to Rs. 27.
Masoor chanti (per md.)	Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 2-10-0.	Rs. 22-12-0 to Rs. 23-4-0.	Rs. 35 to Rs. 38.
Masoor dal (solid) (per md.)	Rs. 2-4-0 ..	Rs. 20 ..	Rs. 31 to Rs. 32.
Moong dal (per md.) ..	Rs. 3 ..	Rs. 25 to Rs. 28 ..	Rs. 41 to Rs. 42.
Urid (per md.) ..	Rs. 2 to Rs. 2-8-0 ..	Rs. 23 ..	Rs. 35 to Rs. 37.
Mustard seed (per md.)..	Rs. 6 to Rs. 7 ..	Rs. 26 to Rs. 30-4-0	Rs. 42.
Linseed (per md.) ..	Rs. 3-12-0 to Rs. 4-4-0.	Rs. 24 to Rs. 27 ..	Rs. 34 to Rs. 35.
Mustard oil (per md.) ..	Rs. 20 ..	Rs. 57 to Rs. 64 ..	Rs. 120 to Rs. 134.
Linseed oil (per md.) ..	Rs. 12 to Rs. 14 ..	Rs. 54 ..	Rs. 88 to Rs. 89.
Castor seed (per md.) ..	Not available ..	Not available ..	Not available.
Castor oil (per md.) ..	Not available ..	Not available ..	Rs. 73.
Groundnut (per md.) ..	Rs. 3 to Rs. 3-4-0 ..	Rs. 24 ..	Rs. 20 to Rs. 30.
Ghee (per md.) ..	Rs. 30 to Rs. 35 ..	Rs. 180 ..	Rs. 320 to Rs. 340.

* These figures have been supplied by the Deputy Commissioner's Office, Ranchi. But the figures for 1901 differ from the statistics published in the *Ranchi District Gazetteer Statistics*, 1901-02, p. 9.

Commodities.	Prices prevailing in 1901.	Prices prevailing in 1953.	Prices prevailing in February, 1965.
Sugar (per md.)	.. Rs. 7-8-0	.. Rs. 30 to Rs. 32	.. Rs. 47.69 to Rs. 51.37.
Gur (per md.)	.. Rs. 1-12-0	.. Rs. 16 to Rs. 21	.. Rs. 20 to Rs. 22.
Mutton (per seer)	.. Re. 0-2-6	.. Rs. 2	.. Rs. 3 to Rs. 3.50.
Fish (*Rohu*) (per seer)	.. Re. 0-2-6	.. Rs. 2-4-0	.. Rs. 3-50.
Egg (per dozen)	.. Re. 0-2-6	.. Re. 1-6-0	.. Rs. 2-50 to Rs. 2.75.
Potato (per five seers)	.. Re. 0-2-6	.. Re. 1-4-0 to Rs. 2-4-0.	Rs. 1.50.

These comparative figures show the high incidence of rise in prices from 1901. The price of fine rice rose 8 times in 1953 and 12 times in 1965, medium rice 10 times in 1953 and 14 times in 1965 and coarse rice 13 times in 1953 and 20 times in 1965. Thus the price of coarse rice rose much more than that of medium or fine rice. The majority of people being poor, they take coarse rice and thus they were more adversely affected than the middle or upper classes.

The price of wheat rose from Rs. 3 to Rs. 3-4-0 per maund in 1901 to Rs. 19 to Rs. 26 per maund in 1963 and Rs. 30 to Rs. 41 in 1965. The price, therefore, had increased 7 times in 1953 and 13 times in 1965.

The price of maize rose 12 times in 1953 and 16 times in 1965 and that of gram 10 times in 1953 and 19 times in 1965. The price of *arhar dal* rose 7 times in 1953 and 16 times in 1965 and that of *masoor dal* 9 times in 1953 and 14 times in 1965. The price of mustard oil rose 3 times in 1953 and 6 times in 1965 and that of *ghee* 6 times in 1953 and 11 times in 1965. The price of sugar rose 4 times in 1953 and 7 times in 1965. The price of *gur* rose 8 times in 1953 and 10 times in 1965. The price of mutton and fish rose 14 times in 1953 and 19 times in 1965.

The incidence of rise in prices over a decade between 1953 and 1965 was comparatively much higher than those over half a century between 1901 and 1953. The steep, progressive rise in prices after 1953 was part of all-India phenomenon mainly due to deficit financing of projects sponsored under the first three Five-Year Plans. Besides, the universal factors of demand and supply influenced the prices in local context. The development and extension of rail and roadways have had their impact on prices. The produce of this district is now quickly transported to other districts of Bihar and beyond the State.

The industrialisation of Ranchi since 1953, and particularly after 1960 caused an influx of population from all over the country, providing employment to people on an unprecedented scale and thus giving than much higher purchasing power. which reflected itself in the popular desire for greater consumption of goods and services.

The World Economic Depression of late twenties adversely affected the prices, particularly of agricultural commodities. The lowest ebb of the price curve near about 1935 had brought in untold sufferings to the cultivators. The salaried classes did profit, but the teeming population dependant on agriculture was severely affected. The oppression of Zamindars accentuated their trouble and the State Government had to intervene with various changes in the Tenancy Laws to give them relief. The large volume of transactions in land showed the despiration of the tenantry. The poorer sections had to sell away their lands for sustenance. This situation was relieved by the Second World War which besides, providing ample opportunity of employment to the local tenantry greatly raised the demand of foodgrains for defence purposes, and thus the seller's market quickly turned into the buyer's market.

During the Second World War there were large concentrations of military forces throughout the Chota Nagpur Division, with particular deployments in Ranchi and Ramgarh. Ranchi town was the headquarters of the Eastern Command till 1954. The military personnel had to be given priority of supply, not only in respect of foodgrains, but also other essential commodities like cloth, steel, cement, etc. Under the Defence of India Act, price control measures were enforced to check the unusual war time rise in prices and in order to regulate the supplies of essential goods, rationing of rice and wheat was introduced in Ranchi, as in other towns of the State, and the distribution of other goods was controlled through permit system. The State Government built up rice and paddy stock through official procurement in the district as a buffer against hoarding; but the great bulk of the agriculturists being petty cultivators they could ill-afford to withhold stocks. However, speculators in land and business came into prominence. Alienation of land in Ranchi town became a prominent feature. The provisions of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act were circumvented by semi-fictitious title suits and the lands of the aboriginals started passing into the hands of others.

There were also certain natural causes, such as drought which affected the crops and thus contributed to the price-rise.

The conclusion is that the War did not bring down the prices. India's Independence in 1947 was preceded by serious famines in Bengal and communal genocide in various part of the country. The partition of the country led to mass exodus of Hindus, both from the West and East Pakistan to India and rehabilitation of the displaced persons put enormous strain on the national exchequer. The development projects

under the Five-Year Plans draw huge initial national investments to give dividends only in future. Thus artificial money had to be created to balance the country's budgets and this in turn kept up the price spiral.

Level of Wages.

The fluctuations in the price level generally influence the level of wages.

W. W. Hunter observed that prices and wages had risen considerably from general causes, and not from any circumstances peculiar to Lohardaga district. The table below shows the daily wages of coolies, day-labourers, smiths, bricklayers and carpenters in 1856 and 1870:—

Year.	Coolies.	Day labourers.	Smiths.	Brick-layers.	Carpenters.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1856 ..	1 *anna* ..	1 *anna* to 1 *anna* 3 *p.*	2 to 3 *annas*	2 to 3 *annas*	2 to 3 *annas.*
1870 ..	1 *a.* 3 *p.* to 1 *a.* 6 *p.*	1 *a.* 3 *p.* to 1 *a.* 6 *p.*	3 to 4 *annas*	3 to 4 *annas*	3 to 5 *annas.*

In rural areas a carpenter was paid 10 *pailas* or *sers* of unhusked rice for every plaugh, while a blacksmith got 20 *sers* per plaughshare*.

The daily wages of the following categories from 1893 to 1902 were as follows†:—

Categories.	Daily wages.
1. Superior mason ..	.. 6.0 *annas*
2. Common mason ..	.. 3.00 to 4.00 *annas.*
3. Superior carpenter ..	.. 8.0 *annas.*
4. Common carpenter ..	.. 4.00 *annas.*
5. Coolie	.. 2.00 to 3.00 *annas.*
6. Women	.. 1 to 6 *annas.*
7. Boy	.. 9 pies to 1 *anna.*
8. *Gharami*	.. 2 *annas.*
9. Superior blacksmith ..	.. 2 to 6 *annas.*
10. Common blacksmith ..	.. 3 to 4 *annas.*

* *A statistical Account of Bengal*, Vol. XVI, Districts of Hazaribagh and Lohardaga (1877), p. 357.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer Statistics*, 1901-02 (1905), p. 9.

From Hunter's account it appears that even in the period, 1870 to 1902, there was a tendency for rise in the level of wages.

Hallett observed that an unskilled labourer could find a daily wage of two to three annas in any part of the district, while in Ranchi town he could obtain four or even five annas. The daily wages of women and boy labourers also showed a corresponding increase. Women could obtain two annas, while boys could get five to six pice. Cash wages, however, were rather exception than the rule in the district, and it was only labourers in and near Ranchi or those employed on Government work who received payment in cash. Grain payments varied in amount from $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ seers and in value were approximately equivalent to cash payments. Masons and carpenters could obtain eight annas or more per day. At that time in the rural areas wages were more paid in kind to the blacksmith, the cowherd, etc. Basket-makers or potters were, however, paid a fixed sum for their work.

Monthly wages had also risen, and an unskilled labourer commanded five to seven rupees a month while women could obtain four rupees or even more. Since the railway was opened, and specially since Ranchi became the summer headquarters of the local Government, wages had risen to an abnormal degree, and a servant provided with food and clothing received four rupees or double that amount, if food and clothing were not given.

Daily or monthly wages, whether in cash or kind, was not typical in the district. Before the commutation of *begari* the *raiyats* of a village ploughed, sowed, and harvested the landlords' fields, while permanent field servants, or *dhangars*, were also employed. A *dhangar* was often a younger member of a respectable *raiyat's* family who took service under the Zamindar for a year in order to earn a lump sum for his family. He was hired usually in the month of *Magh* (January) and received wages in kind varying from six to twelve or even to eighteen *kats* of paddy and a cash wage which had risen from Rs. 4 a year to Rs. 12, or even to Rs. 18 in some localities where the labour, such as that involved in irrigation, was heavy. He also received a ration of food at midday. In some parts of the district, in lieu of receiving paddy, the *dhangar* was fed and clothed by his master and lived as a member of the family, while in other parts he was given a parcel of land, or received a portion of the land which he had helped to cultivate.

Another form of hired labour was known as *Pasri*. A *pasridar* was a man who had no plough or plough-cattle of his own and entered into an agreement with some wealthier cultivator, by which the latter agreed to lend his plough in return for manual labour during the cultivating season*.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 158—60.

During the First World War the wages showed a general upward tendency, inasmuch as the prices of commodities, particularly cloth and rice, had recorded a rise due to the total cessation of imports of cloth from Britain on whom the country largely depended for the supply of cloth and of rice from Burma owing to the lack of merchant shipping. The wages were depressed in the wake of the world wide recession in the trade in the late twenties, but they rose again on the outbreak of the Second World War.

The wages of the agricultural workers fixed under the Bihar Minimum Wages Act, 1948, are as follows:—

Categories of employees.	Name of agricultural operations.	Minimum rate of wages.*
(*a*) Adult and adolescent employees.	Ploughing, embanking, harrowing, manuring, soaking of weedings, irrigating, thrashing, winnowing, uprooting, transplanting, harvesting and all other agricultural operations incidental or ancillary to agriculture not mentioned in the schedule.	Three *seers* and four *chhataks* of paddy and four *chhataks* of rice or *chura* or *murhi* or *satlu* per day.
(*b*) Child employees ..	Ditto ditto ..	Two *seers* and four *chhataks* of paddy and four *chhataks* of rice or *chura* or *murhi* or *sattu* per day.

An investigation shows that though the Minimum Wages Act has been enforced in the district, its provisions are not observed in practice. The wages of the agricultural labourer vary according to agricultural operations. Both men and women get the same rate of wages for transplantation. A ploughman gets Rs. 1.50 per day though he yokes his own cattle and plough. Considering the labour and capital of the ploughman his remuneration appears to be small†.

* *A Hand-Book on Minimum Wages fixed under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 in the State of Bihar*, published in 1964, p. 47.

† This investigation relates to the period prior to 1965. Since then wages have gone up.

The table below shows the details of wages (in rupees) from 1953 to 1965* in the district:—

—	1953.	1954.	1955†.	1956‡.	1957-	1958**.	1959§.	1961 to 1964§§.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Skilled Labourers (in rupees).								
1. Carpenters ..	1 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	2 8 0	2.20	2.42	2.00	3.25
2. Blacksmiths ..	1 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	1 13 4	2.00	2.39	2.00	3.25
3. Cobblers ..	1 8 0	1 8 0	1 8 0	1 12 0	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Field Labourers (in rupees).								
1. Men ..	1 3 8	1 4 0	1 4 0	1 1 0	1.00	1.04	1.10	1.75
2. Women ..	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 10 6	0.62	0.64	0.73	1.50
3. Children ..	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 8 2	0.50	0.54	0.64	1.00
Other Agricultural Labourers (in rupees).								
1. Men ..	1 3 8	1 4 0	0 15 0	1 12 0	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.50
2. Women ..	1 3 8	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 10 0	0.62	0.62	0.67	1.25
3. Children ..	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 7 7	0.50	0.52	0.59	0.85
Herdsmen (in rupees).								
1. Men ..	..	0 4 0	..	0 14 4	0.86	0.92	0.20	0.50
2. Women ..	..	..	..	0 9 0	0.50	0.50	..	..
3. Children ..	..	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 5 11	0.46	0.66	0.20	0.25

* Since then in view of rising prices wages of all categories have gone up. There has also been a tendency on the part of skilled labour to migrate to industrial areas where wages are generally much higher than in countryside.

† *Bihar Statistical Hand-Book*, 1955, pp. 256—259.

‡ *Ibid*, pp. 372—375.

** *Ibid*, 1958, pp. 348-349.

§ *Ibid*, 1959, pp. 356-357.

§§ Source.—Labour Office, Ranchi.

Standard of Living*.

Agriculture is the main occupation of the people. The landless labourers earn just enough to meet their main physical wants. Their assets are extremely few and they are usually mobile. They have to undergo hardship when they cannot sell their labour. The persons who have small holdings are slightly better off than the landless agricultural labourers. The middle class agriculturists may have an income just enough to assure a fair living. But they also get indebted because of litigation and social commitments.

The cereals consumed in the district are rice, wheat, pulse, maize, *mahua, gondli, china* and *kodo*. Rice is the staple food of upper classes. The majority of people live on maize, *kodo, mahua,* jack-fruit, etc. The inhabitants in forest areas also supplement their food with jungle produce such as seed of *sal, piar* and *ber* and other jungle fruits and roots. The consumption of vegetables among the lower classes is very limited. On average, a lower class family spends about Rs. 2 per month on vegetables, usually potatoes. Green vegetables are consumed very occasionally. The expenditure on sugar, spices, fuel and lighting, kerosene oil, is negligible. Agricultural labourers cannot afford any non-vegetarian diet. But the expenditure on country liquor and tobacco is substantial. The expenditure on education is almost nil. The children have often to supplement the family income. The average *per capita* consumption of cloth in this class may be said to be about 16 yards per annum. Footwear is not common.

The middle class agricultural families consume rice, wheat, maize and gram which they grow. The coarse and cheaper cereals are not popular among them. Pulses like *arhar, gram, kurthi* and *urad* are liberally consumed. The consumption of sugar and *gur* is on the increase. Milk and milk products are also consumed occasionally. Tea is a common drink in Christian families. They are normally non-vegetarians, but consumption of meat, fish or egg is meagre because in the rural areas their regular supply is not assured. Footwear is common. The houses of these families are usually of better type with courtyard, verandahs, a sizeable *baithaka* (sitting place) and a separate cowshed for their cattle. The expenditure on education is an important item in their budget.

Family Budgets.

Rural families.—From a survey of 25 rural families in Simdega subdivision it was ascertained that on average a rural family consists of 7.5 members, all being owner-cultivators including 6 cultivator-*cum*-labourers. Only five families supplemented their income by service. Five families had monthly income above Rs. 100, but the average monthly income of the 25 families comes to about Rs. 76.

* For this purpose a study was made in Simdega and Gumla subdivisions. The observations could be taken for the whole district.

It was calculated that of the total expenditure more than 86 per cent is spent on cereals; 6 per cent on cloth; 2 per cent on education; 1.5 per cent on houses and the remaining 4.5 per cent on miscellaneous items. Meat is generally not purchased in rural areas. Household poultry and domestic goats are occasionally used for this purpose. Milk and *ghee* or spices are not generally consumed. Tea is usually taken. Medicine is practically no item of expenditure.

Urban families.—19 urban families were examined at Simdega town. Of them, 11 were of the income group of above Rs. 100, but below Rs. 200; 3 of above Rs. 200 and the rest of a monthly income of Rs. 100 and below.

An urban family also on average consists of 7.5 members. About 52 per cent of the family expenditure was on vegetables, cereals and fuel. Milk and *ghee* formed menu of the few families of the income group of Rs. 200 and above. About 8 per cent of the family expenditure covered vegetables, milk and *ghee*. About 8 per cent of the expenditure was on housing as rent is high at Simdega due to acute shortage of accommodation. There was hardly any expenditure on recreation. About 7 per cent on education and about 4 per cent on medicine were generally spent. The Christian Adivasi families had to contribute annually to their Mission for the education of children as this is compulsory in the case of boarders. Clothing took about 9 per cent.

From the sample survey it was gathered that the majority of both urban and rural families had deficit family budget. The income was not sufficient in three-fourths of the families to cover even the bare necessities of life. The majority of the families were underfed and under-clothed. In the slack agricultural season semi-starvation is common in the families of the low-income group. Addiction to *hanria* or rice-beer consumes a fair per cent of the agricultural produce. But to the Adivasis *hanria* is both food and drink. Country liquor is now replacing home-brewn *hanria* and taking away a big chunk of income.

Of the 25 families examined in the rural areas and 19 families in the urban area it was found that 19 and 15 families respectively were in debt. The traditional *mahajans* are still doing their business pretty well as the grain *golas* of the Welfare Department cannot meet the demand of the people. The liquidation of debt is not an easy task as majority of the families have too slender income even for a bare existence. The best cultivable lands of the poor cultivators are under the *Bhugatbandha* mortgage. Loans are readily advanced on the security of cultivable land.

The family budget of an agriculturist in Gumla subdivision, owing about five acres of land including homestead, and a family of seven persons was studied. In this family there is only one earner while there are three earning dependants. The total asset of the family is in the

form of land valued at Rs. 1,500, livestock worth Rs. 500 and other assets of Rs. 500. The other assets include agricultural and non-agricultural implements, house, household furniture, metal utensils and a few trinkets of the women. The income of the family is : 66 maunds of agricultural produce worth Rs. 641; livestock produce worth Rs. 55.00 (milk and *ghee*); and income from non-agricultural source Rs. 120. Thus the total annual income comes to Rs. 816.00. The annual items of expenditure are : Rs. 630.00 on food; Rs. 301.30 on miscellaneous; Rs. 233.50 on livestock maintenance; Rs. 86.75 on implements; Rs. 95.25 on other charges as seeds, manures, income-tax, etc., and Rs. 85.25 on clothing. The budget shows that the expenditure far exceeds the income, and the family runs into deficit of about Rs. 615.75 per annum. This may be taken as the average type of this class. This family may have to sell portions of its land soon or some members must take to other more paying occupations.

The family budget of a rickshaw-puller of Gumla suburb, which represents the low-income group, was studied. He has a family of eight—one male, two females and five children. The earners are the husband and wife. The husband is the rickshaw-puller and on average he earns Rs. 3 a day. The wife works as a part-time maid-servant and gets about Rs. 10. Thus the total income comes to Rs. 100. The items of monthly expenditure on average were found to be as follows:—

	Rs.
(1) Rice	35.00
(2) Wheat	20.00
(3) Pulse	10.00
(4) Oil	5.50
(5) Medicine	5.00
(6) Vegetables	7.00
(7) Clothing	10.00
(8) Spices	4.00
(9) Fuel	2.00
(10) Kerosene oil	4.00
(11) Intoxication, tea, *Biri*, *Pan*, etc.	9.00
(12) House rent	7.00
	118.50

The total expenditure is Rs. 118.50. Thus there is a deficit of Rs. 18.50. There is no expenditure on entertainment. The family is in debt of Rs. 300. This amount was borrowed to purchase a rickshaw, and the interest is paid at the rate of 4 per cent per month over that amount.

Clerical and professional classes.—The clerical and the professional classes include the lower and middle strata of salaried persons employed in Government or private offices, schools and some professional men like doctors and lawyers. The income of this class varies from Rs. 150 to Rs. 400 per month. The expenditure of two families belonging to this class and having monthly income varying from Rs. 200 to Rs. 350 is detailed below.

One family was of a teacher having a monthly income of Rs. 200 and it consisted of two adult members and five children all of whom were under 12. Its expenditure for a month was Rs. 180. Hence it had a surplus of Rs. 20 per month. The break-up of the family budget is given in the following table.

The other family, which had a monthly income of Rs. 350, was that of a pleader and consisted of three adult members and three children, two above 10 and one below 8 years. Its expenditure for the month was Rs. 325. In addition to his professional earnings the pleader was receiving Rs. 150 per month as house rent in Gumla town. Thus this family had a saving of Rs. 175 per month. The expenditure shown in the housing column for this family consists of house taxes as the family was staying in its own house. The break-up of the family budget is also given in the table below :—

Number of items.	Teacher.	Pleader.
	Rs.	Rs.
1. Food	40.00	60.00
2. Milk and *ghee*	10.00	30.00
3. Oil	8.00	12.00
4. Sugar	5.00	10.00
5. Fruits, vegetables, eggs and meat ..	17.00	35.00
6. Fuel and lighting	10.00	14.00
7. Toilet	10.00	20.00
8. Tea	6.00	43.00
9. Clothing	20.00	14.00
10. Housing	10.00	10.00
11. Personal service	14.00	17.00
12. Medical treatment	10.00	13.00
13. Education of children	10.00	7.00
14. Amusement and recreation	5.00	20.00
15. Conveyance and travelling	3.00	10.00
16. Ceremonies and other social functions ..	2.00	10.00
TOTAL ..	180.00	325.00

The teacher with a smaller income had a larger family to support while the pleader with about thrice the income of the teacher, had a smaller family. The superior living of the pleader is manifest from the above figures.

Level of Employment.

According to 1961 census about 84.2 per cent of the population are engaged in agriculture. There is extreme mobility of agricultural labour. An agricultural labourer may have an additional income as a rickshaw-puller or a casual labourer in a factory. An agriculturist may be a teacher, a lawyer or may hold a salaried post. During the slack season many agricultural labourers migrate to towns or industrial areas.

The statistics of the Employment Exchange, Ranchi, do not project an accurate picture of the trends of employment or that of unemployment. There is no statutory obligation on an unemployed person to get himself registered and employed either in the public or in the private sector and the employers make their appointments even without making a reference to Employment Exchange. There is no obligation on an applicant to get his name deregistered from the Employment Exchange, if he gets an employment. The fluctuations in the figures of the persons registered are not explained by the Employment Exchange. The persons placed through Employment Exchange form but a very small percentage of the applicants registered.

The figures supplied by the Employment Exchange, Ranchi, from 1960 to 1964 are given below:—

—	Year.				
	1960.	1961.	1962.	1963.	1964 (Till Dec. 1964).
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. *No. of applicants registered*—					
Males	15,947	23,921	29,089	23,218	16,216
Females	472	559	971	856	657
TOTAL	16,419	24,480	36,060	24,074	16,873
2. Vacancies notified	769	2,537	3,363	2,733	3,426
3. *No. of applicants placed*—					
Males	338	862	1,760	1,524	1,238
Females	29	57	235	10	32
TOTAL ..	367	919	1,995	1,534	1,270
4. *No. of applicants on live register*—					
Males	6,805	12,793	19,621	16,367	9,988
Females	234	301	422	568	359
TOTAL ..	7,039	13,094	20,043	16,935	10,347

From the above table it appears that the year 1962 shows a very large incidence of the applicants registered, but there has been a substantial fall in 1963 and 1964. It cannot be said that the incidence of unemployment has had a corresponding decline.

The table below gives some idea of the index of employment. But it has to be remembered that the figures are made out only from the applicants registered and applicants placed through the Employment Exchange*.

Enquiry relating to—	Index of employment for—		Total.
	Public Sector.	Private Sector.	
31st March, 1961 ..	100.00	100.00	100.00
30th June, 1961 ..	105.04	106.94	105.52
30th September, 1961 ..	105.76	105.86	105.77
31st December, 1961 ..	107.79	109.21	108.10
31st March, 1962 ..	104.22	109.12	105.41
30th June, 1962.. ..	107.82	109.94	108.32
30th September, 1962 ..	111.23	112.06	111.42
31st December, 1962 ..	115.57	116.83	115.86
31st March, 1963 ..	116.96	121.33	118.01
30th June, 1963.. ..	123.52	120.78	122.86
30th September, 1963 ..	127.04	119.25	125.23
31st December, 1963 ..	133.94	119.79	130.55
31st March, 1964 ..	119.19	137.69	133.22
30th June, 1964.. ..	121.36	137.28	134.99

An enquiry into the preferences indicated by the applicants registering themselves in the Employment Exchange reveals that most of the applicants want white-collared or soft jobs. Trained technical men can easily get jobs without going through the Employment Exchange. There is a great dearth of technical men in trades, crafts and professions like those of nurses, stenographers, mechanics and electricians. It is also a pertinent fact that very inferior type of men get into trades as apprentices. In April, 1965 there had been a case where hundreds of apprentices in trades at Heavy Engineering Workshops had refused to take an examination for final selection. Apparently they were afraid of failure in the test and this shows that although employment chances are there, there is a dearth of proper persons to fill up the jobs.

* SOURCE.—Employment Exchange Office, Ranchi.

The Bihar Unemployment Committee had made some investigations in Ranchi district in 1950 and some of the tables in their draft report circulated in 1959, give some idea of the employment trends in 1954 in Ranchi town*.

TABLE I.

Number of families surveyed.	Number of families affected	Sample population			Persons between 16—60		
		Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
443	99	1,714	1,437	3,151	983	892	1,875

Wholly unemployed persons			Partially unemployed persons			Total affected persons		
Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
120	4	124	2	..	2	122	4	126

The table below shows the estimated population and persons affected by unemployment in Ranchi town as on the 1st May, 1964†:—

TABLE II.

Estimated number of families.	Estimated number of affected families.	Raising factor.	Estimated population of families.			Estimated population of 16—60 age-group		
			Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	5	7	8	9
17,795	3,977	40.17	68,851	57,724	1,26,575	39,487	35,832	75,319

Estimated unemployed persons.			Estimated partially employed.			Number of illiterate persons *i.e.*, totally unemployed persons.		
Males	Females	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
4,820	161	4,981	80	..	80	4,900	161	5,061

* Draft Report of the Bihar Unemployment Committee, Vol. I, 1955, pp. 303-304.
† *Ibid*, pp. 307—309.

From the discussions quoted at pages 312-313 of the Draft Report of the Bihar Unemployment Committee, we find that the percentage of the employable males to the male population is 57.35 while the corresponding figure for the females is 62.07. The percentage of males wholly unemployed to employable males is 12.20 while that of females wholly unemployed to employable is 45. The percentage of males partially employed to employable males is .20, while the corresponding percentage of the females partially employed to employable females is not given.

The Bihar Unemployment Committee does not appear to have come to positive conclusions about the incidence of unemployment in the rural area although they had sampled 25 villages and had intensly covered 10 villages. It was noticed by the Committee that the educated persons did not like to stick to villages. This shows that the employment chances for the educated persons, even if they were matriculates were meagre in rural areas. The Committee was convinced after its survey in a number of villages and towns of Bihar that unless the economy, as a whole, expands and purchasing power and productivity increased, imparting of the technical and vocational education would not by itself solve the problem of employment. With agriculture and that also of a primitive type, there was very little possibility of a self-generating economy in the State, Ranchi district being no exception.

NATIONAL PLANNING AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT.

For an all-round development of rural economy, the Community Development Project was started in Ranchi district on 2nd October, 1952 with first three blocks at Mandar, Ormanjhi and Ratu. From very inception the Community Development Officers were also entrusted with the work of collecting revenue which took much of their time and hampered the extension work. This dual function ended since 1st April, 1965 when *Anchaladhikaris* took up revenue collection work.

The following Community Development Blocks have been opened in the district*:—

Serial no.	Name.	Headquarters.	When opened.	Present stage.	Whether Tribal/ Non-Tribal/Package.
1	2	3	4	5	6
			I. Sadar Subdivision.		
1	Burmu Block	.. Burmu ..	.. 1st April, 1962	.. C. D. Stage I	.. Non-Tribal.
2	Lohardaga Block	.. Lohardaga ..	.. 1st October, 1962	.. Ditto	.. Package.
3	Bhandra Block	.. Ditto ..	.. Not given	.. C. D. I and T. D. I	.. T. D. and Package.
4	Bero Block	.. Bero ..	.. 1st October, 1963	.. Ditto	.. T. D.
5	Lapung Block	.. Lapung ..	.. 1st October, 1963	.. Ditto	.. Ditto.
6	Angara Block	.. Angara ..	.. 1st October, 1960	.. C. D. II ..	.. Non-Tribal.
7	Silli Block ..	.. Silli ..	.. 1st October, 1958	.. C. D. ..	.. Ditto.
8	Senha Block	.. Senha ..	.. 1st April, 1961	.. C.D. II and T.D. I	.. T. D. and Package.
9	Kisko Block	.. Kisko ..	.. 1st October, 1964	.. Ditto	.. Ditto.
10	Namkum Block	.. Namkom ..	.. 1st October, 1956	.. Ditto	.. Non-Tribal.
11	Chanho Block	.. Chanho ..	.. Not available	.. T. D. II ..	.. Package.
12	Ormanjhi Block	.. Ormanjhi ..	.. 2nd October, 1952	.. C. D. II ..	.. Ditto.
13	Ratu Block	.. Ratu ..	.. 2nd October, 1952	.. Ditto ..	.. Ditto.
14	Mandar Block	.. Mandar ..	.. 2nd October, 1952	.. Ditto	.. Ditto.
15	Kuru Block	.. Kuru ..	.. 19th May, 1956	.. Ditto ..	.. Ditto.
16	Kanke Block	.. Kanke ..	.. 1st October, 1956	.. C. D. I ..	.. Ditto.
			II. Gumla Subdivision.		
1	Basia Block	.. Basia ..	.. 1stApril, 1962	.. C. D. and T. D. Stage I	Tribal.
2	Sissai Block	.. Sissai ..	.. 1st April, 1964	.. Ditto	.. Ditto.
3	Bharno Block	.. Bharno ..	.. Not available	.. Ditto	.. T. D.
4	Kamdara Block	.. Kamdara ..	.. 1st April, 1964	.. Ditto	.. Ditto.
5	Palkot Block	.. Palkot ..	.. 1st October, 1960	.. C. D. II ..	.. Package.
6	Dumri Block	.. Dumri ..	.. 1st April, 1958	.. C.D. II and T.D. I	.. Ditto.

			II. Gumla Subdivision—contd.		
7	Ghaghra Block	.. Ghaghra ..	.. 1st April, 1948	.. C.D. II and T.D. I	.. Package
8	Raidih Block	.. Raidih ..	.. 26th January, 1957	.. Ditto	.. Ditto.
9	Bishunpur Block	.. Bishunpur ..	.. 1st October, 1956	.. C. D. II and T. D. II	Package.
10	Chainpur Block	.. Chainpur ..	.. 1st April, 1959	.. C. D. II and T. D. I	.. Ditto.
11	Gumla Block	.. Gumla ..	.. 19th May, 1956	.. C. D. II ..	.. Ditto.
			III. Simdega Subdivision.		
1	Bano Block	.. Bano ..	.... 1st April, 1962	.. C. D. I and T. D. I	.. T. D.
2	Bolba Block	.. Bolba ..	.. 1st April, 1964	.. Ditto	.. Ditto.
3	Kurdeg Block	.. Kurdeg ..	.. 1st October, 1958	.. C. D. II and T. D. I	.. T. D. and Package.
4	Kolebira Block	.. Kolebira ..	.. 2nd October, 1957	.. Ditto	.. Ditto
5	Jaldega Block	.. Jaldega ..	.. ..	.. Ditto	.. Ditto.
6	Simdega Block	.. Simdega	.. 19th March, 1956	.. C. D. II and T. D. II	.. Ditto.
7	Thethaitangar Block	.. Thethaitangar	.. 1st April, 1955	.. C. D. II and T. D. I	.. Ditto
			IV. Khunti Subdivision.		
1	Tamar Block	.. Tamar ..	.. 1st April, 1964	.. C. D. I ..	.. Package.
2	Torpa Block	.. Torpa ..	.. 1st October, 1964	.. C. D. I and T. D. I	.. T. D.
3	Rania Block	.. Torpa ..	.. ..	Ditto	.. Ditto.
4	Murhu Block	.. Murhu ..	.. 1st April, 1958	.. C. D. II and T. D. I	.. T. D. and Package.
5	Bundu Block	.. Bundu ..	.. 1st April, 1957	.. C. D. II	.. Package.
6	Sonahatu Block	.. Sonahatu ..	.. 1st April, 1959	.. Ditto ..	.. Ditto.
7	Erki Block	.. Erki ..	.. 1st April, 1964	.. C. D. II and T. D. I	.. T. D.
8	Karra Block	.. Karra ..	.. 14th October, 1956	.. Ditto	.. T. D. and Package.
9	Khunti Block	.. Khunti ..	.. 26th January, 1957	.. Ditto	.. Ditto.

*SOURCE.—District Development Office, Ranchi.

Organisational Pattern.

The Binar Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads Act, 1961, was implemented in this district with effect from 2nd October, 1964. With the introduction of the *Panchayati Raj* the people's participation in the development programme has increased to a considerable extent. All the blocks are now under the *Zila Parishad*. The head of the office is *Adhyaksha*. The District Development Officer acts as the Secretary to the *Parishad*. The *Pramukh* is the head of the Block office and the Block Development Officer acts as the Secretary.

The *Zila Parishad* has its standing committee with the Deputy Commissioner as the co-ordinator. The Standing Committee consists of non-officials, members of the State Assembly, members of the Parliament, the District Heads of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Co-operation, Medical and Public Health, and other Development Departments. There is a similar Block team at the Block level with the Block Development Officer as the co-ordinator. The *Panchayat Samiti* consists of Sarpanches, progressive farmers and other non-officials. The organisation percolates to the village.

The organisational pattern has certain elements which may not always work for the good of the villages unless the authorities are strict. The distances of the villages interspersed with hills and jungles, make it difficult for the employees in a block to be in active touch with the villagers. It is also not always easy to get popular co-operation. Many blocks are running without a doctor and the health centres are totally neglected. As the Bihar Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads Act, 1961, has been implemented only recently, it is perhaps too early to make an appraisal as to how the changed set-up where the Block Development Officer has to act with the *Pramukh* has worked.

The items of work expected to be done by the Block Development Authorities are manifold. They have to look to the improvement of agriculture, irrigation, fishery animal husbandry, co-operative, education, etc. They have to look to the welfare of the tribals and the Scheduled Castes. Rural Works Programme has been sanctioned at Lapung, Bundu, Sonahatu, Thethaitangar and Bolba Blocks to provide employment through earthwork in slack agricultural seasons. Housing Schemes have to be pushed up and medical and public health facilities have to be provided.

Impact of Extension Work.—An investigation was made in a number of inaccessible primitive and backward villages* to ascertain the impact of community development project on the tribal and non-tribal people. It revealed that in spite of being the block headquarters, the village

* Lapung, 40 miles from Ranchi, block headquarters; Chaprong, Manhepat, Goratu, Sendur, Mugo and Hurmuhur in Senha Block.

Lapung has had little impact of extension services, on its traditional uneconomic pattern of livelihood. This may be due to the low pulse of economic existence of the villagers, which precludes them from purchasing fertilisers or obtaining loans whether in cash or in shape of improved seeds, etc. During 1963-64 six Mundas, one Mahli and one Swasi were given Rs. 1,500 as agricultural subsidy for purchase of bullocks, seeds and agricultural implements; but they spent about 50 per cent of this amount on their household. Lapung has a multi-purpose co-operative society since 1962 and a sum of Rs. 1,800 was advanced to 12 members till 1964. But no attempt was made to revive the village industries. The block dispensary was without a medical officer for about six months. This village has very poor communication and is almost cut off during the rains. There is a small surplus of man-power and they are exerting unnecessary pressure on the available lands which also have not changed their character over the last few decades. The villagers appeared to have very little initiative, otherwise they would have gone outside the village to work. The uplands are not being converted into more fertile tracts. There is no change in the traditional social pattern. About 10 Munda families each with 5 to 10 acres of land and above continue to be at the apex of the village. As usual the village is still very backward in education.

As regards the village Chaprong and others in Senha block, they have been sleepy hollows over centuries because of their inaccessibility but time still appears to stand still there. Even the *mahajans* have not infiltrated and the villagers, in spite of general poverty, are free from indebtedness. They have handicaps because of the lack of education as well as postal, medical and market facilities. Their nearest market, Raniganj, is about six miles away. Vehicular traffic is almost impossible in this area of about eight square miles within which these six villages are located. There is not even a bullock cart in any of the villages. Goods are transported to and the market as headload or on *banghi*. The villagers, by and large, lead a peaceful but dull and colourless life. Even the election of a *Mukhiya* at Chaprong *panchayat* did not stir the people of the villages Chaprong, Hurmuhur and Garatu. There were no allegations of corrupt practices or even the gift to induce voters. The two contestants from Chaprong and Garatu villages were friends and have remained so after the election. The statutory *panchayat* functions only for collecting rent and there is no judicial work. Litigation has not contaminated with the villagers. Old traditions and customs of the tribals have not changed due to the invulnerability of the area. The nearest bus or railway point is Lohardaga, more than 20 miles away from any of these villages. Agricultural conditions and practices remain almost where they were five decades ago. There has been no improvement in the livestock or poultry. The produce of the forests supplements the poor diet of the villagers. The forests

are burdened with certain rights of the villagers and this helps them in earning their livelihood. There is hardly any recreation for the villagers except drink and the only excitement may be caused by occasional drinking brawl.

In spite of fast pace of industrialisation round Ranchi, this district still lives in villages, whose general level may be little better than of those referred to above. The extension services have yet to make impact on the district.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

Miscellaneous occupations comprise public administration including local and municipal services; learned professions, e.g., medical, legal, teaching, engineering, journalism, arts, etc.; domestic and personal services, e.g., those of barbers, washermen, tailors, etc. The persons engaged in such miscellaneous occupations constitute a very small percentage of the population, though they are an important cross-section of society. Those in administration and learned professions form the intellectual backbone of society and, therefore, in spite of small number exert the maximum influence on it and lead it in most ways. The personal services of barbers, washermen, tailors, etc., are also indispenable to society and they constitute important elements among middle and lower middle classes.

Public Administration.

According to 1951 census the Statistics for Public Administration under Health, Education and Public Administration in the district are as follows*:—

Categories.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1. Health, Education and Public Administration ..	5,197	523	5,720
2. Police (other than village watchmen)	1,081	..	1,081
3. Village Officers and servants including village watchmen	213	..	213
4. Employees of Municipalities and local bodies ..	153	..	153
5. Employees of State Government	153	..	153
6. Employees of India Government	2,489	34	2,523

In 1951 census there is no specific mention about the Central Government employees. This omission is particularly significant because of the large number of persons working under the Defence Department, Accountant-General, Bihar, Central Public Works Department, etc.

Since 1951 there has been a great expansion in all departments under public administration. There is no doubt that the corresponding contemporary figures will be much large. One significant development

* *District Census Hand-book*, Ranchi (1956), pp. 72—75.

has been that women are now seen in most Government offices, particularly those of Central Government, and their strength is progressively increasing.

The expansion of Community Development Programme, other multifarious development projects, State and Central Government undertakings, Heavy Engineering Corporation, National Coal Development Corporation, Hindusthan Steel Limited, etc., have added substantially to the number of persons under miscellaneous occupations. There are 43 the number of persons under miscellaneous occupations. There are 43 Community Development Blocks in the district each employing about 200 persons. In 1964, the Accountant-General's office employed 1,738 persons; the Posts and Telegraphs Department and the Railways employed 1,608 and 926 persons respectively. The same year the National Coal Development Corporation had 2,460 employees, the Heavy Engineering Corporation 11,475; and the Hindustan Steel Limited 722 persons on pay-roll. The State-sponsored High Tension Insulator Factory employed 502 hands.

Learned Professions.

According to 1951 census the district had only 488* persons (males 339 and females 149) engaged in medical and other health services. Separate figures for persons following the legal profession were not given, but they were included in those of businessmen, numbering 1,944 persons† An enquiry was made from the Judicial Commissioner's Office, Ranchi, and it was gathered that in 1964 there were 276 legal practitioners including 199 advocates in the district. Besides, there were clerks, stamp vendors, deed-writers and various other people who make a living out of the activities connected with the legal profession.

Domestic and Personal Services.

The 1951 census enumerates the various categories as follows‡:—

...	Males.	Females.	Total.
1. Services not elsewhere specified	14,772	2,066	16,838
2. Services otherwise unclassified	10,653	646	11,299
3. Domestic services	845	1,159	2,004
4. Barbers and beauty shops	428	88	516
5. Laundry and laundry services	344	90	434
6. Hostels, restaurants and eating houses	25	2	27
7. Recreational services	181	40	221

With the increase in population of Ranchi in the wake of industrialisation, there has since been a great increase under each of the above categories. There is extreme mobility and constant interchange of occupations among them.

* *District Census Hand-Book*, Ranchi (1956), p. 72.
† *Ibid*, p. 78.
‡ *Ibid*, pp. 75—77.

CHAPTER X.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Commissioner.

The most dominant personality on the administrative scene of Chota Nagpur since early 19th century till the country achieved Independence in 1947, was the Divisional Commissioner with headquarters at Ranchi. Almost up to the close of the last century, he used to be a military man* or, had such a background. Consequent on the creation of the Province of Bihar and Orissa in 1912. its capital was temporarily located at Ranchi and even when it shifted to Patna, the summer camp of Government used to come here. This event together with the long annual sojourn of the Governor somewhat diminished the undisputed super eminence of the Commissioner in popular imagination. In the last century he was Military Commander, Revenue Collector, Diplomatic Envoy, Law-giver and Dispenser of justice. Apart from statutory powers, he drew strength from the geographical isolation of the country, which necessitated taking decisions on his part in anticipation of approval by Government. He had to deal with quasi-independent *Rajas, Maharajas* and Chiefs. He had also to tackle frequent tribal unrest on war-footing. Thus, unlike his counterparts elsewhere, he had to show much more initiative and drive in administration extending over a vast tract of land comprising the districts of Ranchi, Palamau, Hazaribagh, Manbhum†, Dhanbad and Singhbhum. He was also the Political Agent of the Governor-General (and later Viceroy) of India in respect of the Tributary States in Chota Nagpur till 1905 when the Political States in his charge were transferred to the Superintendent of the Tributary *mahals* of Orissa and some to the Political Agent, Raipur (Madhya Pradesh). On creation of the post of Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, he handed over most of his judicial functions to him and also left the routine administration of the district to the Deputy Commissioner, supervising his work closely, particularly in respect of revenue matters.

The position of the Commissioner was strengthened by Sir Andrew Henderson Leith Fraser, K.C.S.I., who, soon after his appointment as Lt.-Governor of Bengal in October, 1906 introduced a system of placing allotments at the disposal of the Commissioners of Divisions, from which

* *See* Appendix I to this Chapter, p. 850. Now this post is held by one of the seniormost officers of the Indian Administrative Service.

† In 1956 major portion of this district was transferred to West Bengal, now constituting Purulia district.

they could make grant for public purposes and remedy small defects brought to their notice. This brought the Commissioner more in touch with the public and the time-lag in correspondence was avoided. Since then the trends of decentralisation took a definite shape and more and more powers flowed from Government to Commissioners, from Commissioners to Deputy Commissioners and then to Subdivisional Officers.

Sir Andrew was a great believer in personal contact for the smooth running of administration. With a view to bring the Commissioners in close association with the Government as well as Heads of Departments he instituted annual conferences where all administrative measures of general importance were discussed and thrashed out. The Commissioners were also asked to hold similar annual conferences of Collectors in their jurisdiction and preside over them and also to be in close touch with the districts and subdivisions through tour. He also gave his attention to the position of the Commissioner in relation to matters not falling within the official duties of the latter as defined by laws and rules. This question was referred to in a conference at which all the Commissioners and Heads of Departments and some senior judicial officers were present. It was unanimously agreed that as the seniormost officer in the Division, the Commissioner must be entrusted to look into cases of personal misconduct and mutual quarrels among officers and straighten their social relations, as far as possible.

The present role of the Commissioner is a continuation of the aforesaid duties. The system of placing allotments at his disposal is continuing and he has now much wider powers in financial matters than his predecessors enjoyed five decades back. He exercises a general control over the conduct of affairs within his Division. He is to see that the local officers duly perform their duties, and that the orders issued by Government are carried into effect. All cases of intricate nature and doubt he has to refer to Government and to the Board of Revenue, but he is fully authorised to pass interim orders to carry on the administration. He is the Presiding Officer of his Division for all the multifarious development works. If he has been divested partially of his former judicial functions, he has now responsibilities for implementing the policy of Government relating to Welfare State. To assist him in his developmental work a post of Regional Development Officer was created in 1962. This officer is of the rank of an Additional District Magistrate and under the direct control of the Commissioner. His main function is to inspect the Community Development Blocks in the Division. Besides, the Commissioner is helped by a Personal Assistant who is also of the rank of an Additional District Magistrate. He apprises the Commissioner of the details of work done in the office and disposes of routine files under the overall supervision of the Commissioner.

The present strength of the officers and staff* of the office of the Commissioner, Chota Nagpur Division, is as follows:—

Officers.

Commissioner	1	
P. A. to Commissioner	1	
Regional Development Officer	1	
Divisional Hindi Training Instructor ..	1	(Post vacant)
TOTAL ..	4	

Ministerial Staff (Class III).

Selection Grade Posts	3
Upper Division Posts	12
Lower Division Posts	27
Stenographer, Class I	1
Stenographer, Class II	2
Steno.-typist	1
Statistical Specialist	1
Statistical Computer	1
Head Typist	1
Typist, Class I	1
Typist, Class II	8
Routine Clerk, Selection Grade	1
Routine Clerk	3
TOTAL ..	62

Class IV Staff.

Daftary	2
Driver (Staff Car)	1
Record Supplier	1
Head Orderly	1
Peons and orderlies	14
Mali	1
Contingent menials	4
TOTAL ..	24

* As on 31st March, 1968.

DEPUTY COMMISSIONER.

The general administration of the district is in charge of the Deputy Commissioner, who is a member of the Indian Administrative Service. The over-all control and supervision of the police is also vested in him and he is responsible for law and order. Subject to the control and superintendence of the Divisional Commissioner and of the Member, Board of Revenue, he is also head of the land revenue administration in the district and is assisted in this matter by an Additional Collector.

The Deputy Commissioner is also responsible for the implementation of all development schemes and has been given formal control over officers of all other departments of State Government at district level. The present scheme of development administration is a three-tier system, comprising the *gram panchayat* at the base, the *panchayat samiti* at the block level and the *zila parishad* at the apex. Most of the development works have to be done through the agency of *panchayats* subject to the supervision and control of the *panchayat samiti* and *zila parishad.* The *zila parishad* allots funds received from Government and directs as to how a particular scheme should be implemented.

Subdivisional Officer.—There are four subdivisions in the district, viz., Sadar, Gumla, Khunti and Simdega, each under a Subdivisional Officer who may be either a junior member of the Indian Administrative Service or one of the State Civil Service (Executive Branch). His main charge is : Law and Order, Land Revenue and Development works. He is assisted by a number of Deputy and Sub-Deputy Collectors. His office is a miniature of that of the Deputy Commissioner and he has practically all the sections of the Collectorate in his office. He co-ordinates the activities of other departments of Government at the subdivisional level, and also exercises general control over *panchayat samiti* and *gram panchayat* in his jurisdiction.

Blocks.—The district has 43 Community Development Blocks, 16 being tribal blocks, namely, Namkum, Kisko and Chanho (Sadar subdivision); Bishunpur, Dumri, Ghaghra and Chainpur (Gumla subdivision); Karra, Khunti, Murhu and Erki (Khunti subdivision); and Simdega, Thethaitangar, Kolebira, Bano and Jaldea (Simdega subdivision). Each block is in charge of a gazetted officer either from State Civil or Agricultural Service.

Anchals.—There are 39 *Anchals,* each in charge of an *Anchaladhikari,* for the collection of Government revenue in the district.

Gazetted Officers.—The Deputy Commissioner has the following Gazetted officers under him*:—

District Headquarters.

(1) Additional Collector	1
(2) District Development Officer (Also Secretary, *Zila Parishad*).	1
(3) Special Officer, Package Programme (Intensive Agriculture District Programme).	1
(4) Deputy Collectors	6
(5) Sub-Deputy Collector	1
(6) Treasury Officer (Senior Finance Service) ..	1
(7) Assistant Treasury Officer (Junior Finance Service)	1
(8) Land Acquisition Officer	1
(9) Additional Land Acquisition Officers	3
(10) District Supply Officer	1
(11) Assistant District Supply Officer	1
(12) District Welfare Officer	1
(13) District Panchayat Officer	1
(14) District Accounts Officer (Senior Finance Service) ..	1
(15) Waste Land Reclamation Officer	1
(16) P. A. to Deputy Commissioner	1
(17) District Sub-Registrar	1

Subdivisional Headquarters.	Sadar.	Gumla.	Khunti.	Simdega.
(1) Subdivisional Officer ..	1	1	1	1
(2) Deputy Collector (Land Reforms).	1	1	1	1
(3) Deputy Collectors ..	2	2	2	2
(4) Sub-Deputy Collectors ..	5	3	2	2
(5) Assistant District Supply Officers.	2	2	2	2
(6) Block Development Officers	16	9	11	7
(7) *Anchaladhikaris* ..	7	4	5	3

* As on 31st March, 1968.

The collectorate has the following sections with respective distribution of work*:—

Section I—Confidential.—This deals with all confidential correspondence of the Deputy Commissioner and is in his direct charge.

Section II—General.—Law and Order; Agrarian Disputes; Maintenance of Public Order Act; Collective Fines; Police and Homeguards; Requisitioning and Derequisitioning of property; Allotment of houses; Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board; Cinema and other performances; Licences (Arms, Explosives, etc.); Press including examination of newspaper cuttings; Public Relations; Relief and Rehabilitation of displaced persons from Pakistan; Evacuee Property Act; Passports and visas; Political sufferers; Domicile certificate; Jails; Supply and Price Control; Anti-Corruption; Assembly, Council and Parliament questions; Local Bodies, i.e., Municipalities, District Boards, Notified Area Committees and other Union Committees; Library; Forms and Stationery; Labour including Minimum Wages Act; Workmen's compensation; etc.

Section III—Revenue.—Land Reforms; Tenancy Act; Rent Cess; Khas Mahal; Rent Commutation; Chaukidari; Settlement; Balabandi; Malkhana; Registration; Chakrana; Embankment; Excise and opium; Kanungo Establishment; Taxation Measures; Record Room; Copying Department; Certificate; Nazarat; Circuit House; Land Acquisition; Ferries; Mining; Treasure Trove; Stamps; Crop and Weather Reports; Flood and Scarcity.

Section IV—Development.—Five-Year Plan and Co-ordination; District Planning Committee; District Education Committee; Community Project and National Extension Service; Local Development Works Programme; Irrigation (Major, Medium and Minor); Reclamation of Waste Land; Welfare of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes; Gram Panchayats; Vested Zamindari Improvement Works; Statistics; Forest; Loans including Agriculturists' Loans; Land Improvement Loans, Loans under the State Aid to Industries Act, etc.; National Savings Scheme; Works staff in the district.

Section V—Establishment.—Personal cases—maintenance of service books, character rolls, leave account, etc., of personnel employed under the Collector; Appointments, postings and transfers; Leave; Departmental Proceedings; Provident Fund, Gratuity; Pensions; Security; Bill and Budget Works of the Collectorate.

Section VI—Legal.—Revenue and Judicial Munshikhana; Civil Suits: Pauper Suits; Criminal Motions; Inspection of Trial Registers; Appeals; Correspondence with the Legal Remembrancer; High Court; Release of Prisoners; Pleaders; Mukhtears and Revenue Agents; Probate; Religious

* This reorganised scheme is based on the recommendations of Shri B. D. Pande, I.C.S.

Endowments; Criminal Fines; Law Agents and Law Clerks; Other Criminal, Civil or Revenue Appeals or Motions and matters connected therewith; Court Malkhana.

Section VII—Treasury and Accounts—Sale of stamps.—Prior to this reorganisation there was a certain amount of distinction between a sadar and a mofussil subdivision. Now both are at par, each having sections of work on the analogy of the District office.

With the vesting of *zamindaris* in the State, the *Khas Mahal* merged in Land Reforms. The Landlord Fee Office of the Collectorate was also abolished as with the vesting of *zamindaris* no money-orders had to be sent or acknowledged.

Under the present reorganised set-up there is adequate delegation of powers to the officers at all levels.

State Excise Department.—Excise is one of the principal sources of revenue of this district. The Deputy Commissioner is the head of the local excise administration and is assisted by the Superintendent of Excise, and also the Deputy Commissioner of Excise, Southern Range, with his headquarters at Ranchi. The subordinate staff consists of 6 Excise Inspectors, 30 Excise Sub-Inspectors; 14 Excise Assistant Sub-Inspectors and 110 Excise peons. The Excise Assistant Sub-Inspectors as well as Excise peons are empowered to arrest an offender under Excise Act in an open place.

The Excise administration of the district is governed by a twofold system, one is known as sliding scale system and the other as auction system. Under sliding scale a shop is settled with a person by lottery amongst the suitable and approved candidates and he is allowed to run the shop from year to year if he runs it efficiently and honestly. Under the auction system the shops are settled by bids to the highest bidders for one year unless the Deputy Commissioner has reasons to believe that the bid is of a speculative character. The auction shops are outstill shops, *pachwai* shops and toddy shops.

The outstill system is in vogue in the whole of Simdega subdivision and in the police-stations of Chainpur, Raidih and Bishunpur in Gumla subdivision. This system is calculated to be an effective check against illicit distillations as these areas are usually hilly and jungly, full of *mahua* trees offering a great incentive for illicit traffic in liquor. The minimum price for a bottle of liquor of about 20 oz. is 25 Paise.

The system applies for liquor and drug shops as well. The spirit is manufactured in the distillery which is in charge of an Inspector and then supplied to the warehouses—at Sadar, Khunti, Bundu, Mandar, Lohardaga, Bharno, Gumla and Basia, each being in charge of a Sub-Inspector. In warehouses spirit of the strength of 140 to 160 over proof

is reduced with water to issueable strengths, i.e., 50.0, 72.5 and 80.0 under proof for distilleries and 45.0 under proof for outstill, and then issued to retail vendors on pre-payment of duty and cost price.

The main source of excise revenue* in the district is the country spirit, manufactured in the distillery at Ranchi and the outstills which contribute about 90 per cent of the total revenue. *Pachwai* is also a favourite drink of the Adivasis and licenses for such shops yield about 4 per cent of the total excise revenue. Opium, *ganja* and *bhang* together contribute another 2 per cent of the revenue. Foreign liquor, commercial spirit, spirit, toddy and miscellaneous items contribute 4 per cent of the total revenue.

There is no prohibition in this district. An attempt, however, is made to restrict consumption of liquor by raising its price and also narcotics through increase of excise duty and imposing certain restrictions against consumption of intoxicants at public places. Bar licenses are also restricted.

There is a *ganja* and *bhang gola* at Sadar and the retail vendors take issues from the *gola* on pre-payment of duty and cost price (*goladari*).

The sale of opium through retail shops has been stopped since 1st April 1959, as a measure of prohibition. At present it is supplied from the Opium Depot at Ranchi to opium addicts on production of permit granted by the medical authorities.

Registration Office.

Act XVI of 1908, the present Registration Act, came into force on the 1st January 1909.

The earliest attempt to introduce a method of systematic registration was made in Bengal by an Ordinance passed in 1781. But this Ordinance, with rules and regulations applied only to the town of Calcutta. The Regulation XXXVI of 1793 appears to be the next Statute which established an office for the registration of deeds at the Sadar station of each *zila* (district) and the cities of Patna, Dacca and Murshidabad. Another Regulation no. XXXIX of the same year appointed a *Qazi-ul-Quazzat* for the whole of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and *Quazis* for the district and prescribed their duties. They were required to keep copies of all documents and other papers which they might draw up or attest and to affix thereto their seals and signature. The post of the District *Qazi* commanded much respect. Probably the continuance of a Muslim in this post for decades led to an influx of Mohammadans in the registration office. In early periods documents were written in Urdu (*Sikasta*) character, though a few are found written in Kaithi and Bengali also. The earliest document found written in Kaithi character dates back to

* For amount of excise revenue, *see* Chapter on Revenue Administration.

1820 while that in Bengali to 1840. From 1865 onward documents are found written in four languages, viz., Urdu, Kaithi, Bengali and English. The first document in English character relates to year 1869. Endorsements on documents came to be written in English from 1865 by the registering officers. Before that no endorsements on document were written at all.

The first general law of registration applicable throughout British India was passed by Act XVI of 1864. The provisions of this Act practically continue till the present day. All the subsequent enactments have either been amendments in minor details or re-enactments of these Acts, with the amendments embodied. The *Qazis* and their successors in the office of Sub-Registrars were paid by fees on commission basis till October, 1905 when they were graded and began to get salaries. The registry office at Ranchi was opened in 1865 though Lohardaga continued to be the registration district till 1888. It appears that before 1865 the District Officer used to endorse documents from time to time but no copy was kept. The Lohardaga Registry Office and the Ranchi Sub-Registry Office (amalgamated) were held from 1865 to 1878 at Ranchi. The Lohardaga Sub-Registry Office was opened on September, 1880 under the local Munsif. It was converted into a rural office in February, 1883 and abolished in February, 1904 when it was transferred to Gumla. It was re-opened in 1907 at Lohardaga and has since continued there. The Gumla Sub-Registry Office was opened in 1907 and has continued since then and undergone expansion with the growth of the subdivisional headquarters. The Sub-Registry Office at Bundu was transferred to Khunti in 1907. The Simdega Sub-Registry Office is functioning since 1924. Now there are five registration offices, one each at Ranchi, Lohardaga, Gumla, Simdega and Khunti in this district.

The District Sub-Registrar at Ranchi is the administrative head of the registration offices and works under the control of the Deputy Commissioner. He deals with the documents presented for registration at the Sadar Registration Office and supervises the work of the Sub-Registrars of the outlying offices. He generally assists the Deputy Commissioner, who is *ex-officio* District Registrar. He is also the Registrar of Births and Deaths under Act IV of 1886 and of marriages and divorces under Act XII of 1880.

The incidence of rise and fall in the number of registration in different years depends primarily on economic factors as well as particular legislations. In 1908, the total number of documents registered in the district was 12,670. On the introduction of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act, 1908, the number of registration fell to 8,491 in 1910 and 7,227 in 1911. The reason for this fall was that the Act prohibited the transfer of *raiyati* holding and the Act permitted mortgages under certain conditions only for a term of years. Since 1911, mortgages became more

common, but the *raiyats* also learnt to circumvent the prohibitory provisions of the Act. They used to surrender their holdings to the landlords, who were in collusion with them, and the latter settled the holdings with the intending purchaser. Thus sale of *raiyati* holdings was effected indirectly. Thus the number of registration gradually increased. Later, on the amendment of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act in 1938, which, to some extent relaxed the restriction on transfer of *raiyati* holding, the increase was considerable. Further amendment of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act in 1947, which came into force in May, 1948, imposed more stringent restriction regarding transfer of *raiyati* holdings owned by aboriginals and people belonging to Scheduled Castes. This considerably affected the incidence of registration of documents.

District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.

The District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board, Ranchi, was created in 1943 when a very large number of men had joined the armed forces during the World War II. In keeping with the usual organisational pattern this Board works under the control of the Deputy Commissioner, who is its *ex-officio* President. The State Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board, Patna, which is a section of the Political General Department of the State Government, exercises administrative and financial control over it. The Indian Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board, New Delhi, which is a section of the Directorate of Resettlement, Ministry of Defence, has overall policy control on the whole organisation. Bihar has absorbed the Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Boards in its regular public services as a permanent department from February, 1964.

The main functions of this Board are to look after the welfare of discharged armed service personnel and the families of the serving and deceased members of the armed forces. It has a paid wholetime Secretary and a few welfare workers, who tour round their allocated areas constantly, contact ex-soldiers and families of servicemen and report about their welfare. They also forward report on matters which are passed on to them for enquiry.

The Board has an Executive Committee, consisting of the Deputy Commissioner as *ex-officio* President, the District Heads of Police, Medical, Education, Employment Exchange, Co-operative departments as *ex-officio* members and another set of six members taken from the business community, legal profession and ex-soldiers. This Committee meets every three months to review the welfare measures for ex-soldiers etc., and devise ways and means to bring about improvements. Reunions and rallies of ex-servicemen are also held regularly.

APPENDIX I.

THE COMMISSIONERS, CHOTA NAGPUR DIVISION.*

1. Major E. R. Roughsedge	..	1818 to 1821.
2. Major W. R. Gilbert	..	1822 to 1827|1828.
3. Major W. G. Mackenzie	..	1827|1828 to 1829.
4. Captain T. Wilkinson	..	6th May 1830 to 1st March 1839.
5. Major J. R. Ouseley	..	4th April 1839 to 22nd April 1849.
6. Captain J. Hannyngton	..	23rd April 1849 to 16th August 1849.
7. J. H. Crawford	..	16th August 1849 to 5th July 1853.
8. W. J. Alien	..	5th July 1853 to 4th January 1857.
9. Col. E. T. Dalton	..	5th January 1857 to 28th February 1875.
10. E. Lef Robinson	..	1st March 1875 to 24th April 1877.
11. V. T. Taylor	..	25th April 1877 to 8th March 1878.
12. A. C. Mangles	..	28th March 1878 to 26th October 1878.
13. J. E. K. Hewitt, C.S.	..	27th October 1878 to 24th April 1882.
14. J. W. Edgar, C.S.I.	..	25th April 1882 to 5th November 1882.
15. J. E. K. Hewitt, C.S.	..	6th November 1882 to 10th April 1885.
16. C. C. Stevens, C.S.	..	11th April 1885 to 4th July 1888.
17. J. A. Hopkins, C.S.	..	5th July 1888 to 6th October 1888.
18. C. C. Stevens, C.S.	..	7th October 1888 to 26th April 1889.
19. W. H. Grimley, C.S.	..	27th April 1889 to 11th August 1891.
20. Col. E. G. Littingston, C.S.	..	12th August 1891 to 10th November. 1891.
21. W. H. Grimley, C.S.	..	11th November 1891 to 29th May 1892.

* SOURCE.—Commissioner's Office, Ranchi and Member, Board of Revenue Library, Patna.

22. A. A. Wage, C.S.	..	30th May 1892 to 25th October 1892.
23. W. H. Grimley, C.S.	..	26th October 1892 to 3rd September 1894.
24. Lt.-Col. A. E. Gordon	..	4th September 1894 to 1st November 1894.
25. W. H. Grimley, C.S.	..	2nd November 1894 to 26th March 1896.
26. C. R. Marindin, C.S.	..	27th March 1896 to 1st July 1896.
27. G. Toynbee, C.S.	..	2nd July 1896 to 1st August 1896.
28. C. R. Marindin, C.S.	..	2nd August 1896 to 8th December 1896.
29. A. Forbes, C.S.I.	..	9th December 1896 to 26th July 1899.
30. J. G. Ritchie, C.S.	..	27th July 1899 to 25th October 1899.
31. A. Forbes, C.S.I.	..	26th October 1899 to 15th April 1901.
32. W. C. Macpherson, C.S.	..	16th April 1901 to 25th June 1901.
33. A Forbes, C.S.I.	..	26th June 1901 to 6th January 1902.
34. W. Maude, C.S.	..	7th January 1902 to 13th February 1902.
35. F. A. Slacke, I.C.S.	..	14th February 1902 to 6th June 1903.
36. W. Maude, C.S.	..	7th June 1903 to 17th August 1903.
37. F. A. Slacke, I.C.S.	..	18th August 1903 to 9th March 1904.
38. P. C. Lyon, I.C.S.	..	10th March 1904 to 24th April 1904.
39. W. Maude, I.C.S.	..	25th April 1904 to 28th September 1904.
40. F. A. Slacke, I.C.S.	..	29th September 1904 to 1st October 1905.
41. C. A. Radice, I.C.S.	..	2nd October 1905 to 21st November 1905.

42. E. A. Gait, I.C.S.	..	22nd November 1905 to 12th March 1907.
43. F. W. Duke, I.C.S.	.	13th March 1907 to 8th April 1907.
44. L. P. Shirres, I.C.S.	..	9th April 1907 to 22nd September 1907.
45. F. A. Slacke, I.C.S.	..	23rd September 1907 to 26th September 1907.
46. H. J. McIntosh, I.C.S.	..	27th September 1907 to 14th April 1909.
47. W. B. Thomson, I.C.S.	..	15th April 1909 to 13th May 1909.
48. H. J. McIntosh, I.C.S.	..	14th May 1909 to 24th March 1910.
49. E. Geake, I.C.S.	..	25th March 1910 to 23rd October 1910.
50. H. J. McIntosh, I.C.S.	..	24th October 1910 to 27th July 1912.
51. L. J. Kershaw, C.I.E., I.C.S.	..	28th July 1912 to 8th November 1912.
52. H. T. S. Forrest, I.C.S.	..	9th November 1912 to 28th November 1912.
53. E. H. C. Walsh, C.S.I., I.C.S.	..	29th November 1912 to 9th November 1913.
54. W. Egerton, I.C.S.	..	10th November 1913 to 2nd April 1914.
55. H. T. S. Forrest, I.C.S.	..	3rd April 1914 to 15th May 1914.
56. E. H. C. Walsh, C.S.I., I.C.S.	..	16th May 1914 to 5th May 1915.
57. H. T. S. Forrest, I.C.S.	..	6th May 1915 to 8th November 1915.
58. E. H. C. Walsh, C.S.I., I.C.S.	..	9th November 1915 to 14th March 1916.
59. H. T. S. Forrest, I.C.S.	..	15th March 1916 to 14th September 1916.
60. B. Foley, I.C.S.	..	15th September 1916 to 26th January 1920.

61. W. B. Heycock, I.C.S	..	27th January 1920 to 26th April 1920.
62. B. Foley, I.C.S.	..	27th April 1920 to 29th November 1920.
63. F. F. Lyall, C.I.E., I.C.S.	..	30th November 1920 to 12th April 1922.
64. H. T. S. Forrest, I.C.S.	..	18th April 1922 to 15th October 1922.
65. F. F. Lyall, C.I.E., I.C.S.	.	16th October 1922 to 30th September 1923.
66. P. W. Murphy, I.C.S.	..	1st October 1923 to 25th October 1923.
67. F. P. Dixon, I.C.S.	..	26th October 1923 to 14th April 1927.
68. H. T. S. Forrest, I.C.S.	..	15th April 1927 to 9th April 1928.
69. E. H. Berthoud, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.		10th April 1928 to 2nd April 1929.
70. J. R. Dain, C.I.E., I.C.S.	..	3rd April 1929 to 14th April 1929.
71. E. H. Berthoud, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.		15th April 1929 to 5th May 1930.
72. J. A. Hubback, I.C.S.	..	6th May 1930 to 22nd March 1931.
73. A. D. Tuckey, I.C.S.	..	23rd March 1931 to 6th October 1931.
74. A. P. Middleton, I.C.S.	..	8th November 1931 to 14th February 1932.
75. J. A. Hubback, I.C.S.	..	15th February 1932 to 7th August 1933.
76. H. E. Horsfield. I.C.S.	..	8th August 1933 to 12th October 1933.
77. C. L. Phillip, C.I.E., I.C.S.	..	13th October 1933 to 6th May 1934.
78. H. E. Horsfield. I.C.S.	..	7th May 1934 to 6th December 1934.
79. J. L. Merriman, I.C.S.	..	7th December 1934 to 10th November 1935.
80. A. P. Middleton, I.C.S.	..	11th November 1935 to 12th March 1939.

81. E. R. J. R. Cousins, C.I.E., I.C.S.		13th March 1939 to 8th November 1939.
82. E. O. Lee, I.C.S.	..	9th November 1939 to 15th November 1942.
83. M. M. Phillip, I.C.S.	..	16th November 1942 to 12th December 1946.

Among these Commissioners' Major J. R. Ouseley (1839–49) is remembered for developing the town of Ranchi in its earliest phase; Col. E. T. Dalton (1857–75) for his major contribution to law and order and also for developing the present headquarters of Palamau, i.e., Daltonganj, then a hamlet, named after him; and E. A. Gait (later Sir, Governor of Bihar and Orissa) for development of Netarhat as a health resort and beauty spot.

In contrast to long tenures of Commissioners in earlier times, frequent short-term transfers of later incumbents may be attributed to limited scope of substantive promotion as Commissioner as this post was ranked very high in official hierarchy in those days and its numerical strength was kept at the minimum to lend grandeur to it. Therefore, even a very short-term posting in some leave vacancy was a covetous achievement.

Among the later Commissioners, J. R. Dain rose to be Governor of Orissa, on its separation from Bihar in 1936 and later held the post of Chairman of Central Public Service Commission; J. A. Hubback was also Governor of Orissa*.

* The miniature portraits of some of these Commissioners hung on the walls of the present court room of Commissioner, Chota Nagpur, provide interesting source materials for study of sartorial transition from Victorian to Edwardian age as also from bushy bearded appearance of Administrators of 19th century to ' Curzonian ' clean-shaved face of those in present century.

CHAPTER XI.

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

History of Land Revenue Administration.

Origin of revenue.—The origin of land revenue administration in this district may be traced back to the feudal order which replaced the primitive tribal society in early time when the Chief of Khukhra, ancestor of the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur, became the feudal superior of the tribal chiefs and his authority came to be recognised, both by the Mundas and the Oraons and also other inhabitants of the district, who agreed to render him certain feudal services and also pay him some small tribute.

Chota Nagpur Raj.—In course of time, the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur invited settlers from Bihar and upper India, for protection against external enemies as well as to control his own turbulent vessals. He achieved this object by making grants of villages on easy conditions; frequently the grantees were only required to render personal service and to keep up a standing force of militia, and, in return, were left free to make what they could out of their villages. They would render merely a few petty services and pay an insignificant tribute and, as they were more civilised and better organised than the aborigines, they succeeded in ousting them from their position of proprietors of the soil, reduced them to the position of mere cultivators or tenants, imposed payments of various kinds and exacted greatly increased services. Thus it came about; the Maharaja established his position as the overlord of the whole of Chota Nagpur, the Hindu settlers introduced by him, and the members of his family to whom maintenance grants were given became his subordinate tenure-holders, while the aborigines sank to the position of rent-paying tenants.*

Muhammadan sovereignty.—In 1585 A.D. the Raja of Khukhra, became a tributary of the Muhammadans. The subjection was at first purely nominal; the Mughals exacted no yearly tribute and were content with making occasional raids into the country and carrying off as tribute a few diamonds which were found at that time in the Sankh river. In 1616, Emperor Jahangir sought to make the subjection more real, and his Lieutenant Ibrahim Khan, the Governor of Bihar, defeated Raja Durjan Sal and carried him off as captive to Delhi. Twelve years later he secured his release, owing, it is said, to his skill in testing diamonds, and agreed to pay an annual tribute of Rs. 6,000. Even after this the

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 184.

Muhammadans exercised but little control over the internal affairs of the district and were content if they received a portion of the stipulated tribute.

British rule.—The district together with the rest of Chota Nagpur came under British subjection in 1765, when the *diwani* of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa was ceded by the Nawab. At first the British made little attempt to bring the country under their administration and it was not till 1769 that Captain Camac penetrated into the country. The revenue of Nagpur, which amount to only Rs. 4,000 was paid at this time through the Raja of Ramgarh, but in 1771 the Raja of Nagpur applied to Captain Camac for permission to pay his revenue direct to Government and also for the restoration of some disputed tracts of territory. The Council of Patna agreeing with Captain Camac as to the importance of securing the good-will of this Raja, whose country could form a barrier against the incursions of the Mahrattas, made a slight rectification of the boundaries in favour of Nagpur and a settlement with Raja Drip Nath Sahi, by which he stipulated to pay an annual revenue of Rs. 12,000 including customs and transit duties. The agreement was for a period of three years (1772–75). The Raja, however, defaulted in making payments, and towards the end of 1773 Captain Camac had to send an expedition to the country to make him fulfil his obligations. In 1774, the settlement was renewed for a period of three years and according to the *patta* the revenue was fixed at Rs. 15,001*, of which Rs. 12,001 were revenue and Rs. 3,000 *nazarana*. In the *kabuliyat* given to the Raja in 1787 he agreed not to levy *sayer* and other prohibited cesses, for which he had received a deduction to be responsible for the safety of travellers and to arrest thieves and *dakaits* and bring them to justice. In case he failed to pay the stipulated revenue, his estate or such portions thereof as might be necessary were declared to be saleable. The terms of the *patta* and *kabuliyat* given at the time of the decennial settlement on the 3rd May, 1790 are exactly similar to those contained in the *kabuliyat* and *patta* of 1787. The revenue agreed upon was Rs. 14,100-15-3, the difference of Rs. 900 as compared with the *Jama* fixed at previous settlements being due to the remission on account of exchange. The settlement with the Raja does not appear to have been formally declared permanent, but when the point was raised in 1799, the Board of Revenue, in reply to a reference, held that the revenue was fixed for ever under Regulation I of 1793 and this decision was upheld when the point was again raised by Collector of Ramgarh in 1823.

Up to 1799 the revenue of the estate was paid to the Collector of Chatra. A *Suzawal* (agent), appointed by the Collector but paid by the Raja, was attached to the estate. The Raja made over to him a certain

* The apparent increase may be due to the exclusion of *pargana* Tori from the earlier settlement.

proportion of the harvests under the appellation of *taidad*. From this the *Suzawal* realised the Government revenue and his own allowances, returning the balance, if any, to the Raja. In 1799-1800 when the Collectorship of Ramgarh was temporarily abolished and the district was annexed to the revenue jurisdiction of Bihar, the system of collection in vogue was discontinued and balances began to accumulate. In 1808, at the Raja's request, a *Suzawal* was again appointed and soon after a Deputy Collector was appointed at Ramgarh.

Sayer and excise.—A frequent subject of dispute between the Raja and the British authorities about the year 1820 concerned the *sayer* and excise duties. The general policy of Government at the time of the Decennial Settlement was to take into their own hands the collection of the duties and to compensate the Zamindars for the consequent loss of income by a remission of revenue. The conditions of Chota Nagpur differed greatly from those of Bihar, and Leslie, the Collector of Ramgarh, in June, 1789, represented that the collection of the *sayer* by Government officials would stir up the opposition of the people of the district, and in a letter written a few months later reported that "the *sayer* collections consist only of three articles at present, viz., '*gungeat, gauthwari* and *hawt* duties', none of which can be in my opinion discontinued without a disadvantage to Government; but as the *gungeat* is composed of two articles, viz., a duty on the sale of goods and one on passing through, called *nikhusai*, I think the latter ought to be struck off as a hardship to traders".

Though it is not quite clear what policy Government followed in the matter, it is certain that the Raja did not receive any remission of revenue but that a remission was granted to the Rajas of Ramgarh and Palamau and that the covenants executed by him in 1790 contained the same conditions as those granted to these and other zamindars, and stated that a deduction had been made for *sayer*. He did not, however, raise the question of remission till much later and appears to have gone on collecting the duties, the British authorities having but a weak control over the country and being unable or reluctant to raise any objections. The question of transit duties appears to have been raised in 1823, and the Collector, holding their collection to be prohibited by the Raja's covenant, advised the merchants not to pay and to resist any attempt to realise them. The Board of Revenue called on the Raja to state his claim for a remission on account of the abolition of *sayer*, and he based his claim chiefly on the ground that his estate had been expressly exempted from the scope of the Regulations and that the *sayer* and *abkari* collected by him for the last 35 years had been used to defray the cost of the police thanas and preserve the peace of the district. The Collector, in forwarding his petition, disposed of the argument that he was not bound by the Regulations by referring to a *parwana* of 1780,

which directed the Raja to discontinue the collection of *sayer* and produce *sayer* accounts, on which the remissions were granted, and contended that the Raja was bound by the terms of the covenant which he had accepted without objection for many years. He also pointed out that the Raja could claim no consideration on the ground of the expenditure incurred in the upkeep of the police, as he kept them heavily in arrears and allowed them to pay themselves by extorting money from the inhabitants under warrants granted by himself. The final orders of the Board in this matter are not extant but it appears that no remission on account of *sayer* was granted. Webster, a former Manager of the Chota Nagpur Estate, considered that the Raja was harshly treated in this matter. The British authorities, however, held that the Raja was himself responsible for this anomaly as he allowed the inclusion of the condition in his covenant to pass without protest and continued to collect the duties, both those which were legal and those which had been abolished.

With regard to the excise duties, there is no doubt that the Raja received no compensation, when this source of revenue was resumed by Government in 1823 and the collection farmed out for the whole *pargana* for Rs. 6,500. The Raja had for many years steadfastly opposed any attempts on the part of the authorities to take over the excise and represented that the result of such action would be to drive the Kols back to their old home in Rohtas and thus endanger the public revenue. He also asserted that the collections were no source of profit to him or his *jagirdars*. Perhaps this confusing stand led to his failure to obtain any remission of revenue.

Status of the Raja.—Another question of some historical interest is whether the Raja had any claim to be regarded as a Feudatory Chief. This claim is based chiefly on a Resolution of 1789 which exempted the district from the regulations, and also on the fact that, in the early days of British administration, the Raja was given a very free hand in the internal affairs of the district, the only interference being by the despatch of small detachments to secure the arrest of a criminal and to assist the chief in realising his dues from his subordinate tenure-holders. The question was finally disposed of by the orders of Government issued in 1824, in which it was held that the district had only been exempted from the Land Revenue regulations and that the general regulations applied to Chota Nagpur in the same way as to other parts of the province.*

British and Chota Nagpur Raj.

Strained relations.—The relations between the Raja of Chota Nagpur and the early British Administration were far from cordial. The Marathas commenced their incursions in 1792 and made three raids in course of six years which taxed the resources of the Raja to the utmost.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 184—88.

In 1793, when he was in arrears, it was proposed to sell a portion of his estate, but the arrears were paid up ultimately. But in 1798, the Raja again pleaded his inability to discharge the payment on ground of his loss during the Maratha raids. Apart from default in payment of stipulated revenue, the failure of the Raja in assisting the British operation through the jungly part of Nagpur to Sambhalpur to check the Maratha incursion and his resistance to the imposition of excise duties within this territory by the Collector were also matters of constant complaints by the British against him. In 1808, Captain Roughsedge marched into the country with his troop. Din Dayal, Diwan of the Raja, with his adherents fled to Calcutta where they were arrested and brought back to Chatra. The Raja submitted and paid up the arrears of revenue, amounting to Rs. 35,000.

About 1820 the points of dispute between the Raja and the British Government concerned *sayer* and excise duties. The Collector estimated that the Raja and his tenure-holders collected about Rs. 8,000 as revenue from *abkars* of the stills. Besides, proprietors of village *hats* collected various duties under denomination of *rusoom gungeat*.

There were 67 hill passes, of which only 29 were frequented by *beoparis* (traders and travellers). These passes (*ghats*) were farmed out by the Raja and yielded an annual revenue of about Rs. 8,000. This *sayer* called *rahdari*, though prohibited, was still collected by the *ghatwals* of the villages in the immediate vicinity of these *ghats*. Large quantities of contraband salt were imported from the province of Cuttack. The *beoparies* paid @ ½ *puka paisa* on each bullock laden with salt, iron, tobacco or other saleable articles and in lieu of payment received protection of the chaukidars while passing through these *ghats*. It appears that the conflict between the Raja and the British authorities arose from the desire of the latter to appropriate the revenue from all sources of *sayer* and excise. Besides, the British administration was not tolerant to the semblance of independence on the part of the Raja and was keen to destroy it as early as possible.

Subordinate tenures.—The tenures subordinate to the Raja of Chota Nagpur may be divided into three classes—(1) those of the dependent Rajas, (2) service tenures, and (3) maintenance tenures.

Tenures of dependent Rajas.—The five parganas, i.e., the low-lying plateau in the east and south-east of the district, were undoubtedly in early days in the possession of independent Rajas. The tenures of these chiefs were not creations of the Raja of Chota Nagpur but the chiefs gradually came to recognise him as their feudal superior.* In most cases this recognition was enforced, in the first instance, by conquest; in many cases the chiefs regained temporarily their independence, and it was not till the end of the 18th century that they were finally reduced. In the

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 188.

early days of their subjection they rendered feudal services to the Raja, but when the necessity for such service disappeared, they agreed, or were forced, to pay a fixed quota of the revenue into his hand as rent. Tamar was formerly subject to Orissa and was apparently brought into subjection when the Chota Nagpur chief accompanied the Muhammadans in their invasion of Orissa. Bundu and Rahe were compelled by the British authorities in 1793 to enter into agreements to pay rents. Silli was probably subordinate to Chota Nagpur before the cession of the country to the British. Apart from the estates of the Five Parganas there are other estates which have a similar origin. The Barwe estate was originally subordinate to the Raja of Surguja but was annexed by conquest. The Raja of Surguja, however, re-established his authority and it was not till 1799, that the Raja of Chota Nagpur was able, with the assistance of British troops, to bring back the chief to his allegiance. These tenures, not being in origin creations of the Chota Nagpur chief, differ from other tenures in the district, in that they are not resumable on the failure of male heirs. The Chota Nagpur Estate has, it is true, endeavoured to deprive them of this privilege by contending that the present proprietors are not the legitimate descendants of the original chiefs and in some cases have got the proprietors to accept *pattas* in which this condition is specially mentioned. Webster, a Manager of the Estate, writing of them in 1875, says: "All these estates are held under what are called *bhandowa pattas* and on the failure of heirs male to the original holder they escheat to the Chota Nagpur Estate". Rahe has in fact been resumed but the grounds on which the resumption was granted in 1845 have been declared unsound by a subsequent judicial decision and Tamar has been judicially declared to be non-resumable.

Service Jagirs.—It appears that prior to the establishment of British dominion, the chiefs of Chota Nagpur were constantly engaged in petty warfare, sometimes with their own vassals, sometimes with the chiefs of neighbouring States. To protect their country from the ravages of their enemies as well as to enable them to make reprisals on their neighbours, a standing force or militia was required. The Raja accordingly gave lands in *jagir* to foreigners from other parts of India on condition that they were at all times ready to assist him with a certain proportion of armed followers. The *jagirs* are thus feudal tenures. When the country became vested in the British Government the necessity for military service ceased, and it was deemed equitable that they should pay a cash rent and some praedial dues (*rakumats*), in lieu of the services formerly rendered. The holders of these tenures are usually members of the fighting castes, either Rajputs, or Rautias and Bhogtas who claim to be Rajputs. The holders of the tenures are known as *baraik, ghatwal,* etc. Besides these feudal *jagirs,* other *jagirs* were given to the numerous officers and servants with which the Raja surrounded himself in imitation of the pomp and pageantry of Hindu or Mughal royalty. Thus we find a

village granted to a composer of ex tempore poems with which the Maharaja of the day was well pleased, to a noted wrestler for his feats of strength, to domestic servants such as a *diwan,* "sepoy", *kotwal,* or *hukabardar* (preparer of the Maharaja's *hukah*), while others were granted in return for special services, as, for instance, to persons who killed enemies of the Maharaja under his orders. There are also religious *brit* tenures. As the Rajas adopted the Hindu religion, they introduced a number of Brahman priests, erected temples to the Hindu deities throughout the country, and made *bramhottar, debottar* and other *brit* grants of lands or villages to the priests for their maintenance and for the upkeep of the temples and the worship of the gods. Two curious forms of such tenures, mentioned by Webster in his account of the estate written in 1875, are Tanga villages and *Chiba brit.* "Tanga villages", he writes, "usually belong to Brahmans and according to tradition were obtained in this way:—If a Brahman failed to obtain a village from the Maharaja by fair means and was willing to sacrifice himself for the benefit of his heirs, all he had to do was to take himself to a village and, taking care to select a good one, deliberately hang himself therein. The only way of expiating the guilt of possessing a village in which a Brahman had hanged himself was by getting rid of the accursed spot and by giving it away in *jagir* to the heirs of the deceased. The origin of *Chiba brit* was said to be:—The Maharaja having finished chewing his *pan* or betel threw it away. Some great admirer picked up the choice morsel and put it in his mouth and was recompensed for his devotion to the Maharaja by the grant of a village or two."*

Maintenance tenures.—The Raj family always followed the custom of primogeniture, and hence it became usual for the Rajas to allot maintenance holdings to their near relatives, the Thakurs and Lals, as the younger brothers of the Maharaja and their descendants are called. At first it would seem that these grants meant nothing more than the assignment of the tributes or supplies which the Raja got from the village communities, but, like the service *jagirdars* and the Raja himself, the *Khorposhdar* gradually reduced the cultivators to the position of rent-paying tenants.

Incidents of service and maintenance tenures.—The incidence of these tenures are too numerous and too varied to be enumerated in detail and it must suffice to mention only the most important which are found particularly in the feudal *jagir* and in the maintenance grants. The term *jagir* connotes resumability, that is, the tenure lapses to the parent estate on the failure of male heirs and all such tenures are locally known as *putra putradik.* The maintenance grants are also resumable, though the condition is not always stated in the deeds under which the original grant was made, yet if the tenure was originally a *jagir,* the custom is

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 190-91.

nonetheless certain. Even *brit* grants lapse to the parent estate on the failure of male heirs of the original grantee, though, according to Hindu usage such grants are not resumable under any condition by the grantor. Previous to the Permanent Settlement, the Maharaja did in some cases exercise the right to resume at will, but the power to resume such grants as existed at the time of the Permanent Settlement, without the consent of Government, was expressly taken away by the *patta* granted to the Raja of that time. *Jagir* tenures are also impartible and inalienable. The *jagirdars, Khorposhadars,* and even tenure-holders subordinate to them, have adopted the custom of primogeniture which prevails in the Chota Nagpur Raj family. The usage was recognised as long ago as 1800, as by Regulation X of that year the provisions of Regulation XI of 1793, under which the estates of persons dying intestate were declared to be liable to be divided among the heirs of the deceased according to Hindu or Muhammadan law, were declared to be inapplicable to the jungle *mahals* of Midnapur and other district. Colonel Dalton, the Commissioner of the Division, who was for nearly two decades in Chota Nagpur and made a special study of local usages, wrote in 1875 : "The ordinary Hindu law does not apply to the estates (*jagirs*), as by custom and under the provisions of a Regulation passed in 1800 primogeniture is admittedly the *lex loci,* but judicial decisions based on a mistaken analogy with similar tenures in Bihar and Bengal have held the *jagirs* to be partible as well as transferable. Should further judicial decisions succeed in introducing a system of succession which is entirely opposed to local usage, the ancient estates of the district will become subdivided and in the end transferred piecemeal to money-lenders and other proprietors."

Other tenures.—Apart from the tenures described above, the Maharajas have at various times given leases of portions of the estate to the money-lenders, traders and other adventures, who first began to find their way to Chota Nagpur at the beginning of the 19th century. Some of these leases are permanent (*doami* or *bemiadi thika*), others are perpetual leases on fixed rentals (*mokarrari*), others usufructuary leases (*zarpeshgi* and *bhugat*).

Of the whole estate measuring 7,052 square miles, in 1010's only 724 square miles were in the *khas* possession of the Maharaja 1,050 square miles had been given out by him, or his predecessors, as *khorposh,* while 4,480 square miles were in the possession of the feudal, and others *jagirdars. Brit* grants absorbed 134 square miles, and the remainder was held on leases, viz., *mokarrari* 22.55 square miles, *thika* 126 square miles, *zarpeshgi* 3 square miles, *doami* (permanent absolute grants) 493 square miles.*

* Reid : *Settlement Report* (1902—10), p. 80.

Landlord's privileged lands.—All lands in the *khas* cultivation of a landlord are locally known as *manjhihas,* a word which literally means the headman's share and is an interesting survival of the time when the villages were ruled by headmen and landlords had no jurisdiction in the village economy. The landlords appropriated this heritage and demarcated *manjhihas* land which came to mean land in the possession of the landlord and at his absolute disposal. The Chota Nagpur Tenures Act of 1869 provided for the preparation of a record of all *manjhihas* and *beth-kheta* lands, or privileged lands of the landlords, of which they could prove their possession for a period of twenty years before the passing of the Act. *Beth-kheta* lands are, as the name implies, lands set apart for service. The villagers, who cultivate them, render special services to the landlords; or they are cultivated by the whole body of the villagers, who share the produce and in return render a fixed number of days' service to the landlord. No occupancy rights can accrue in such lands, however, long the possession of the *raiyat.* In the settlement (1902—10) a record was prepared not only of *manjhihas* and *beth-kheta* lands, demarcated at the time of the *bhuinhari* survey, but also of all landlords' privileged lands. The latter are defined by the present Tenancy Act as all lands which are cultivated by the landlord himself, or which are leased to tenants for a term of years or year by year, and in which by local custom occupancy rights do not accrue to the tenants. This definition operated somewhat harshly on landlords who had been in the habit of leasing their *khas* lands to *thikadars,* who in turn sublet them to *raiyats* for indefinite periods. As the definition of "settled *raiyat*" was introduced into the Tenancy Act of 1908, many of the *raiyats* to whom such lands had been leased had acquired rights of occupancy, and lands which were undoubtedly the landlord's *khas* lands had thus been converted into ordinary *raiyati* holdings. The record prepared by the Settlement Department shows that the *manjhihas* and *beth-kheta* lands demarcated under Act IX of 1869 occupied 89 square miles, other privileged lands of the landlords 65 square miles, while 251 square miles were in actual cultivating possession of the landlords.*

Exemption of estates from sale for arrears of debt.—The tenure-holders of Chota Nagpur were notoriously improvident; their estates produced but small income and the proprietors, even in the earliest times, incurred heavy debts to money-lenders and traders. If estates belonging to ancient families were sold up in execution of decrees of the courts, and possession passed to alien landlords, there was fear of disturbances and discontent among the tenants. In the year 1795 the sale of the estate of Pachet in Manbhum for arrears of revenue had caused a general rising of the tenants, which was only put down by the cancellation of the sale. The purchase of the Palamau estate by Government at a sale for arrears of revenue, in 1820, had made the people sullen and

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer,* 1917, p. 198.

discontented, and they readily joined the Kol insurrection of 1831 and again gave considerable trouble both before and during the great Revolt of 1857. Profiting by these examples Government adopted the policy of stopping as far as possible the sale of estates. Under rules drawn up by Captain Wilkinson, the first Agent, and sanctioned by Government, the sale or transfer of landed property without the Agent's consent, on any account whatsoever, was prohibited, and it became customary for the Agent and his Assistants to interfere in, and decide summarily, questions between debtors and creditors. The practice in fact was to attach, and take under direct management, such estates as were likely to default or be sold up in the civil courts in execution of decrees for debts. Such procedure was purely executive and when Act VIII of 1859 (the Civil Code of the day) was extended to Chota Nagpur, it was held that the power could no longer be effectively exercised. When, however, application was made to the Commissioner for sanction to the sale of estates, according to the terms of the provision of the notification extending the terms of the Civil Procedure Code to Chota Nagpur, he ordinarily refused to allow the sale, when it was found that the assets were sufficient to meet the liabilities within a reasonable time.

Encumbered Estates Act.—To legalise the procedure which had been followed since the earliest days of the British administration, the Chota Nagpur Encumbered Estates Act (Act VI of 1876) was passed. The objects and reasons were stated as follows: "The accumulation of debts and the sale of large ancestral estates in satisfaction thereof is a process calculated to cause trouble in most parts of India. This is notably the case in the districts of the western portion of Bengal, which are comprised in the Chota Nagpur province. In these districts there are many landed proprietors who are very improvident and apt to run into debt to an extent which exposes their estates to the danger of being brought to sale. If such sale takes place, trouble arises between the purchaser and villagers and the rights of the cultivators are likely to be imperilled". The Act empowered the Commissioner, with the previous sanction of the Lieutenant-Governor, to appoint a manager and to vest in him the entire management of encumbered estates, whenever he thought fit to do so. On publication of the vesting order, all proceedings in the Courts, including processes for the execution for debts, became barred; the holder of the property was not liable to arrest for debt and the power to alienate any portion of the estate was vested in the manager. The Act was amended by Act V (B.C.) of 1884 and again by Act III (B.C.) of 1901. By the latter Act the Deputy Commissioner was empowered to file *suo motu* an application for the protection of an estate, and at the same time it was definitely laid down that the holder of an estate must be of political or social importance or, if this was not so, Government must be satisfied that it was desirable in the interest of the tenantry that the estate should be protected. Frequent use had been made of

this latter provision and estates of no political or social importance had been taken under management in the interests of the tenants. The Settlement Operations (1902—10), however, placed the tenants in a much stronger position. Their rights had been carefully recorded and, with the spread of education, they were better able to protect themselves.

In 1916, there were 35 encumbered estates under the management of Government. Of these the most important were the Armai and the Tamar estates, of which the rent rolls were Rs. 29,640 and Rs. 21,384 respectively. The proprietors of the Armai estate were of the money-lending caste, and the estate was taken over in the interest of the tenantry. The remaining estates were comparatively small and their total rent-roll was only a little over one lakh, while their debts amounted to rather more than 5¼ lakhs. There were two estates under the Court of Wards of which the largest was that of the Thakur of Jaria, with a rent-roll of Rs. 35,000.

Government Estates.—Three of the estates, namely, Barkagarh, Patia and Silam were confiscated by Government under Act XXV of 1857 on account of participation of their proprietors in the great revolt of that year.* Like other estates in the district they were resumable on the failure of male heirs. A total rent of Rs. 678 was payable to the Maharaja.

Wilkinson's Rules.—The aftermath of the Kol insurrection (1831-32), *inter alia,* saw the birth of a rule drafted by Agent Captain Wilkinson, which laid down that no sale, transfer or mortgage of any landed property, on account of claims for rent or any other account, shall be legal until the authority of the Governor-General's Agent for such sale, transfer, or mortgage shall have been obtained.† Besides, Wilkinson obtained the consent‡ of Government to a rule empowering him to interfere, whenever the estate of a hereditary proprietor was so deeply involved as to render such interposition desirable. He was empowered to adjust accounts, to declare what was actually due to the creditors, to regulate interest charges, and to release mortgaged property, whenever it was found that the debt had been liquidated by the usufruct. If necessary, he had the authority to sequestor the estate for the payment of the debt.

* *See* the Chapter on 'History.' Barkagarh (Thakur Bishwanath Sahi) had 113 villages; Patia (Prop. Pande Ganpat Rai) 9½ villages and Silam (Prop. Bhiku Ram Rautia).

† J. Reid: *Final Report on the Survey and Settlement Operations* (1902—10) *in the* district of Ranchi, p. 28.

Though not sanctioned by Government, this rule appears to have been followed till the introduction of the Code of Civil Procedure (Act VIII of 1859).

‡ *See* Government orders, dated the 18th October, 1834.

When the Code of Civil Procedure (Act VIII of 1859) was extended to the districts of Hazaribagh, Manbhum and Lohardaga, the following proviso was added to the notification:—

> "As for good and sufficient reasons, it is considered expedient that the present restrictions on the sale of landed property in those districts should continue in force, section 205 of the aforesaid Act (the Code of Civil Procedure) is hereby extended, subject to the proviso that no sale of land shall be made in the districts of Hazaribagh, Lohardaga and Manbhum, without the sanction of the Commissioner of the Province had and obtained before."*

The orders regarding the restriction on sale, transfer or mortgage of landed property appear to have been rigidly adhered to for some years though the system led to some grave abuses. Ricketts, Member of the Board of Revenue, reported as follows in 1855:—

> "It appears to me that the system existing is the most mischievous that could be followed; so that any change would be for the better. It is enough to say that it is uncertain, and as being uncertain it must be bad. If it was resolved, either that estates should be sold in execution of decrees, or that they should not be sold, lenders and borrowers would understand their position, and regulate their transactions accordingly. Under the existing custom, a landowner may borrow with the understanding that his estate is not protected from sale, and when the lender shows inclination to proceed to extremities, he has but to cause hints to be conveyed to the authorities that a sale could not be enforced without risking the peace of the country; and this may defy the creditor and the Courts; the Agent will not allow a sale."†

The wisdom of the Agent's rules, prohibiting transfer of land, was, notwithstanding Rickett's remarks, proved by subsequent experience. The free sale of landed property for arrears of rent, and the rights of transfer of *raiyati* and *khuntkatti* tenancies, which were exercised from 1882 onwards led to serious abuses and to grave disturbances in the Munda country. The Government was obliged again to give statutory effect to the principles, which the Agent had enforced in the early days of the South-West Frontier Agency.‡

* Reid: *Settlement Report* (1902—10), p. 28.

† *Ibid*, p. 29.

‡ *Ibid*.

The restrictions on the transfer of these tenancies contained in sections 46, 48 and 240 of the present Tenancy Act give effect to the same principles.

As to the efficacy of Wilkinson's rule of interposition if a proprietor got deeply involved, Colonel Dalton, Commissioner, wrote in 1869 as follows:—

> "It has always been held that the Commissioner in refusing to sell an estate, may order its sequestration till the debt be paid; this power was exercised as derived from the orders of the 13th October, 1834 and appears a necessary corollary to the authority conferred to stay sales of estates. I have no hesitation in saying that had this power not been conferred on the Commissioner, very few of the estates in Chota Nagpur would up to this time, have remained in the hands of the old proprietors, and it would have been a calamity to the people, if they had passed into the hands of the aliens. It is with them a maxim that however, ignorant, dissipated, extravagant, their zamindars, or, more properly, chiefs of the old line may be, they are to them better and kinder landlords than the most enlightened of interlopers. It is, however, to be regretted that the rules issued for the preservation of estates were not more comprehensive and complete. What was wanted, and what we should have here, is a law of entail that would strictly limit the interest of each chief and debar any alienation of the property beyond his own life."*

Tenancy legislation.—From the foundation of the Agency till the passing of Act X of 1959, it does not appear that there was any Code of law in force prescribing a procedure for the disposal of revenue suits or for the realisation of revenue. The courts, however, followed the old summary suit laws (Regulation V of 1800 and VII of 1837). In 1959, the Commissioner submitted a proposal to the Board of Revenue for the introduction of Act X of 1859 throughout Chota Nagpur with some modifications and omissions. The Board questioned the expediency of the proposal, and strongly objected to the proposal for extending the distraint clauses of the Act for the benefit of the landowners. The Act was accordingly not introduced, but the existing procedure was modified in accordance with its spirit, save that appeals continued to lie to the Commissioner, instead of to the Judge and the High Court. Eventually, however, the Commissioner ordered that the procedure laid down in the Act regarding appeals should also be followed, and by the year 1869, all the provisions of the Act were generally followed, except that the distraint clauses were not applied and that the sections relating to the sale of land were subject to the restriction that no sale could be effected without the permission of the Commissioner. Act X of 1859 was never actually declared to be in force in the district, though the High Court appears to

* Reid: *Settlement Report* (1902—10), p. 30.

have held so. The correctness of this decision was doubted, in view of the provisions of Regulation XIII of 1833, which were in full force when Act X of 1859 was passed, and the Commissioner and the local authorities did not themselves consider that the Act applied to the district.

Act II (B.C.) of 1869.—In 1869 the Chota Nagpur Tenures Act [Act II (B.C.) of 1869] was passed authorising the appointment of Special Commissioners for the survey and demarcation of the privileged lands of both the landlords (*manjhihas*) and the tenants (*bhuinhari*)*. Its defect was that it only dealt with one particular kind of tenancy; it left untouched the *Mundari Khuntkatti* villages, on the one hand, and the ordinary *raiyati* lands, on the other; it made no attempt to deal with the question of praedial dues and services, which had even at that time begun to be a fruitful source of strife between landlords and tenants; it even omitted from the survey one important class of privileged lands, the *sarnas,* or sacred groves, which are to be found in every Munda or Oraon village. It was soon recognised that a Tenancy Act suited to the peculiar conditions of the district was an administrative necessity, for though the provisions of Act X of 1859 were generally followed, it was clear that, in many respects, they were unsuitable. The distraint clauses were considered to be inapplicable to the aboriginal population, while the clause which practically prohibited the realisation of *abwabs* was unduly harsh on the landlords. *Abwabs* were in accordance with the local custom of the district, and, as long as the demands were moderate and reasonable, were paid without objection. The levy of *abwabs* had also been expressly permitted by earlier legislation. The Ramgarh district was exempted by Regulation IV of 1794, from the operation of section 54 of Regulation VIII of 1793, on which the clause prohibiting the levy of *abwabs,* in Act X of 1859, was based, and to quote the words of Oliphant, the Deputy Commissioner, writing in 1875, "it was obviously unfair to force on the country a law which prohibits the levy of all cesses without affording to the zamindars an opportunity in the first instance of commuting their cesses into rent".

Act I (B.C.) of 1879.—In recognition of the inapplicability of the ordinary tenancy laws to Chota Nagpur, the Chota Nagpur Landlord and Tenant Procedure Act (Act I of 1879) was passed. The provisions of Act X of 1859 were generally followed, but the provisions regarding distraint and enhancement of rent were omitted. The restrictions on the sale of landed property which had been observed for many years were legalised by the insertion of a clause prohibiting the sale of all under-tenures for arrears of rent without the permission of the Commissioner, and, finally landlords were allowed the option of applying for commutation of any conditions, or services, to which they were entitled in addition

* *See* Chapter on 'History' for causes which led to the passing of this Act and the survey carried out under its provisions.

to money rents. The provisions of Act I of 1879 had as little effect in allaying the agrarian discontent or in improving the relations of landlords and tenants, as the proceedings of the Special Commissioners appointed under Act II of 1869. The disputes as to praedial dues (*rukumats*) and praedial services (*beth begari*) grew more frequent and more violent, and in 1897, after several years of discussion, a Bill was passed by the Bengal Council providing for the voluntary commutation of praedial conditions and services, laying down a procedure for the enhancement of rents, and regulating the registration and resumption of intermediate tenures. It was also proposed to repeal Act I (B.C.) of 1879 and to extend to Chota Nagpur the Bengal Tenancy Act with some modifications. The Bill was, however, referred back by the Government of India for reconsideration, specially of the clauses dealing with registration and resumption, which were opposed by the majority of the persons concerned and the Government of Bengal decided only to proceed with that part of the Bill dealing with the commutation of praedial conditions and services. The Commutation Act [Act IV (B.C.) of 1897] was accordingly passed. The question of the extension of the Bengal Tenancy Act to Chota Nagpur remained under consideration, but in 1899 the Lt. Governor, Sir John Woodburn, decided that it was inadvisable for two reasons to proceed with a consolidating Bill like the one proposed. In the first place the agitation of the Munda *sardars,* which culminated in the Birsa movement rendered it extremely undesirable to introduce a contentious measure of such magnitude, and, secondly, it was held that, until a survey and record-of-rights had been prepared, it was impossible to say definitely which provisions of the law were suitable to Chota Nagpur. Settlement Operations were accordingly begun in 1902, and by the end of 1903 sufficient data had been collected by the Settlement Officers to justify the introduction of an amending Act. The chief object of the amending Act V of 1903 was to give finality to the record-of-rights regarding the incidents of Mundari *Khuntkatti* tenancies. At the same time provision was made for the summary sale of holdings in execution of decrees for rent and a special procedure was prescribed for the recovery of arrears of rent from Mundari *khuntkattidars.* The vexed question of the registration of transfers of, and succession to tenures, was settled and all tenures were made saleable for arrears of rent.

Act VI (B.C.) of 1908.—The Act, as amended in 1903, remained in force till 1908, by which year the Settlement Operations were nearly completed. The Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act (Act VI of 1908) came into force from 11th November 1908. It reproduced with certain modifications the provisions of the Commutation Act (Act IV of 1897) and of Act V of 1903. The provisions of the Limitation Act and of certain sections of the Civil Procedure Code were made applicable to all proceedings under the Act, in so far as they were not inconsistent with any

of its provisions; the law relating to "settled *raiyats*" and the procedure for making surveys and record-of-rights, with some modifications, were incorporated from the Bengal Tenancy Act. Landlord's privileged lands were defined and provision was made for a final and conclusive record of their rights.*

The Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act, however, was not an unqualified success in Ranchi district, particularly in its provisions about transfers in *raiyati* holdings. One of its chief objects was the protection of the more backward aboriginal classes of tenant. "As far as professional money-lenders are concerned", writes F. E. A. Taylor, "the Act has to some extent achieved its purpose; the restrictions on transfers have reduced the number of *zarpeshgis*, although not so much directly as by limiting the *raiyat's* credit so that the professional money-lender fights shy of what is a doubtful security for his money. But there has been a tremendous increase of money-lending amongst the *raiyats* themselves, and the Tenancy Act has proved quite incapable of damming the flood of transfer in *zarpeshgi* as between one *raiyat* and another. Leases, exchanges or gifts made between *raiyats* have also been little reduced; in fact the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act has on the whole been a failure as far as transfers in *raiyati* lands are concerned. Its chief success is that it has undoubtedly given the *raiyats* a greater security of tenure as against their landlords than they had previously. Illegal ejectments and illegal enhancements of rent are now uncommon, although in my opinion the latter fact is less due to the provisions of Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act than to the supine attitude of the landlords of the district towards rent. The Tenancy Act has also assured that rent receipts are given to the tenants at any rate for cash rents, a step which is an advance towards greater security of tenure. On the whole it can be fairly said that although the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act has not been an unqualified success the balance is on the credit side."†

There have been several amendments in the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act. Section 33A is a new insertion which provides for reduction of rent. Section 48A imposes restrictions on the sale of *bhuinhari* tenure. Section 67A deals with assessment of rent on land converted into *Korkar*, modifying section 33 (*b*) dealing with assessment of rent. Sections 79A and 79B are also new insertions and put restriction respectively on payment of certain kinds of rent and produce rent payable to a landlord by agreement and have explicitly laid down the specific shares of the landlord, tenure-holder and tenant. Section 186A imposes restrictions on the execution of decrees and acts as a bar in certain circumstances against civil prisons of the judgment-debtor. Section 65 which empowered

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, pp. 196—99.

† *Final Report on Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations* (1927—35), 1940, p. 56.

a landlord to eject a cultivator or leave him in possession on the finding of the Deputy Commissioner has been repealed. Sections 218 and 219 which empowered a landlord to appeal in certain suits are also repealed. Sections 208A to 208D are new insertions according to which only a portion of an occupancy holding has to be sold in execution decree for arrears of rent due on such holding. They also lay down that the tenure or holding or part thereof shall be sold to the highest bidder in open court. Section 41 which deals with the grounds on which non-occupancy *raiyat* may be ejected has suitably been amended.

Bihar Act II of 1948.—The Ranchi District Tana Bhagat Raiyats Agricultural Land Restoration Act, 1947, Bihar Act II of 1948 and its amendments in 1960 and 1962 have been enacted with a view to restore the lands of Tana Bhagats sold in auction in course of Non-Co-operation Movement for non-payment of rent. The State Government appointed a Special Officer to administer the provisions of this Act.

Survey and settlement.—A topographical survey of the district was made in 1860s by Captain Depree; the boundaries of estates, parganas. and even of the district were not accurately recorded and the map was found to be of little use in the subsequent cadastral survey. In 1862, a survey was begun of the villages of the Government estates of Barkagarh, Patia and Silam and the work appears to have been continued off and on for nearly ten years. Between the years 1876—80 a complete survey and settlement was carried out by Captain Grey. The *bhuinhari* survey by the Special Commissioner, Rakhal Das Haldar, appointed under Act II (B.C.) of 1869, was begun in 1869 and was not completed till 1880.

In 1876, the survey of the Chota Nagpur estate was taken in hand by a professional party of the Survey Department, but it was found that the estate could not bear the cost of such an elaborate survey, and, therefore, it was decided to carry out the work by a non-professional party, working under the Manager of the estate. After the survey had been completed in 1885, the settlement of rents and the commutation of all praedial dues and services in the villages in the *khas* possession of the Maharaja was taken in hand by Slacke, the Divisional Settlement Officer, and completed in 1888. The total area surveyed, for which record-of-rights was prepared, amounted to 742 square miles. Rents were settled for all cultivated lands which had been dealt with by the Special Commissioners. The work was not carried out under the authority of any law, or rules having the force of law, but the decisions, specially the rent settlement, were accepted by the proprietor and the great majority of the *raiyats*. In only three per cent of the cases did the *raiyats* refuse to accept *jamabandis* in token of their acceptance of the Settlement Officer's decision. The good effects of this settlement were visible at the time of the settlement operations (1902—10) when the agrarian conditions in these villages presented a striking contrast to the conditions prevailing in neighbouring villages, disputes of all kinds in the former being less numerous and less acute.

The discussions regarding the Tenancy Bill of 1899 showed clearly that it was necessary to prepare a record of local agrarian rights and customs before undertaking any legislation. Such a record had long been recognised by the local authorities as the only measure which was likely to remove some of the chief causes of agrarian discontent. The Birsa movement brought matters to ahead, and in 1902 Survey and Settlement Operations were commenced* in the Munda country in an area, as at first defined, of 1,846 square miles. It was soon found that it was impossible to confine the operations to the Munda country. The Mundas were scattered over the district, and it was recognised that equally cogent reasons existed for preparing a similar record for the areas occupied by non-Mundari races. The absence of standards of measurement, the uncertainty of the incidence of rents and the insecurity of tenure all combined to make a record necessary, while such a record was an essential preliminary to any commutation of praedial dues or services. The survey operations were finally completed in 1910, the total cost amounting to rather more than 16¼ lakhs of rupees, of which one-quarter was met from Government revenues and the balance recovered from the landlords and tenants.

A Revisional Survey and Settlement was undertaken during 1927–35, with a view to make a survey and an up-to-date record-of-rights, including matters mentioned in section 81, clauses (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), (*e*), (*f*), (*h*), (*k*), (*m*), (*n*) and (*o*) of Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act; of all landlord's privileged lands; of the rights and obligations of (*a*) all *raiyats* having *khuntkatti* rights, and (*b*) village headmen and a settlement of fair rents payable by such persons.† It commenced in October, 1927 and was concluded in October, 1935.‡

Assessment and Collection of Land Revenue.

The aboriginal tribes who cleared the lands several centuries ago were the original proprietors of the soil and paid no rent to anybody. As time went on, local chiefs arose who exercised an overlordship over the village communities and received some tribute and personal services from them. They were replaced by a powerful feudal order which succeeded in exacting more and more from the cultivators in the form of rent, praedial dues and personal services. The feudal chiefs deprived them of their cultivated lands and took possession of the jungles and waste lands; brought them under cultivation and settled them on rent

* The Settlement Officers were E. lister (1902—07) and J. Reid (1907—10).

† *Revisional Survey and Settlement Report*, 1940, p. 12.

‡ The Settlement Officers, J. W. Houlton, I.C.S., commenced the operations and F. E. A. Taylor, I.C.S., concluded it. P. T. Mansfield, I.C.S., combined the offices of Settlement Officer and the Director of Land Records and Surveys in between for about a year. A. E. Drake, I.C.S., acted as Settlement Officer during Taylor's absence on leave for a short period in 1935.

with other tenants. As we have seen early in the 19th century, the chiefs or their grantees sought to increase the charges on the land while the aborigines refused to comply with their demands and this conflict burst into the violent Kol insurrection of 1831-32. The suppression of this rebellion strengthened the hands of the landlords and the establishment of courts tended still further to improve their position as being more resourceful, the landlords always got better of the aborigines. Many of the disputes, however, were never brought to the courts, but decided in the villages themselves, success remaining with the landlords and this accounts for the wide divergence between the incidents of tenancies in different parts of the district.

At the time of the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations (1927–35) there were 156 villages*, known as Mundari *Khuntkatti* villages, where the ancient system of land-tenure still survived and the descendants of the original settlers were still the co-proprietors of the land included in the boundaries of the village, paying only a quit-rent to the superior landlord; in others† the ancient system was found in various stages of decay, the head of the village community, or his successor-in-interest, had acquired the position of a landlord, while the other members had been reduced to the position of ordinary *raiyats*, but held their lands on privileged terms; and finally there were the purely zamindari villages in which no trace of the ancient village community could be found, save perhaps in the existence of a few monolithic burial stones.‡

Mundari Khuntkatti tenancies.

The Mundari *khuntkatti* village usually contains three elements, namely.—(*a*) the *khuntkattidars;* (*b*) the *parjas* or *raiyats,* and (*c*) the subsidiary artisan classes. The *khuntkattidars* are the descendants in the male line of the original founders of the village. They are the owners of the whole of the area included in the village boundaries and are responsible for the payment to the superior landlord of a fixed annual rent, which represents the tribute which the founders, or their descendants, agreed to pay for the support of their feudal chief. The rent is made up out of the *chandas,* or subscriptions, of the various *khuntkattidars,* but the subscriptions of most of them have been reduced and the deficit is made up by the rents paid by the *parjas* or *raiyats,* who hold land under the joint brotherhood. The duty of collecting the subscriptions and paying the quit-rent to the superior landlord rests with the Munda, or civil head of the village community. The villages were also united into groups of ten or twelve known as *pattis,* and at the head of each *patti* was the Manki, whose duty, like that of the Munda, was to

* *Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations* (1927—35), p. 27.

† There were 449 broken Mundari *Khuntkatti* villages. *Ibid*, p. 29.

‡ M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, pp. 142-43.

collect the *chandas* of the villages and pay them to the landlord. *Pattis* are now found as a working unit only in the east of Khunti thana, which is known as the Manki *patti*. The Munda was not the landlord or owner of the village, nor was the Manki the owner of the group of villages, but he was allowed to retain half the quit-rents collected by him as his share. The villages of a *patti* are thus divided into two categories, *thakur* villages, or those which pay contributions for the landlord's share of the rent, and *chaputa* village, or those which contribute the Mankis share. The *chandas* payable by the members of the village community and by the various villages composing a *patti* appear to have been fixed in an arbitrary manner and vary enormously. The amount of the subscription of each *khuntkattidar* no doubt corresponded originally with his share of the cultivated lands which he inherited, but as the individual *khuntkattidar* had the right of reclaiming uncultivated lands, no such correspondence is now found to exist. The Munda and Pahan frequently pay nothing. After the rebellion of 1831-32 *pattas* were granted to the Mankis fixing the rent payable by the *patti*. In the Settlement Operations (1902–10) 156 intact Mundari *khuntkatti* villages were found, with an area of 144 square miles. The total rent payable by these villages to the superior landlords was Rs. 3,013, of which Rs. 1,735 were paid by the *parjas* holding land under the *khuntkattidars*. The average total rent of a village, including the commuted value of praedial conditions, was thus only Rs. 19-4-0, while in Khunti thana the average contribution paid by each of the *khuntkattidars* was only 14 annas.

Special provisions for the protection of Mundari *khuntkatti* tenancies were laid down in the Chota Nagpur Tenancy (Amendment) Act, 1903, and have been reproduced in the Act at present in force. The chief provisions are that such tenancies are not transferable by sale, whether in execution of a decree or otherwise; that mortgages or leases can only be given subject to certain restrictions and that no suits can be brought for arrears of rent, which are only recoverable by certificate procedure.

Breakdown of the Khuntkatti System.—Generally the process by which the communal system was broken down was somewhat as follows:—The headman of the village endeavoured to secure for himself a superior position. He did so in various ways; he appropriated to himself the rents paid by the *parjas* for additional lands which they were allowed to cultivate, though any such payments should have been used to reduce the contributions payable by each of the members of the community; he assumed control over the jungles and waste lands and disposed of them without reference to the co-proprietors. He ran into debt, borrowed money from the local money-lender, and executed a document in his favour, in which he pledged the whole village as his security. He failed to pay the quit-rent to the superior landlord, often because the other *khuntkattidars* became jealous of him and refused to pay their contributions. He was sued in the courts, either for his debts or for the arrears

of rent, and the courts, finding him to be the rent-receiver, not unnaturally regarded him as the sole proprietor and sold the village in execution of the decree to the money-lender or superior landlord. The intruder, who thus succeeded to the interest of the Munda, carried on the process. He sued the *khuntkattidars* for their arrear contributions as if they were ordinary *raiyats*, dispossessed them of their holdings, and either cultivated them himself or settled them with other cultivators. Thus in many cases the breakdown of the system was due to the greed of the Munda; in a few cases it was due to political agitation. The Sardars, especially during the years 1888–92, refused to acknowledge obligations to any landlord below the State and induced the *khuntkattidars* to withhold their rents from the Manki. The Mundas were sued, and being wrongly regarded by the courts as proprietors, the whole village was sold. Both Revenue and Civil courts showed themselves equally ignorant of local customs, and even Government officials have been responsible for the destruction of the system.

Bhuinhari tenancies.—*Bhuinhari* is a local variant for the word *khuntkatti*, and many of the *bhuinhari* villages are villages in the same stage of decay as the broken Mundari *khuntkatti* villages. The term, however, has a somewhat wider significance than the term *khuntkatti* and includes not only lands held by the descendants of those persons who settled in the district long before the landlords established themselves, but also lands reclaimed by more recent settlers, who cannot, therefore, claim the same proprietary right as the *khuntkattidars*. It was to protect these tenures and to put a stop to the numerous disputes between the aboriginals and the landlords over them that Act II (B.C.) of 1869 was passed. Under that Act special Commissioners were appointed who had power to survey and demarcate the privileged lands of the tenants (*bhuinhari*) and the privileged lands of the landlords (*manjhihas*). They also had power to restore to possession persons who had been dispossessed of lands of *bhuinhari* or *manjhihas* tenure at any period within twenty years before the passing of the Act. The record was declared to be final and conclusive of the incidents of the tenures recorded, and it was further provided that after the publication of the records no lands not mentioned in the register should be held to be of *bhuinhari* or *manjhihas* tenure. Included in the term *bhuinhari* are certain cognate tenures:—

(*i*) *Bhutkheta, or devil's acre.*—This term is applied to lands which are dedicated to the worship of the village spirits (*bhut*). The lands are either the property of a particular *khunt*, or class, and are cultivated by a member of the *khunt*, who devotes the proceeds to propitiating the family ghost, or they are the property of the village community and are made over to the *Pahan*, whose special duty is to sacrifice to the village *bhuts*. In the Munda country, the office of *Pahan* is hereditary, but in the Oraon country a new *Pahan* is

usually selected with the aid of the magic *sup* or winnowing basket from the *Pahan khunt* every three years. In both areas the land is seldom actually cultivated by the *Pahan*, but is settled by him with an under-*raiyat*, for a period of three years.

(*ii*) *Pahani and dalikatari.*—These lands are also held by the village priest for the performance of certain sacrifices.

(*iii*) *Panbhara.*—These lands are held by the *Pahan's* assistant in return for carrying water and cooking during the sacrificial rites.

(*iv*) *Mahatoi Mundai.*—These are service tenures held by the village headman, who is known as the Munda in the Munda country and the *Mahto* in Oraon villages. The *Mahto* is usually elected from the *Mahto Khunt* and in some villages the election has to be approved by the Zamindar. In new zamindari villages the *Mahto* is practically the agent of the landlord.

Bhuinhari tenancies are usually held rent-free or on payment of a small quit-rent. The holders also had to pay certain praedial dues and render certain services, which have now been commuted into a cash rent. A *bhuinhari* tenancy is not liable to any enhancement of rent; it is a tenure under the law but for all practical purposes may be regarded as a *raiyati* tenancy, held under certain favourable conditions.

The total area of *bhuinhari* lands found in the settlement operations (1902–10) was 215 square miles; at the time of the *Bhuinhari* Survey the area was larger, but since that date considerable proportion passed to the possession of the landlords by sale, dispossession and abandonment.

Cultivating tenancies.—The land in possession of cultivating *raiyats* is known as *rajhas*, in contradistinction to the *manjhihas* land which includes all land cultivated by the landlords or their servants. The *rajhas* land includes *chattisa, uttakar* and *korkar*. *Chattisa* is a tenancy consisting of lowlands (*don*) with a quantity of uplands (*tanr*) thrown in. For such lands a higher rent is usually paid than for other classes of lands, no doubt because they are of superior quality. In addition to the cash rent, praedial dues (*rakumats*) were ordinarily leviable and praedial services (*begari*) were rendered, but all such conditions have been commuted into cash rent in the Settlement Operations. If there is no complementary upland, or *lagan tanr*, the tenancy is known as *murli chattisa*.

Uttakar or *balkat*, is also a tenancy of *don* only, usually of inferior quality to that contained in a *chattisa* holding. Such lands are assessed to rent generally at half the rates of *chattisa* lands and sometimes at an even lower rate. No *rakumats* are payable. The name *uttakar* is said to be derived from the fact the *raiyat* only paid rent (*kar*) in the years

in which he raised (*uthao*) and cut a crop (*bal*), and it is stated by Webster in his report on the tenures of Chota Nagpur, written in 1875, that by the custom of the country no length of possession gave the holders any rights of occupancy, and that it was only in one or two villages that any such claim was put forward and then only by alien tenants who wished to introduce the Bihar custom. This distinction, however, appears to have lapsed and tenants of *uttakar* lands now have the same rights as the tenants of *chattisa* lands. *Korkar* is the general term applied to a tenancy consisting of rice lands which have been made by the *raiyat* himself by the conversion of uplands, jungle, or waste lands. Dr. Davidson reported, in 1839, that no rents were payable for these holdings, the tenants only being liable for about 15 days' service, apparently irrespective of the area of the holding. This custom no longer prevails, though in a few villages, in thanas Mandar and Kuru, *korkar* lands have been found to have been held rent-free since before the *bhuinhari survey*. The general custom of the district is that during the preparation of the lands, i.e., for the first three or four years, no rent is payable; after that lands are assessed at half the rate payable for *chattisa* holdings. The custom, however, is not uniform. In Biru, where the area of such lands is large and where the preparation of new *korkar* lands is going on apace, the same rates are levied as for *chattisa* holdings; in Silli ten-sixteenths of the ordinary rate is charged; in some areas half the rate for *uttakar* holdings is levied. The custom of half-rates is recognised to be equitable by both landlords and tenants, but some powerful landlords have succeeded in overriding the custom. By a well-established custom which has been recognized in the present Tenancy Act, a *raiyat* who prepares *korkar* acquires a right of occupancy in it at once, and it is also a general custom that the *raiyat* shall obtain the consent of the landlord before preparing such lands. It was, however, formerly a common practice for landlords to allow a *raiyat* to prepare *korkar* for three or four years and then, when the land had become valuable, sue him for ejectment as a trespasser. This practice has now been prevented by the Tenancy Act which requires the landlord to bring the suit within two years from the date on which the cultivation of the lands was begun.

According to the custom of the country, uplands (*tanr*) are complementary to the holding of lowlands (*don*), and hence no cash rent is payable for them. It is only in the more intensely cultivated portion of the district that *tanr* lands are found in addition to those which are included in the *chattisa* holding. When a cash rent is assessed on such lands they are known as *damgat tanr;* when a rent-in-kind is paid, of the quantity of seed required for the fields, they are known as *maswar tanr*.

Praedial conditions.—Praedial conditions are defined in the Tenancy Acts as "conditions or services appurtenant to the occupation of land, other than the rent, and include *rakumats* payable by tenants to the landlords, and every *mahtut, mangan* and *madad*, and every other similar

demand, howsoever denominated, and whether regularly recurrent or intermittent". These conditions are locally known as *rakumats* and *begari*. In the recent settlement operations all praedial conditions have been commuted into a cash rent, and the record and commutation are final and conclusive. Under the present Tenancy Act no tenancy can be created with praedial conditions attached nor can new praedial conditions be imposed on any existing tenancy. Thus both *rakumats* and *begari* have been finally abolished and may be said to be now only of historical interest.

Rakumats.—It has sometimes been contended that both *rakumats*, which are a species of *abwab* and *begari* are not leviable in Chota Nagpur, inasmuch as Zamindars were enjoined by section 54 of Regulation VIII of 1793 to consolidate all such charges and were prohibited by section 55 from imposing any new *abwabs* or *mahtuts*. Regulation IV of 1794, however, specially exempted the zamindars of "that part of Zila Ramgarh which is included in the Soubah of Bihar" from the operation of the rules contained in section 54 of Regulation VIII. The landlords were thus not forced to consolidate existing charges but were forbidden to impose new ones after that date. But the law was not known to, or was not observed by, the landlords of Chota Nagpur, and the claims of the landlords to levy additional *rakumats* were upheld by the civil and revenue courts. In 1793, the *rakumats* and *begari* leviable were no doubt insignificant, but the Hindu *jagirdars*, anxious to get as much profit as possible from the land, gradually increased them, and during the whole of the 19th century there was a long-continued struggle over their imposition. Attempts were made to put a stop to them by executive order. In 1827, the Magistrate of Ramgarh issued a proclamation enjoining their total abolition, which apparently met with some success, as Dr. Davidson, Principal Assistant to the Agent, wrote in 1839 as follows:—"These *abwabs* were a fruitful source of oppression to the Kols, but fortunately they have been abolished for the last ten or twelve years by an order of the Magistrate of Ramgarh. The Raja complains greatly of the hardship of this order and at my first coming here I made some enquiry into the subject, but found the demands so enormous that to enforce them would ruin the whole country. They are well got rid of and ought never to be revived in any shape". The landlords, however, continued to levy these duties and to add to their number, in spite of these orders and in spite of a decision of the High Court, in the case of Urjan Sahi *versus* Anand Singh, that no cesses could be legally levied in Chotà Nagpur in which Act X of 1859 was in force. It is doubtful whether this decision was correct, but whether correct or not, it certainly did not stop the levy. The landlords also had some claim for consideration for, as Oliphant, the Deputy Commissioner, pointed out in 1875, "it was obviously improper to prohibit the levy of all cesses without affording the Zamindars an opportunity in the first instance of commuting these dues to rent". *Rakumats*, too, or some of them, may be regarded as a species of produce rent for the *tanr* lands and, as such, were not prohibited by any of the Acts or Regulations. The legality of their imposition was at length recognised by Act I of 1879, which provided for their commutation. Little use was made of these provisions, and during the last twenty years of the 19th century the landlords became more exacting in their demands, specially of compulsory labour (*begari*), while the tenants, aided by the Christian missionaries, became more strenuous and successful in their refusal. The Commutation Act of 1897 permitted either party to apply for commutation and though many applications were made, nothing like a general commutation of praedial conditions took place. It was not till the Settlement Operations of 1902—10 that the problem was finally solved, and a stop put to these exactions which had been the most fruitful source of agrarian discontent. The commutation then carried out was fair as far as possible to both parties. The criterion of liability was local custom or usage, or contract, and, though in some cases the landlords suffered a diminution of income owing to the fact that illegal and unauthorised dues, not sanctioned by custom, were disallowed, yet it may be said that on the whole they had been liberally treated. The levy of any new cesses had been forbidden in 1793 and though this levy had been at first tacitly and afterwards openly recognised, yet there is no doubt that the landlords had in many cases carried these exactions to excess, and by so doing had hindered the development of the country.

The most common kind of *rakumats* were payments of urid, sarguja, gondli, cotton, paddy, straw, and khe, and were in reality a produce-rent consisting of fixed quota of the produce of the uplands included in a *chattisa* tenancy. The other class of *rakumats* were miscellaneous, and sometimes irregular, dues, payable on certain specific occasions or for certain specific purposes. The following examples will suffice to show their nature; dasai, a payment made to the landlords on the occasion of the Dasahara festival, sometimes in the form of goats or buffaloes for sacrifices, sometimes in cash (*dasuin salami*). *Laurdan ghi* was a small quantity of ghi given at the same *bhatta* was a payment, usually in kind, to meet the expenses of the landlord and his servants when they visited the village. *Nawakhani* was a contribution of rice made at the winter harvest. *Nimako dhan* was paddy taken by the landlord in lieu of salt. The landlords used to import salt and exchange it at the rate of one seer of salt for a *kat* of paddy. The payment was still made, even after the import of salt was discontinued. *Dak mashara* or *dak* cess was a cess originally levied by landlords to meet the expenses of the Government cess. The *dak* cess was abolished in 1907, and though some landlords continued to levy it, it was not commuted in the settlement operations, as it was not paid for the use or occupation of land. *Rasid likhai* was the charge made for writing rent receipts. As landlords were now

required by law to give rent receipts, free of cost, its value was not allowed in the commutation proceedings. *Mahua* oil and *mahua baheri* were taxes paid for the right to take *mahua* flowers and fruit. *Panriai* and *diwani* were contributions paid by the *jagirdars* to the *Maharaja's* record-keeper (*panre*) and *diwan*. Formerly the landlord used to exact from the villagers the best bullock of the herds but, after the custom was discontinued, a cash payment known as *bardoch* was made. Thana *Khareha* was a cess levied for the upkeep of the police, for which the *Maharaja* and the *Jagirdars* were responsible, and continued even after the police were taken over by Government.

At the time of the settlement it was found in most villages that the payment of *rakumats* in kind had ceased and that their money values were collected instead, and in some cases they had been commuted to Re. 1 or Rs. 1-8-0 per unit of land. Some of the miscellaneous charges such as *dasai* were levied on *korkar* and *uttakar* as well as *chattisa* tenancies. The incidence of *rakumats* varied considerably from village to village.

Begari.—Begari consists of a number of days labour given by the *raiyats* free of charge to the landlord for the cultivation of his *khas* lands, or as personal service. There is no doubt that from the earliest times the landlords exacted a considerable amount of service from their aboriginal *raiyats*. What was the ground for this is uncertain; Dr. Davidson in his report of 1839 advances the theory that the labour was given for their *bethbegari,* or service holdings and for their *bhuinhari* and *korkar* lands which they held rent-free or at a quit-rent. The Special Commissioners of the *Bhuinhari* Survey also found that *bhuinhari* land was held rent-free, but that the holders had to render, sometimes, as much as 30 days' service. The enquiries of the Settlement Officers go to show that it was a recognised incident of every holding for nearly a century. Even in the earliest times the system was much abused; Dr. Davidson in 1839 issued a proclamation that under no circumstances should landlords levy more than a fair amount of *begari,* which was reckoned to be about 15 days. Similar proclamations were issued at other times, and in 1890 when the disputes over *begari* had become very acute, owing to the spread of Christianity, Grimley, the Commissioner, with the authority of Government, issued a proclamation limiting it to 14 days. The incidence of *begari* varied from thana to thana and village to village in the same way as the incidence of *rakumats,* and the amount of service rendered depended on the relative strength of landlords and tenants. In villages such as those in Chainpur, Kochedega and Kurdeg thanas, in which the aboriginal inhabitants had become Christians *en masse,* it was found by the settlement department that no *begari* had been levied for periods varying from seven to twenty years. The landlords had been forced to give way to the united opposition of their tenants and either lease out or cultivate by hired labour, their *khas* lands. On the other hand

several Zamindars claimed that their right to *begari* was only limited by their requirements, and in Bishunpur thana one landlord was found to have actually succeeded in levying 50 to 60 days' labour annually from each of his *raiyats*. The *begari* rendered in a typical village was found to be about 10 to 15 days, made up as follows:—

3 days' ploughing (*har*),

3 days' digging (*kori*),

3 days' planting or sowing (*ropni*),

3 days' cutting (*katni*),

1 day's thrashing (*misni*),

1 day's storing the grain (*morabandhi*),

1 or 2 days' carrying the landlord's burden on his journeys (*des bides*).

In each case the period of labour was generally limited to about half a day, and, as the *raiyat* received food and drink from the landlord, the cash value of a day's service rarely exceeded one anna, and was, therefore, commuted at this rate by the Settlement Officers.

Enhancements of rents.—During the agrarian struggles of the 19th century the landlords not only increased the praedial conditions but also largely enhanced the cash rents. The enhancement of the rents of holdings other than *korkar* by private contract was prohibited by the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act of 1879, but the decisions of the courts rendered this wise provision of the law futile. The landlords frequently persuaded or forced the *raiyats* into agreeing to an enhancement of rent. They paid for a time, but when they fell into arrears and were sued, the courts decreed the amount which they had actually paid, even though it was admitted to have been enhanced quite recently. Another favourite device of the landlords for obtaining the sanction of the courts to enhanced rates of rent was to sue the *raiyats* for a sum in excess of what they had actually paid. False account books and *jamabandis* were prepared for the benefit of the court, receipts for the enhanced rates, and not for the sums actually paid, were given to the *raiyats,* who owing to their illiteracy, were unable to detect the fraud; a certain number of *raiyats* who were friendly to the landlords were produced as witnesses, or even made defendants, and admitted the higher rates, and the court not unnaturally misled by this volume of evidence decreed the suit in favour of the landlord. Another method of enhancing rent was to sublet a village on a temporary lease to a *thikadar* at a very high rate with the deliberate object of making him extract, by fair means or foul, higher rents from the *raiyats*. In many cases the arbitrary and exorbitant demands of the landlords defeated their own objects. They became

involved in harassing and expensive litigation and the *raiyats* driven to desperation either attacked the landlord and his servants or abandoned the village. The victory too was not always with the landlords. Christian aboriginals exhibited remarkable powers of combination and often defeated the landlord with his own weapons. Just as the landlords brought suits for enhanced rates, so the tenants deposited their rents in the treasury at reduced rates. Wealthy and influential Zamindars who kept proper books of accounts were easily able to disprove the correctness of such deposits, but the poor and illiterate Zamindars were reluctant to embark on expensive litigation and after accepting the amounts deposited were unable to obtain subsequent decrees for enhanced amounts. It must be remembered too that enhancement of rates is not necessarily synonymous with an increase of rent. *Raiyats* frequently included new lands in their old tenancies without paying additional rent, and in the absence of any definite system of land measurement, it was easier for the landlords to enhance the rate, the normal area remaining the same.

Incidence of rent.—In the record-of-rights all holdings have been entered in acres and decimals and as all praedial conditions have been commuted to rent, it is possible to give statistics showing the incidence of rent per acre. Statistics giving the average rate per acre over the whole district or over a large tract are of little value, as the rates vary considerably from village to village. It has been calculated by Reid in the Settlement Report that the incidence of rent per cultivated acre is ten annas in the Sadar subdivision and five annas in the Gumla and Khunti subdivisions. The gross rental of the lands occupied by all classes of *raiyats* has also been calculated to be only one-eighteenth of the volume of the produce in a normal year. Reid remarks: "The incidence of rent throughout the district is not heavy. The disputes about rents are due rather to the arbitrary and illegal manner in which the charges have been increased and to their unequal distribution than to the heaviness of the burden".

Produce rents.—The amount of land held on produce rent in the district is comparatively small. Three systems are in vogue, viz., *adh batai* or *sajha, saika,* and *maswar* or *kar.* Under the *sajha* system half the produce is payable, under the *saika* system a fixed amount, and under the *maswar* system an amount of the produce equivalent to the seed sown. Under the *saika* system the contributions are generally heavy, as the lands held are often part of the landlord's privileged lands. Many applications for commutation of these produce rents were received by the Settlement Officers.

Rent of trees.—By the custom of the district the owner of a tree is the person who planted it, or his successor-in-interest, and he has a full right to grow lac on his tree. Landlords, however, have, in some cases, ignored this custom of ownership and enforced the payment of rent for

privately-owned trees. On trees growing in the jungle the *raiyats* have not the same customary right to grow lac free of rent. But the rates payable are by no means uniform and vary with the market price of lac. In Kochedega and Raidih thanas no payments are made. In Ranchi thana the landlord charges from 8 annas to Rs. 3 per tree. In Gumla and Ghaghra thanas the *raiyats* pay sometimes half the value of the produce.

Post-Settlement Period (1910—35)

Agrarian Movements.—On the conclusion of the Survey and Settlement Operations (1902—10), in spite of the levy of *Dak Mashara* by some landlords and persistence of *abwabs* and *begari* in some form the relations between landlords and tenants generally improved. But about the year 1921-22 the Tana Bhagat and the Unnati Samaj movements under the influence of Non-Co-operation Movement launched by Mahatma Gandhi, adopted an attitude which was antagonistic to landlords and distrustful of Government*, the Tana Bhagats particularly crusaded against payment of rent to landlords.

The Kisan Sabha Movement was started in Ranchi district in 1931 under the leadership of Theble Oraon and Lorentius Barla. It aimed at improving the economic and agricultural condition of the tenantry and creating better relationship between them and their landlords. In 1934, it submitted a memorial to Government for realisation of settlement cost by instalments in three years because of the economic depression. The Government, however, rejected this memorial.†

Absentee Landlords.—The *amlas* and *tahsildars* of *absentee* landlords, e.g., Ranchi Zamindari Company (owners of Kairo estate) were found oppressive. The *tahsildars* were in the habit of resettling *raiyats* lands with other *tenants* on payment of *salami*‡ and this led to frequent mutual strife among *raiyats.*

Tenancy amendments.—As we have seen** there were important amendments in Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act, 1908, particularly with regard to rent reductions (section 33A). The Bihar Restoration of Bakast Land and Reduction of Arrear of Rent Act were also passed in 1938. Under these Acts the tenants began to assert their claims, usually extravagant against their landlords and this often created the problems of law and order.§

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* *Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations* (1927—35), p. 3.

† *Ibid*, p. 4.

‡ *Ibid*, p. 54.

** *See* Tenancy Legislation *(supra).*

§ *See the Land Revenue Administration Report of Ranchi*, 1938-39 and 1939-40.

Rent-reductions.—The Rent Reduction Operations led to a spate of civil suits; but they did not confer much benefit on the tenants as in most cases reductions in favour of tenants were restored in appeal by the Commissioner. This was mainly due to the interpretation of the clause relating to comparison of the prevailing prices of crops at the time of reduction with the prices of the year when the rent first became payable. The operations adversely affected the total income from rent of the petty landlords, who had not availed of section 85 of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act to get their rents settled during the Revisional Settlement. Besides, they were unable to prove, in absence of accurate records, when the rent first became payable. Thus the rent of *raiyats* of small landlords was usually reduced on the evidence adduced by *raiyats*. The big landlords like Maharaja of Chota Nagpur, who had got the rent of their *raiyats* finally settled under section 85 of Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act during the Revisional Settlement were not affected. The Rent Reduction Operations, however, resulted in reduction of cess payable by the Maharaja from Rs. 1,62,855 to Rs. 1,61,843. There was no rent reduction in the Khas Mahal. As regards the effect of sections 3 and 6 of the Bihar Restoration of Bakast Land and Reduction of Arrear of Rent Act, 1938, the general relationship between landlords and tenants tended to deteriorate considerably. As many as 196 suits were filed affecting 1,409.12 acres of land. 186 petitions were allowed with an area of 572.57 acres of land restored.*

Zamindari abolition.—During the tenure of the first popular Government in Bihar during 1937—39, proposal to abolish the zamindari system was mooted and this spurted the local Zamindars, like their counterparts elsewhere in the State to organise to resist this move. On the cessation of the Second World War the popular Government, which came in the wake of Independence, enacted the Land Reforms Act, 1950, which ended the permanent settlement.

Fair Rent Settlement.

Concept of rent.—"The previous rent history of Ranchi district", writes Taylor, "is completely chaotic and without form. A comparison of the rent history of this district and that of the neighbouring Porhat estate in Singhbhum district provides an interesting illustration of this fact. Both Ranchi and Porhat estates had a common starting point to their fiscal history, in that both the original system was an almost identical one of aboriginal village Government. In both rent was originally assessed on the person of the cultivator in the form of *Chanda*† and not on the land he held in the form of rent proper. In both, with the influx of a governing class from outside the idea gradually grew up that

* *See, the Land Revenue Administration Report of Ranchi, 1941-42.*

† Subscription.

the sum of money paid by the cultivator was attached to the land he held and not to his person, i.e., the idea of a territorial rent ousted the previous idea of a personal *chanda*. But here the similarly ceases. In Porhat, circumstances led to a regular series of rent settlements and recognised rates of rent. But in Ranchi the rent history proceeded without guidance or form. It was almost everywhere, as Sir James Sifton remarked, a struggle between the landlords and the *raiyats,* and the incidence of rent in each village reflects the comparative success or failure of the landlord in exploiting the villagers. As a result so far from there being any recognised rates of rent in the district the rates differ widely from village to village. It is, therefore, quite impossible to settle rents at one flat rate even in all villages of the same thana. It is interesting to note that this difficulty was encountered in the last settlement. Mr. Reid at first settled rents at flat rate for thanas Ghaghra and Bishunpur, but Sir James Sifton subsequently found that this method had caused violent enhancements of rent in some villages and abolished it, replacing it by a system of enhancements graduated according to the rates prevailing in a particular village."*

At the time of the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations (1927—35), the question was whether Government should order a general settlement of fair rents under the provisions of section 85 (2) (*ii*) of Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act, or one on application of the landlords or tenants under section 85 (2) (*i*). In July, 1929, the landholders' association of Ranchi submitted a memorial to Government asking for a general rent settlement, mainly on the grounds that rent settlement through application would involve considerable expense to the landlords as they would have to apply separately in the case of each tenancy; and secondly that under an application rent settlement the smaller and less educated landlords would fail to apply. The Deputy Commissioner agreed with these contentions and supported the request, but the Commissioner took the opposite view. The Government, agreeing with the Commissioner, rejected the memorial and ordered an application rent settlement under provisions of section 85 (2) (*i*) of Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act. The decision of Government appears to have been influenced considerably by the Tana Bhagat Movement, campaigning against rent payment and also that the landlords as a class had done little to improve the condition of the tenantry to make out a case for general enhancement of rent in their favour. The fair rent settlement done in Ranchi district was therefore an application one under the provisions of section 85 (2) (*i*) of Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act. But in Biru estate under the Court of Wards, and certain Khas Mahal villages a general fair rent settlement under section 85 (2) (*ii*) was done.

* F. E. A. Taylor: *Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations Report*, 1940, pp. 70-71.

The following thanawar statement shows the increase in rent in Khas Mahal villages due to rent settlement*:—

Serial no.	Name of thana.	Total number of village.	Rent of Kabil-lagan area.	Attested rent.	Settled rent.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
			Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	
1	Ranchi ..	72	187 0 0	23,909 11 9	26,992 12 9	
2	Ormanjhi ..	1	..	200 0 6	227 8 0	
3	Bero ..	1	16 12 9	684 14 6	789 15 9	
4	Angara ..	2	0 8 0	1,161 6 0	1,303 2 0	
5	Lohardaga ..	4	15 1 0	1,181 5 9	1,316 4 0	
6	Khunti ..	4	19 14 0	436 0 9	516 12 6	
7	Ghaghra ..	1	7 8 0	482 3 0	496 5 3	
8	Sisai	2	..	1,039 5 6	1,161 4 6	
9	Raidih ..	2	13 6 0	558 13 0	629 3 6	
10	Gumla ..	2	14 14 0	1,100 15 6	1,251 7 0	
11	Chainpur ..	1	2 1 0	51 11 0	61 3 0	
12	Karra ..	1	13 10 0	474 8 3	552 1 6	
	TOTAL ..	93	280 10 9	31,281 0 0	35,298 0 3	

Proposals for fair rent.—J. W. Houlton as Settlement Officer proposed the following general principles on which the rent settlement in Ranchi District was to be conducted:—

(*a*) The Fair Rent Officer shall not ordinarily allow any enhancement except on one or more of the grounds set out in provisions (*i*), (*ii*) and (*iii*) of section 29, Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act.

* *The Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations* (1927—35) *Report*, 1940, p. 72.

The increase in rent might perhaps have been due to better administration in *Khasmahal* and also absence of all kinds of *abwabs*, etc.

(*b*) There shall be no attempt to arrive at uniformity of rates between villages. Thus no enhancement will ordinarily be allowed on the sole ground that the rate of rent paid by a *raiyat* is less than that paid by a *raiyat* in another village.

(*c*) Enhancements may be allowed on the ground that there has been a rise in the average local prices of staple food crops. The Fair Rent Officer after arriving at what he considers to be a fair proportional enhancement on this ground may enhance the last settlement village rate in that proportion; provided that no village rate shall be so enhanced as to exceed a figure to be fixed by the Fair Rent Settlement Officer.

(*d*) The rent of no holding shall be enhanced beyond the level of the new village rate. Rents may be enhanced up to that rate, but the maximum enhancement shall, except in special cases, be 50 per cent.

(*e*) In villages with a mixed population of aboriginals and non-aboriginals, and where it is found that the aboriginals hold their lands at a lower rate than the non-aboriginals, separate village rates may be fixed for each of these two classes. (This was done in the last settlement, vide Sir James Sifton's Supplement to Chapter X of Mr. Reid's Final Report. The same custom whereby aboriginals hold at lower rates than non-aboriginals was found in the Kolhan and the Santal Parganas.)

(*f*) The Fair Rent Settlement Officer may refund any enhancement or order a less enhancement than would otherwise have been ordered if *salami* has been paid on account of the holding since the settlement.

(*g*) All *belagan kabil lagan* land and *nayabadi* holdings not yet assessed to rent shall ordinarily be assessed to rent at the full new village rates, *Korkar* will be assessed at full rates, or half rates or otherwise according to the custom of the village. The *salami*, if any, paid for new settlement will be taken into consideration and the Fair Rent Officer may refuse to assess *nayabadi* lands to rent or may assess them to a low rent or refuse to increase the rent already in existence if a heavy *salami* was paid by the *raiyat*.

(*h*) The Fair Rent Officer may order less than the normal enhancement in the case of small and uneconomic holdings.

Houlton was also of the view that all the circumstances being considered 12½ per cent was the maximum enhancement in the village rate that should be allowed on the ground of rise in prices since the last settlement. He also considered that something in the neighbourhood of Re. 0-2-6 was the maximum thana unit rate beyond which no village rate in the three thanas, namely, Bundu, Sonahatu and Tamar should be enhanced.

Houlton showed that there was a very wide difference between the present settlement and the last settlement methods of classifying lands and the present method of classification was more correct than the last one and, therefore, the "prevailing rate of every village will have to be calculated according to the present settlement classification and existing rent, allowances being made for differences in area", and that the Fair Rents Officer would see that *raiyat* was not penalised for improvement made by him since the last settlement.

Assessment of tanr lands.—He also proposed to assess the *tanr* lands to rent as well as the rice land. The old custom in many parts of the district had been that the *tanr* lands were complementary to the *don* lands and carried no rent.* In the Panch Parganas *begari* done by *raiyats* was generally held to be on account of their *tanr* lands. However, the custom of holding complementary rent-free *tanr* land was rapidly dying out. The *tanr* lands were assessed to rent in the more highly cultivated areas at the time of the last settlement. In new settlements *tanr* lands were usually assessed by the landlords in all parts of the district. Houlton, therefore, was of the opinion that to maintain the old custom, already moribund, would have worked unfavourably for the *raiyats* who had hitherto frequently had to pay *salami* for making *Korkar* out of their own *tanr* lands.† He also held that the effects on rents would be much the same whether the old custom about complementary *tanr* in *Chatisa* holdings was maintained or not, since the assessment of *tanr* lands to rent would result in a corresponding reduction of the rates of rent assessed on *don* lands. Ultimately the principle of assessing *tanr* lands to rent was adopted in the revisional settlement. Taylor remarks that although the actual practice of having complementary rent-free *tanr* lands was dead in Ranchi district at the time of revisional settlement, the idea still lingered in the tenants' minds and occasional grumbles about the assessment of *tanr* lands were heard during the revisional settlement. However, the tenants, by and large, accepted the assessment of *tanr* lands to rent as a natural consequence.

* *See*, paragraph 217 of Reid's *Final Settlement Report*, pp. 95-96.

† *See*, Reid's remarks on this point at paragraph 321, page 189 of his last *Final Settlement Report*.

Discussions on fair rent.—Detailed discussions of Houlton's proposals took place at top official level. Mansfield, Director of Land Records and Surveys, considered two annas in the rupee enhancement proposed by Houlton on the ground of the rise in prices too small. He held that cosidering the enhancements more or less recently given on this ground in other districts, and in view of the fact that an enhancement of two annas in the rupee had been given in some places in Ranchi district in the last settlement, an enhancement somewhere in the neighbourhood of three or four annas in the rupee would be more suitable. He, therefore, proposed a 20 per cent enhancement as the normal one on the ground of the rise in prices. Berthoud, Commissioner, Chota Nagpur, was of the opinion that "no all-round percentage increase should be given on the ground of the rise in prices and that no increase on this ground should exceed by more than 12 per cent the current rent, and that there should be a rule limiting the total increase in rent on a holding on the model of Sambalpur and Santal Parganas Rules".

Decision of Government.—The principles ultimately decided on by Government for fair rent settlement in Ranchi district are contained in letter no. 3459-S-10, dated the 8th April 1930, from the Secretary to Goverment in the Revenue Department to the Secretary to the Board of Revenue. Mansfield had deprecated the issue of any general instructions regarding fair rent settlement, as he considered the matter to be a judicial question as between landlord and tenant, and not a matter of policy. Government, however, disagreeing with this view decided that the following general principles should be observed*:—

(*i*) That fair rents be fixed on application on the merits of each case in accordance with the principles stated by Mr. Houlton in his proposal already mentioned.

(*ii*) That no all-round percentage increase be given on the ground of a rise in the prices of staple food crops, and that no increase on this ground exceed 12½ per cent of the current rate.

(*iii*) That a rule be adopted on the lines of that followed in the Sambalpur and Santal Parganas settlements limiting the total increase of rents in holdings.

(*iv*) That *salami* realised by the landlords at the time of settlement of lands be taken into consideration in fixing rents.

The general principles of fair rent settlement in Ranchi took their final shape in the judgment of Sir John Hubback, then Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, in appeal from Mr. Mansfield (as Settlement Officer) in

* *See*, letter no. 3459-S-10, dated the 8th April, 1930, from the Secretary to Government in the Revenue Department to the Secretary to the Board of Revenue.

the Birhu-Dorma cases, decided in March, 1933. The following changes in the previous principles were made:—

(*i*) The principle of calculating separate unit rates for aboriginals in villages where they held at the lower unit rate was reintroduced.

(*ii*) A general increase of rents by 12½ per cent on the ground of rise in prices was introduced. Previously there had no order for a general all-round increase, but it had merely been stated that the increase on this ground was not to exceed 12½ per cent.

(*iii*) Mr. Mansfield's introduction of a flat rate of enhancement by so many pies per unit in place of the previous complicated scale of percentage was upheld. But as Sir John Hubback held that Mr. Mansfield's rate of 3 pies a unit was adopted in a purely arbitrary manner, he introduced the following system by which the flat rate of enhancement was linked up to the enhancement of 12½ per cent given on the ground of rise in prices. The village prevailing rate was worked out* and then 1|8th of this rate to the nearest pie was taken as the flat rate of enhancement per unit to be allowed on the ground of the rent being below the prevailing rate.

(*iv*) The amount of enhancement on old rents was limited to 50 per cent of the existing rent, but this was irrespective of assessment on *kabil lagan* or *nayabadi* lands held by the *raiyat*. The latter were in all cases to be assessed at the full new village prevailing rates without any limitation in the nature of a Sambalpur rule. The 50 per cent limit did, however, include any assessment on the last settlement rental lands.

(*v*) Area in excess of 5 per cent over the last settlement area of the holding was to be assessed at the unit rates applicable to the worst land in the holding.

As regards 12½ per cent enhancement, Taylor observes: "My own impression as regards that part of the rent settlement for which I was

* To obtain the prevailing village rate the rent-paying land of the village was reduced on the basis of the present settlement classification to units of *tanr* III in the ratio of 20 :16 : 10 : : 4 :1 for the three classes of *don* and three of tanr. The total rents paid for the rent paying lands were reduced to terms of pies and divided by the number of units calculated in the above manner. The result was enhanced 2 annas in the rupee, or 12½ per cent, subject to the maximum unit rate fixed for each particular thana. The resulting figure was the prevailing unit rate of the village. All rents with unit rates below this prevailing rate were enhanced towards, but not necessarily up to it, subject to certain limitations (for details *see*, *Final Report on Revisional Survey and Settlement*), and rents with unit rates above it were left alone.

responsible was that the landlords on the whole considered 12½ per cent too low an increase to allow on the ground of the rise in prices. Mr. Mansfield was in favour of a four annas in the rupee increase. His main grounds for this opinion were firstly that the actual amount of the increase in the prices of staple food crops since the last settlement warranted an enhancement of more than two annas in the rupee; secondly that enhancements recently given in the other districts, such as Balasore, had resulted in rates of rent which formed a much larger percentage of the average *raiyat's* annual income than the low Ranchi rents would if only enhanced by two annas, although the productivity of the Ranchi lands was the same or greater. I do not propose to discuss Mr. Mansfield's arguments here, but in my opinion two annas in the rupee, or 12½ per cent, is the maximum enhancement that could in the circumstances have been allowed on the ground of a rise in prices. Although it is true that on a comparison of the decennial period 1923–32 with that from 1897–1906 there has been a 62 per cent rise in prices, when it is considered that most of the *raiyati* holdings in Ranchi give a very little margin of produce for sale, and that there has been about a 50 per cent rise in the cost of living since 1914, it will be seen that only a small part of the benefit arising from increased prices for staple food crops accrues to the average *raiyat*. It must be remembered that in some cases a holding has had a *salami* equivalent to its market sale value paid for it before rent is ever settled on it, and that the landlords have in the majority of cases done nothing for their tenants by way of improvement; I do not consider, therefore, that the landlords were entitled to any special consideration in the matter of enhancing rents. It is also an established fact that the upland soil of Ranchi is amongst the poorest in the province. Finally although a comparison of the decennial periods mentioned above shows a 62 per cent increase in prices, the rent settlement in Ranchi coincided with the beginning of a world-wide economic depression which caused a large drop in these prices."*

On separate unit rates for aboriginals Taylor observes:

"The justification of calculating separate unit rates for aboriginals is to be found in the rent history of the district. The aboriginal tenants are in many cases descendants of the original clearers of the soil, and the specially low rates at which many of them hold their lands are the natural historical outcome of this fact. The objections to this system were excellently summarised by Mr. Mansfield in his appellate judgment under section 85 in the Birhu-Dorma cases. The main objections are, firstly, that it is not legal, since the law says that an occupancy *raiyat's* rent may be enhanced if it is below the prevailing rate paid by occupancy *raiyats* for lands of the same class and advantages, *not* if it

* *See*, paragraph 145 of *Revisional Survey and Settlement*, p. 77.

is below the prevailing rent paid by occupancy *raiyat* of the same race; secondly that it is unfair on the non-aboriginals in that in villages where they hold at lower rates than the aboriginals their unit rate is increased by reason of the aboriginals' higher rents, while in villages where the aboriginals hold at the lower rates the non-aboriginals get no corresponding reduction. Logically Mr. Mansfield's arguments are unanswerable. I myself made test experiments on the second point in 37 villages of thana Raidih, and found the non-aboriginals to be losers by the present system in almost every case. I accordingly took the matter up with Mr. Philip, the Commissioner. But after discussion it was decided that in view of the economic depression the time was not suitable for any change in rent settlement policy; and that Sir John Hubback's appellate judgment, being the final judicial pronouncement on the point, could not be questioned. The matter was accordingly dropped and separate unit rates for aboriginals continued to be worked out as before."*

Mansfield argued that as the rates were extremely low it was better to give progressive enhancements to mitigate any hardship rather lower the rate of rent permanently; and that it was absurd that where there was no old holding the *kabil lagan* lands were assessed at full rates, whereas if there was an old holding of one or two dismals the rent on the land of the *kabil lagan* was practically reduced by half. Government in their letter no. R.R.|3S-131|32, dated the 17th October, 1932 from the Revenue Secretary to the Board of Revenue accepted Mansfield's arguments and agreed that the Sambalpur rule should be abolished and be replaced by a system of progressive enhancements.** Taylor observes that he agreed entirely with Mansfield's view and considered that the Sambalpur rule was both unfair and cumbersome in its working in Ranchi district.

Enhancement of rents.—In the first blocks taken up for rent settlement there was an involved system of proportional enhancements.† The later system of enhancing by a flat rate of so many pies per unit is clearly a much more satisfactory system than the previous one. In the first place it is much simpler and consequently more intelligible to the parties; in the second place it secures a much smoother sliding scale of enhancements varying in inverse ratio to the lowness or highness of the existing rent; lastly fairer as it ensures that low rents will remain low

* *Revisional, Survey and Settlement*, paragraph 146, p. 77.

** During the rest of the rent settlement in Ranchi *kabil lagan* and *nayabadi* lands were assessed at full rates and progressive enhancements were introduced, wherever necessary.

† *See*, paragraph 144 (*a*) (*iv*) of the *Final Report of Revisional Survey and Settlement*, p. 75

after enhancement and that high rents will get a proportionally lower enhancement. The previous system of percentages is demonstrably unfair in that a *raiyat* whose existing unit rate was 1 anna above 1|3rd of the new prevailing rate got enhancement heavier by 8 per cent than a *raiyat* whose existing unit rate was one anna below 1|3rd and so on.

When the Sambalpur rule was abolished it was ordered that the full force of heavy increases of rent on *kabil lagan* and *nayabadi* lands should be broken by giving progressive steps in enhancements. Progressive enhancements were allowed in some cases from the very beginning of rent settlement in the district, as for instance when the rent was Rs. 10 or more. In 1933 the application of progressive enhancements was systematised and they were extended to large increase of rent in old rental holdings as well as to *kabil lagan* and *nayabadi* lands. The principles for progressive enhancements were laid down in two test cases under section 89, Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act and applied retrospectively to blocks B and C, block A being time-barred, as well as to blocks D, E and F* which had not at that time been taken up for rent settlement. It is interesting to note that the largest landlord in the district, the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur, accepted the progressive enhancement principle willingly. The principles laid down were as follows:—

(*a*) Where the enhancement on old rental lands or the assessment on *kabil lagan* or *nayabadi* lands was Rs. 1-8-0 or over but less than Rs. 3, two steps, the first to come into force at once and the second, the full new rent, after 3 years. Where the enhancement or assessment was Rs. 3 and over three steps, the first to come into force at once, the second after three years, and the third, representing the full new rent, after a further three years.

(*b*) Taking 100 per cent to represent the full new rent in the case of two step enhancements the first step was fixed at 40 per cent and the second at 60 per cent (i.e., 100 per cent in all). In the case of three step enhancements the first step was fixed at 30 per cent, the second at 60 per cent more (i.e., 90 per cent in all) and the third at 10 per cent (i.e., 100 per cent in all).

(*c*) The above orders were generally to be followed, but complete discretion was left to Fair Rent Officers to vary both the number of steps and the amounts of the percentages in particular cases if they considered it necessary.

(*d*) Old rental and *kabil lagan* or *nayabadi khatas* were ordinarily to be considered separately for the purpose of fixing progressive steps, but Fair Rent Officers might in special cases

* For details of these blocks, *see*, *Revisional Survey and Settlement*, pp. 12-13.

if they considered it fair to do so, take the enhancement on a *raiyat's* old rental *khata* into consideration in fixing progressive steps in his *kabil lagan* or *nayabadi khatas* and *vice versa.*

Excess area.—The principle of assessing to rent excess area of over 5 per cent on the old holding was applied conversely in cases of reduction of area in which reduction of rent was applied for. In some cases of this sort although the area had decreased by 5 per cent or more the unitary value of the holding was the same, or even greater, by reason of portions of the holding having been converted from lower into higher classes of land. For this reason no reduction of rent was allowed unless it was shown that the unitary value as well as the area of the holding had decreased by more than 5 per cent. In the case of increase of area also Fair Rent Officers had to make sure that unitary value and area had both increased by more than 5 per cent before allowing any enhancement on this ground.

Claims to enhancement of rents by landlords.—To a great extent the claims put forward by the landlords as reasons for enhancing the tenants' rents had special reference to the particular cases in which they were made. There were, however, some general claims which were made in practically every case. The commonest of these was firstly that the tenants' rent was below the prevailing rate paid by occupancy *raiyats* for similar lands in the same or neighbouring villages, and secondly that there had been a rise in the average prices of staple food crops during the currency of the present rent. Both those claims have been discussed above. Besides these two items landlords in the majority of villages also claimed firstly that the productive powers of the lands in suit had increased otherwise than by the agency of the tenants; secondly that the rents were low in view of the discontinuance of praedial services and *rakumats,* and in view of the tenants' enjoyment of the produce of trees, particularly lac-bearing trees, standing in their holdings and recorded in their names; and thirdly that the tenants were enjoying the benefits of improved road and railway communications. The first of these grounds was a valid one, but in Ranchi it could be proved in very few cases indeed. As regards the second ground, praedial services and *rakumats* were mostly commuted and added to the rents at the time of the last settlement. The rents of trees, except where specially shown as liable to assessment were actually separately assessed, and included in the rents of the holdings and had been so included since the last settlement. The price of lac at the time of the revisional survey was actually less than at the time of the last settlement, and so if it were considered separately it would be an argument for reduction rather than enhancement. Finally it was not argued, even by the most optimistic landlords, that the tenants loaded their marketable produce on the railway or on lorries themselves; they only derived from these causes such benefits as might be reflected in the rise

of the local prices of staple food crops. No separate enhancement could, therefore, reasonably be allowed on the ground of improved communications.

Applications for rent reduction.—In the earlier part of the rent settlement there were practically no applications for reduction of rents. The first block in which they were noticed in large numbers was D.* Taylor observes that this was largely due to the strong influence of the Christian missionaries in this area and also partly to the reduction in court-fees. The equally large numbers of such applications in blocks E† and F‡ are also attributable to the same causes, with the additional reason in block F that the area was easily accessible to the Ranchi bar. "I do not consider", says Taylor, "that these applications for reduction reflect any unfairly high incidence of rents in any part of the district."**

The principle adopted for dealing with reduction applications was that if the rent of the holding in question greatly exceeded the thana maximum unit rate and was also obviously unfair in view of the size and quality of the holding it was to be reduced at the discretion of the Fair Rent Officer. It was *not* to be reduced merely because it exceeded the thana maximum rate.

As the rent settlement was an application one under the provisions of section 85 (2) (*i*), Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act, only a small proportion of the rent paying area of the district came under it. The total number of applications for enhancement filed affected only 89,705 rent paying holdings covering 1,130.6 square miles as against a total number of 298,960 rent paying holdings covering 2,894.4 square miles in the whole district, the area affected being only 39 per cent of the total rent paying area of the district. The total increase of rent, including rent settled on *kabil lagan* lands, was 22.93 per cent. This represented only 5.6 per cent of the landlord's share of survey and settlement costs, which was Rs. 15,16,425 for the whole district.§

Since no standard rates could be applied to the whole or any portion of the district, it is impossible to give any table of rents actually fixed in Ranchi during the rent settlement. The table below, however, gives a thanawar table of the average rates of rent per acre settled in the various classes of land in old rental holdings and in *kabil lagan* and *nayabadi* holdings.$

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* Portions of Kolebira, Simdega, Kurdeg, Palkot, Gumla, Raidih and Chainpur.

† Portions of Chainpur, Bishunpur, Ghaghra, Sesai, Kuru, Lohardaga and Lapung.

‡ Ranchi Sadar and Kotwali, Ormanjhi, Silli, Angara, Mandar, Bero and Burmu.

** Taylor: *Final Report on Revisional Survey and Settlement*, p. 81.

§ *Ibid.*

$ *See*, Appendix K, Table III to the *Final Report on Revisional Survey and Settlement*, p. lxxii.

Thanawar table of average rates

Name of thanas.	*Nakdi* holdings.					
	Don.			Tanr.		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1. Sonahatu ..	1 14 0	1 8 0	0 15 0	0 12 0	0 6 0	0 1 6
2. Tamar	2 1 4	1 10 8	1 0 8	0 13 4	0 6 8	0 1 8
3. Bundu	1 9 0	1 4 0	0 12 6	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 1 3
4. Khunti ..	1 4 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 4 3	0 1 0
5. Karra	1 7 4	1 2 8	0 11 8	0 9 4	0 4 8	0 1 2
6. Torpa	1 2 4	0 14 8	0 9 2	0 7 4	0 3 8	0 0 11
7. Bano	0 11 8	0 9 4	0 5 10	0 4 8	0 3 4	0 0 7
8. Kolebira ..	0 13 4	0 10 8	0 6 8	0 5 4	0 2 8	0 0 8
9. Simdega ..	0 13 4	0 10 8	0 6 8	0 5 4	0 2 8	0 0 8
10. Kurdeg	0 15 0	0 12 0	0 7 6	0 6 0	0 3 0	0 0 9
11. Basia	1 2 4	0 14 8	0 9 2	0 7 4	0 3 8	0 0 11
12. Gumla	1 12 4	1 6 8	0 14 2	0 11 4	0 5 8	0 1 5
13. Palkot	1 7 4	1 2 8	0 11 8	0 9 4	0 4 8	0 1 2
14. Raidih	1 7 4	1 2 8	0 11 8	0 9 4	0 4 8	0 1 2
15. Chainpur ..	1 4 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 4 0	0 1 0
16. Sesai	1 12 4	1 6 8	0 14 2	0 11 4	0 5 8	0 1 5
17. Ghaghra ..	1 10 8	1 5 4	0 13 4	0 10 8	0 5 4	0 1 4
18. Bishunpur ..	1 5 8	1 1 4	0 10 10	0 8 8	0 4 4	0 1 1
19. Ranchi ..	2 3 0	1 12 0	1 1 6	0 14 0	0 7 0	0 1 9
20. Angara ..	1 5 8	1 1 4	0 10 10	0 8 8	0 4 4	0 1 1
21. Ormanjhi ..	1 15 8	1 9 4	0 15 10	0 12 8	0 6 4	0 1 7
22. Silli	1 5 8	1 1 4	0 10 10	0 8 8	0 4 4	0 1 1
23. Burmu	2 3 0	1 12 0	1 1 6	0 14 0	0 7 0	0 1 9
24. Lohardaga ..	2 1 4	1 10 8	1 0 8	0 13 4	0 6 8	0 1 8
25. Kuru	2 3 0	1 12 0	1 1 6	0 14 0	0 7 0	0 1 9
26. Lapung ..	1 7 4	1 2 8	0 11 8	0 9 4	0 4 8	0 1 2
27. Bero	2 11 4	2 2 8	1 5 8	1 1 4	0 8 8	0 2 2
28.Mandar* ..	2 1 4	1 10 8	1 0 8	0 13 4	0 6 8	0 1 8

* Appendix K, Table III, p. lxxii to the *Final Report on Revisional Survey and Settlement.*

of rent per acre in Ranchi district.

Name of thanas.	*Kabil Lujan* and *Nayabadi* holdings.					
	Don.			Tanr.		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
1	8	9	10	11	12	13
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1. Sonahatu ..	1 12 4	1 6 8	0 14 2	0 11 4	0 5 8	0 1 5
2. Tamar	2 3 0	1 12 0	1 1 6	0 14 0	0 7 0	0 1 9
3. Bundu	1 4 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 4 0	0 1 9
4. Khunti ..	1 0 8	0 13 4	0 8 4	0 6 8	0 3 4	0 10 0
5. Karra	1 4 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 4 0	0 1 0
6. Torpa	0 15 0	0 12 0	0 7 6	0 6 0	0 3 0	0 0 9
7. Bano	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 5 0	0 4 0	0 2 0	0 0 6
8. Kolebira ..	0 11 8	0 9 4	0 5 10	0 4 8	0 2 4	0 0 7
9. Simdega ..	0 13 4	0 10 8	0 6 8	0 5 4	0 2 8	0 0 8
10. Kurdeg	1 0 8	0 13 4	0 8 4	0 6 8	0 3 4	0 0 10
11. Basia	1 4 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 4 0	0 1 0
12. Gumla	1 7 4	1 2 8	0 11 8	0 9 4	0 4 8	0 1 2
13. Palkot	0 14 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 4 0	0 1 0
14. Raidih	1 5 8	1 1 4	0 10 10	0 8 8	0 4 4	0 1 1
15. Chainpur ..	0 15 0	0 12 0	0 7 6	0 6 0	0 3 0	0 0 9
16. Sesai	1 12 4	1 6 8	0 14 2	0 11 4	0 5 8	0 1 5
17. Ghaghra ..	1 15 8	1 9 4	0 15 10	0 12 8	0 6 4	0 1 7
18. Bishunpur ..	1 4 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 4 0	0 1 0
19. Ranchi ..	2 3 0	1 12 0	1 1 6	0 14 0	0 7 0	0 1 9
20. Angara ..	1 4 0	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 4 0	0 1 0
21. Ormanjhi ..	2 3 0	1 12 0	1 1 6	0 14 0	0 7 0	0 1 9
22. Silli	1 14 0	1 8 0	0 15 0	0 12 0	0 6 0	0 1 6
23. Burmu	2 3 0	1 12 0	1 1 6	0 14 0	0 7 0	0 1 9
24. Lohardaga ..	1 15 8	1 9 4	0 15 10	0 12 8	0 6 4	0 1 7
25. Kuru	2 3 0	1 12 0	1 1 6	0 14 0	0 7 0	0 1 9
26. Lapung ..	1 5 8	1 1 4	0 10 10	0 8 8	0 4 4	0 1 1
27. Bero	2 4 8	1 13 4	1 2 4	0 14 8	0 7 4	0 1 10
28. Mandar ..	2 6 4	1 14 8	1 3 2	0 15 4	0 7 8	0 1 11

The above table gives some sort of idea of the scale of rents considered fair by the settlement department. In consulting the table it must, however, be remembered that the rents shown in it are merely averages of the rents settled for all classes of tenants and, therefore, that the principle of fixing a separate unit rate for aboriginals in certain cases is only reflected in so far as the averages have been reduced by the lower aboriginal rates.*

The table below shows the maximum thana rates per acre fixed in the different classes of land during Fair Rent Settlement†:—

Serial no.	Name of thana.	Don.						Tanr.					
		1			2			3			1		
1	2	3			4			5			6		
		Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.
1	Bano ..	3	2	0	2	8	0	1	9	0	1	4	0
2	Kolebira ..	3	7	0	2	12	0	1	11	6	1	6	0
3	Simdega ..	3	7	0	2	12	0	1	11	6	1	6	0
4	Kurdeg ..	3	7	0	2	12	0	1	11	6	1	6	0
5	Basia ..	3	2	0	2	8	0	1	9	0	1	4	0
6	Gumla ..	3	8	8	2	13	4	1	12	4	1	6	8
7	Palkot ..	3	7	0	2	12	0	1	11	6	1	6	0
8	Raidih ..	4	12	8	3	13	4	2	6	4	1	14	8
9	Chainpur ..	3	15	4	3	2	8	1	15	8	1	9	4
10	Sesai .	3	15	4	3	2	8	1	15	8	1	9	4
11	Ghaghra .	3	15	4	3	2	8	1	15	8	1	9	4
12	Bishunpur	3	15	4	3	2	8	1	15	8	1	9	4
13	Sonahatu	3	2	0	2	8	0	1	9	0	1	4	0
14	Tamar ..	3	2	0	2	8	0	1	9	0	1	4	0
15	Bundu ..	3	2	0	2	8	0	1	9	0	1	4	0
16	Khunti ..	2	13	0	2	4	0	1	6	6	1	2	0
17	Karra ..	2	13	0	2	4	0	1	6	6	1	2	0
18	Torpa ..	3	2	0	2	8	0	1	9	0	1	4	0
19	Ranchi ..	4	12	8	3	13	4	2	6	4	1	14	8
20	Angara ..	3	15	4	3	2	8	1	15	8	1	9	4
21	Ormanjhi ..	4	1	0	3	4	0	2	0	6	1	10	0
22	Silli ..	4	9	4	3	10	8	2	4	8	1	13	4
23	Burmu ..	4	12	8	3	13	4	2	6	4	1	14	8
24	Lohardaga ..	4	1	0	3	4	0	2	0	6	1	10	0
25	Kuru ..	3	15	4	3	2	8	1	15	8	1	9	4
26	Lapung ..	3	15	4	3	2	8	1	15	8	1	9	4
27	Bero ..	4	1	0	3	4	0	2	0	6	1	10	0
28	Mandar .	4	11	0	3	12	0	2	5	6	1	14	0

Tanr.								
2			3					
7			8					
Rs.	a.	p.	Rs.	a.	p.			
0	10	0	0	2	6			
0	11	0	0	2	9			
0	11	0	0	2	9			
0	11	0	0	2	9			
0	10	0	0	2	6			
0	10	0	0	2	10			
0	11	4	0	2	9			
0	11	0	0	2	9			
0	15	4	0	3	10			
0	12	8	0	3	2			
0	12	8	0	3	2			
0	12	8	0	3	2			
0	10	0	0	2	6			
0	10	0	0	2	6			
0	10	0	0	2	6			
0	9	0	0	2	3			
0	9	0	0	2	3			
0	10	0	0	2	6			
0	15	4	0	3	10			
0	12	8	0	3	2			
0	13	0	0	3	3			
0	14	8	0	3	8			
0	15	4	0	3	10			
0	13	0	0	3	3			
0	12	8	0	3	2			
0	12	8	0	3	2			
0	13	0	0	3	3			
0	15	0	0	3	9			

Rent commutation.—The general principles for the commutation of produce rents under section 61, Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act adopted during the revisional settlement were as follows:—The cash value of the produce of the holding the rent of which was to be commuted was calculated on the basis of the average local price of common rice over

* *Final Report on Revisional Survey and Settlement*, p. 81.

† *See*, Appendix K, Table IV to the *Final Report on Survey and Settlement Operations*, p lxxiii.

a period of years. Half of the total cash value was taken to represent the landlord's half share of the produce. This amount was then reduced by certain percentages to cover the cost of harvesting, threshing, cartage, retailer's profit, etc. The resulting figure was reduced to terms of paddy and a mean was struck between it and the cash rent for the holding to be commuted as calculated on its unitary value at the prevailing rate of the village in question. This mean was to be the commuted cash rent of the holding.

These general principles were slightly varied in Ranchi district. Normally the average price of common rice is calculated over a decennial period of years, but as local prices had stood abnormally high for a number of years before the beginning of rent settlement operations, and had then slumped very heavily, this would have been unfair on the tenants as it would have made the resulting commuted rent far too high in view of the prevailing depression in prices. To have based commutation on the extremely low prices prevailing at the time of the rent settlement would have been unfair to the landlords. A quinquennial period was, therefore, taken, as this excluded many of the years of boom prices and struck a fairer proportion between the previous high prices and the contemporary low ones. Even the quinquennial period, however, still contained two years of very high prices, and its adoption did not achieve the end in view. The Settlement Officer, therefore, struck mean between the average price of common rice during the quinquennial period and the actual local price at the time prevailing, and reduced the resulting figure to terms of paddy. This gave a rate of Rs. 2-2-0 a maund in Palkot police-station in the latter part of the rent settlement. This system gave a fair average price for paddy and had also the merit of reflecting any rise or fall in local prices that might occur during the course of the rent settlement.

The percentage deducted for harvesting, etc., in commutation cases in the rent settlement was normally about 5 per cent for harvesting, 15 per cent for drying, etc., and 10 per cent for retailer's profit plus 2 annas a mile for cartage. It was frequently impressed on Fair Rent Officers that the percentages should be carefully calculated according to the actual expenditure involved in the particular case, and not according to any preconceived ideas of a fixed standard.

It happened in some case that the rent settlement being an application one, suits under section 61 were filed in villages in which there had been no suits under section 85, Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act. and where, therefore, no prevailing rate had been worked out. In these circumstances the prevailing rate of a neighbouring village, containing similar lands in which suits under section 85 had been filed, was adopted subject to the parties' right to object.

Commutation in *saika* and *maswar* holdings was done on the same lines as commutation in ordinary *sajha* or *adhbatai* holdings described above except that in the latter the tenant's dues to the landlord were worked out in maunds and seers of seed and divided by the cycle of years within which crops were grown on the *maswar* holdings for in *maswar* holdings crops are not normally grown every year. In both *maswar* and *saika* holdings no deduction for harvesting and dryage was made, as the landlord in both these cases was entitled to a fixed share of dry grain as opposed to half share of the cut crop in *adhbatai* holdings.

It was a standing grievance with the tenants that the unit rates of commuted rents were always much higher than those of rents fixed under section 85. The unit rates of commuted rents were normally annas 6 to annas 7 while those of rents fixed under section 85 were rarely more than Re. 0-2-6. Taylor observes, "It is of course only fair that the landlord should receive a higher rent in cases of commutation as compensation for the loss of his half share of the produce, the cash value of which was generally more than double the amount of the commuted rent". As, however, at the time of the rent settlement scarcity of ready money made it easier for the tenants to pay a heavy produce rent than a fairly substantial cash one, Fair Rent Officers were told to explain the position clearly and to let the tenants withdraw their applications under section 61 if they wished to do so. As a result a number of these applications were withdrawn in each thana.

Generally speaking the attitude of the people of the district throughout the fair rent settlement was apathetic. The landlords were less apathetic than the tenants. They felt that they should be getting a larger increase in their rent rolls than the fair rent settlement had given them. There was no open opposition to the rent settlement with one notable exception in thanas Kolebira and Basia, in November and December, 1932. In these two thanas, a violent agitation against the rent settlement camp started amongst the tenants who began a regular campaign of boycott. But this agitation died down shortly and there was no further boycott.

Khatians.—The Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations (1927—35) had settled rents of the *raiyats* of every denomination. Every *raiyat* was given a *khatian* which contains the description of the plots of his land and the rental which he has to pay to the landlord. The number of *khatian* during revisional survey and settlement was 5,20,290 as against 3,77,435 during the settlement of 1902—10. The average size of *khatian* was 11 plots covering an area of 8.72 acres.*

The Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950

The Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950 (Bihar Act 30 of 1950), is a landmark in the history of tenancy legislation inasmuch as

* *Revisional Survey and Settlement Report* (1927—35), p. 84.

it ended the permanent settlement made in 1793 by Lord Cornwallis and established a direct link between the State and the tenants. It provided for the transference to the State of the interests of proprietors and tenure-holders in land and of the mortgagees and lessees of such interests including interests in trees, forests, fisheries, *jalkars*, ferries, *hat, bazars,* mines and minerals, free from all incumbrances section 4 (*a*) on payment of appropriate compensation and for the constitution of a Land Commission for the State of Bihar with powers to advise the State Government on the agrarian policy to be pursued by the State Government consequent upon such transference and for other matters connected therewith. It came into force all over the State on the 25th September, 1950.*

It also provided that the homesteads of the intermediaries (section 5), certain other lands in their *Khas* possession (section 6), and buildings together with lands on which such buildings stand in the possession of intermediaries and used as *golas,* factories or mills (section 7) shall be retained by them on payment of rent. The outgoing intermediaries were also given the right of option in the first instance in respect of the settlement of *hat, bazar* or *mela* held on their land prior to the vesting of their estate (section 7C). This took effect from 2nd January, 1960.

Further, the Act provided that mines comprised in the estate or tenure as were in operation at the commencement of this Act and were being worked directly by the intermediary shall be deemed to have been leased to him (section 9) together with buildings and lands appurtenant to such mines (section 11).

Vesting of estates.—In the first phase ending September, 1952 the following intermediary interests in Ranchi district, each with a gross annual income of Rs. 50,000 or above vested in the State by issue of individual notifications:—

Name of estate.	Notification no. and date under which the estates vested.	Date of vesting.	Date on which possession was actually taken over.
1. Chota Nagpur Raj Estate.	No. 9/L.R./LAND, dated 6th November 1951.	15th November 1951	6th June 1952.
2. Panchakota Raj Estate (Kashipur, Manbhum).	No. 59/L.R./LAND, dated 6th November 1951.	15th November 1951	21st June 1952.
3. Hurhuri Lal Estate	No. 81/L.R./LAND, dated 14th November 1951.	15th November 1951	20th June 1952.

* *See*, notification no. 5087-L.R., dated the 24th September, 1950 in B. O. R. O., Vol. I., Pt. VIII.

Name of estate.	Notification no. and date under which the estate vested.	Date of vesting.	Date on which possession was actually taken over.
4. Ranchi Zamindari, Ltd.	No. 65/L.R./LAND, dated 22nd May 1952.	28th May 1952	17th June 1952.
5. Palkot Estate ..	No. 66/L.R./LAND, dated 22nd May 1952.	28th May 1952 ..	17th June 1952.
6. Jaria Estate ..	No. 64/L.R./LAND, dated 22nd May 1952.	28th May 1952 ..	17th June 1952.
7. Tamar Estate ..	No. 67/L.R./LAND, dated 22nd May 1952.	28th May 1952 ..	17th June 1952.
8. Bhup Narain Trust of Ramgarh Raj.	No. 112/L.R., dated 10th December 1951.	4th February 1952	26th June 1953.
9. Maharani Lalita Rajlakshmi (Ramgarh Raj).	No. 117/L.R., dated 10th December 1951.	4th February 1952	26th June 1953.

As the number of small intermediary interests in the State was very large, much difficulty was experienced in acquiring them through individual notification. So provision was made in the Bihar Land Reforms (Amendment) Act, 1953 (Bihar Act XX of 1954) for taking over all estates and tenures within a particular area by issue of a single notification. Thus by notification, areawise, all the remaining estates in Ranchi district vested in the State*. There were in all 23† estates in the district. All the intermediary interests except the *mundari khuntkatti* tenancy within the meaning of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act, 1908 (Bengal Act 6 of 1908) and the *bhuinhari* tenure vested in the State.

Ad interim compensation.—*Ad interim* payments to the outgoing intermediaries were made under section 33 of the Land Reforms Act. As few of the ex-landlords had maintained up-to-date records, some delay was natural in calculation of the exact amount of final compensation and, therefore, this provision had to be made.

The statement below shows the number of ex-intermediaries and the amount of *ad interim* compensation paid to them from 1960-61:—

Year.	Number of ex-intermediaries.	Compensation paid (in rupees).
1960-61	9,912	3,59,793
1961-62	9,912	3,43,212
1962-63	11,389	4,06,292
1963-64	13,124	5,85,982

* *See*, no. 1022/L.R., dated the 1st January 1956.
† *Land Revenue Administration Report*, 1953-54, p. 18.

Rent fixation.—The statement below shows the number of institutions and disposals of various types of rent fixation cases under sections 5, 6 and 7 of Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950 since the vesting of the estates till 1964-65*:—

Institutions.	Disposals.	Area assessed to rent (in acres).	Rent assessed (in rupees).
19,421	18,555	1,57,767.15	2,45,398.13

The following statement shows the assessment of rent on *kabil lagan* lands under the provisions of Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act till 1964-65†:—

Institutions.	Disposals.	Area assessed to rent (in acres).	Rent assessed (in rupees).
49,853	48,800	74,112.64	64,348.51

The figures below show the commutation of rent under section 61 of Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act till 1964-65‡:—

Institutions.	Disposals.	Area assessed to rent (in acres).	Rent assessed (in rupees).
10,853	10,570	19,599.71	29,398.50

Land revenue.—The only permanently settled estate in this district was that of the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur. The land revenue demand of the district consisted of the revenue payable by that estate and the rents realised from the subordinate estates of Barkagarh, Patia and Silam which had been confiscated after the revolt of 1857 and were under the management of Khasmahal. The land revenue payable by the Chota Nagpur estate amounted to Rs. 15,041, against which was set off the rent due to that estate for the above three subordinate tenures leaving a net demand of Rs. 14,364. Of the confiscated estates a small portion was leased out in farm as *Jagir, Khorphosh* or *devottar* and was classified under the head "Temporarily-settled Estates". For these estates a rent of Rs. 378 was paid. In 1914-15 the total demand on account of land revenue amounted to Rs. 50,725.** After abolition of zamindaris rents payable by *raiyats* became the revenue. The total revenue payable to the State in 1953-54 was Rs. 4,65,313.§

Demand and collection.—The following statement shows the demand and collection of rent, cess and *sayerats* from 1954-55 to 1964-65:—

* Source.—Office of the Additional Collector, Ranchi.
† *Ibid.*
‡ *Ibid.*
** *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, pp. 203-204.
§ Source.—Office of the Additional Collector, Ranchi.

Year.	Nature.	Demand.			Collection.		
		Arrear.	Current.	Total.	Arrear.	Current.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1954-55 ..	Rent ..	81,467.09	2,43,053.48	3,24,520.57	76,925.76	2,40,454.94	3,17,380.70
	Cess ..	1,53,262.53	2,47,065.17	4,00,327.70	1,35,884.57	2,35,806.52	3,71,691.09
	Miscellaneous ..	4,715.54	24,895.45	29,610.99	3,937.35	25,143.98	29,081.33
	TOTAL ..	2,39,445.15	5,15,014.10	7,54,459.25	2,16,747.68	5,01,405.44	7,18,153.12
1955-56 ..	Rent ..	1,49,707.24	9,14,592.01	1,06,299.25	1,41,809.94	8,81,921.75	10,23,731.69
	Cess ..	25,129.39	1,33,822.36	1,58,951.75	18,027.69	1,26,982.05	1,45,099.74
	Miscellaneous ..	2,949.88	96,473.41	99,423.29	829.57	1,36,862.93	1,37,692.50
	TOTAL ..	1,77,786.51	11,44,887.78	13,22,674.29	1,60,667.20	11,45,766.73	13,06,433.93
1956-57 ...	Rent ..	1,25,293.04	12,34,707.02	13,60,000.00	1,15,057.74	12,04,793.31	13,23,981.22
	Cess ..	32,454.54	1,08,613.08	1,41,067.62	22,977.64	1,05,470.54	1,28,753.66
	Miscellaneous ..	7,175.11	2,48,570.50	2,55,745.61	3,940.86	2,41,612.41	3,06,795.83
	TOTAL ..	1,64,922.69	15,91,890.60	17,56,813.23	1,41,976.24	15,51,876.26	17,59,530.71
1957-58 ..	Rent ..	1,97,814.10	12,93,071.96	14,90,886.06	1,49,908.96	11,51,878.16	13,02,702.32
	Cess ..	21,830.02	1,12,511.85	1,34,341.87	14,453.87	98,772.40	1,13,301.59
	Miscellaneous ..	24,834.09	3,39,684.82	3,64,518.91	16,998.36	3,17,490.01	3,85,905.38
	TOTAL ..	2,44,478.21	17,45,268.63	19,89,746.84	1,81,361.19	15,68,140.57	18,01,909.29
1958-59 ..	Rent ..	3,69,580.99	13,67,364.03	17,36,945.02	2,64,497.79	12,32,435.21	14,97,960.71
	Cess ..	33,994.61	1,28,077.96	1,62,072.57	23,697.35	1,14,032.50	1,39,359.82
	Miscellaneous ..	27,629.44	3,71,747.65	3,99,377.09	8,487.63	3,60,064.52	4,35,516.10
	TOTAL ..	4,31,205.04	18,67,189.64	22,98,394.68	2,96,682.77	17,06,532.23	20,72,836.63
1959-60 ..	Rent ..	4,25,546.05	14,07,360.51	18,32,906.56	3,08,603.93	12,45,662.83	15,54,926.32
	Cess ..	36,112.25	1,19,535.11	1,55,647.36	23,994.46	1,04,937.25	1,29,064.45
	Education Cess ..	..	72,121.30	72,121.30	..	13,670.84	13,670.84
	Miscellaneous ..	30,824.94	7,51,468.08	7,82,293.02	11,810.99	7,30,987.36	8,07,586.45
	TOTAL ..	4,92,483.24	23,50,485.00	28,42,968.14	3,44,409.38	20,15,258.28	25,05,248.06
1960-61 ..	Rent ..	5,34,573.25	14,68,121.92	20,02,295.17	4,38,823.39	13,24,683.88	18,11,753.42
	Cess ..	45,146.43	1,23,674.62	1,68,821.05	39,347.96	1,09,961.23	1,49,522.39
	Education Cess ..	59,784.79	92,251.22	1,52,036.01	54,836.09	80,910.76	1,35,862.77
	Miscellaneous ..	25,565.04	3,32,219.56	3,57,784.60	9,132.40	3,16,222.13	3,76,944.86
	TOTAL ..	6,65,069.51	20,16,267.32	26,81,336.83	5,87,139.84	18,31,778.00	24,74,083.44
1961-62 ..	Rent ..	5,36,069.43	15,14,027.40	20,50,096.83	4,71,862.19	13,64,798.97	18,36,661.16
	Cess ..	43,372.95	1,26,255.82	1,69,628.77	36,416.49	1,13,701.48	1,50,117.99
	Education Cess ..	22,641.53	95,598.53	1,18,240.86	17,915.88	85,151.33	1,03,067.21
	Miscellaneous ..	31,140.65	3,13,242.32	3,44,382.97	9,258.07	3,57,908.67	3,67,166.74
	TOTAL ..	6,35,224.56	20,49,124.63	26,82,348.63	5,35,452.63	19,21,560.45	24,57,013.08

Year.	Nature.	Demand.		Collection.			
		Arrear.	Current.	Arrear.	Current.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1962-63	Rent	6,48,318.92	15,66,118.49	6,11,226.83	14,87,695.19	21,13,124.40	
	Cess	51,434.92	1,29,740.82	47,632.69	1,21,932.42	1,70,326.64	
	Education Cess	27,572.62	99,747.87	24,837.45	92,333.27	1,17,746.76	
	Miscellaneous	40,571.89	4,65,233.10	24,142.31	4,52,562.17	5,43,681.85	
	TOTAL	7,67,898.35	22,60,840.28	7,07,839.29	21,54,523.05	29,44,879.65	
1963-64	Rent	3,44,056.05	15,93,628.23	3,15,067.22	15,32,540.87	18,61,852.11	
	Cess	27,903.24	1,32,324.51	25,451.79	1,26,809.73	1,52,935.27	
	Education Cess	18,142.97	1,00,624.60	15,413.70	96,227.79	1,12,210.73	
	Miscellaneous	35,822.41	3,03,278.97	24,667.49	2,91,558.71	3,75,792.42	
	TOTAL	4,25,924.67	21,29,856.30	3,80,600.20	20,47,137.10	25,02,790.56	
1964-65	Rent	2,45,386.17	16,00,415.87	2,35,987.94	15,80,044.46	18,16,032.40	
	Cess	17,708.27	1,33,066.24	17,063.79	1,30,301.12	1,47,364.91	
	Education Cess	13,273.26	1,01,073.85	12,993.00	1,01,734.07	1,14,727.07	
	Miscellaneous	27,294.57	2,87,214.79	19,629.65	2,93,288.88	3,12,918.53	
	TOTAL	3,03,662.27	21,21,770.75	2,85,674.38	21,05,368.53	23,91,042·91	

Cess.—It is assessed and realised according to provisions of the Bengal Cess Act, 1830, as subsequently amended, and the rules framed thereunder. Prior to abolition of zamindaris, the Chota Nagpur Raj paid the greater portion of the cess, though recovered it not without difficulty from the subordinate tenure-holders. In 1914-15 the total cess demand in the district was Rs. 1,25,143 of which Rs. 2,088 were derived from mines and jungles and the remainder from land.* The ex-zamindars used to pay cess at the rate of two annas per rupee on the annual value of land.† The annual value of some of the estates was, however, considerably reduced as a result of rent commutation and rent-reduction operations in 1930s. The Government had amended section 37 of the Cess Act by the insertion of section 37-A giving powers to the Collector to effect reduction in the cess liability of the estates from the date of rent commutation.‡ The cess payable by the Chota Nagpur Raj was reduced from Rs. 1,62,855 to Rs. 1,61,843. The difficulty in satisfactory realisation of rent and cess was due to non-payment by the *elakadars,* against whom the annual demand was to the tune of Rs. 60,672 as rent and Rs. 2,51,165 as cess.** The Chota Nagpur Raj had to bring suits for the realisation of the same. The *elakadars* were also handicapped as they never got the rental from the tenants in time.

After abolition of zamindaris the State Government became responsible for payment of cess amount to the District Board. But due to lack of up-to-date land records the exact amount of cess payable has yet to be determined. The State Government are, therefore, making advances to the District Board (now Zila Parishad), against the State's liability for payment of cess since 1952-53 on the basis of the figures prior to abolition of zamindaris. Such advances are subject to adjustment after the total amount of cess payable to the District Board by the State is ascertained. The local cess assessed by the Collector on mines, railways, etc., under Chapter V of the Cess Act is, however, transferred to the District Fund direct as provided in section 9 of the said Act.§

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 208.

† Cess is now generally charged at the rate of 6 paise per rupees as rent and 12 paise on mines and minerals per ton. A Special Education Cess at the rate of 6 paise per rupee has also been imposed.

‡ *The Land Revenue Administration Report of Ranchi for* 1941-42.

** *Ibid*, 1953-54.

§ *Consolidated Report on the Land Revenue Administration of the State of Bihar for the years* 1952-53 *to* 1956-57, p. 6 (Part I—Land Reforms).

The following table shows the cess advances to the District Board from 1952-53 to 1964-65:—

1952-53.	1953-54.	1954-55.	1955-56.	1956-57.	1957-58.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1,00,000	4,32,709	4,08,000	3,62,000	2,46,913	2,36,222

1958-59.	1959-60.	1960-61.	1961-62.	1962-63.	1963-64.	1964-65*
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
2,40,108	2,43,908	1,92,936	2,19,774	91,757	2,32,641	1,94,809

From 1959-60 the State Government have imposed Education Cess at the rate of six paise per rupee on the annual value of land to meet the rising expenditure on education due to its expansion.

Agency of collection.—At *halka* (a group of villages) level a *Karamchari* is responsible for collection of rents, cess and *sayerats*, maintenance of registers and accounts, submission of reports and returns and holding enquiries relating to mutations, assessment of compensation, *ad interim* payment of compensation to the ex-landlords and allied work. A Circle Inspector is posted in each circle or *anchal* to supervise the work of *Karamcharis* in his jurisdiction. There are 39 circles (in August, 1965) in Ranchi district; 15 in Sadar; 8 in Khunti; 10 in Gumla; and 6 in Simdega. A gazetted officer, designated *Anchaladhikari*, is in charge of a circle. The Subdivisional Officer is responsible for revenue collection in his subdivision. He is assisted by a Deputy Collector in charge of Land Reforms and Development. The Additional Collector is responsible for revenue collection as well as other matters connected with land reforms at the district level and is under the general control and supervision of the Collector. The Collector is responsible for revenue work in the district to the Commissioner of the division and ultimately to the Revenue Department of Government.

* SOURCE.—*Consolidated Land Revenue Administration Report*, 1952-53 to 1956-57, and 1957-58. Also, office of Additional Collector, Ranchi.

Privileged lands.—In the Survey and Settlement (1902—10) the total area of *manjhihas* or *beth-kheta* and *zirat* lands in Ranchi district was recorded as 92,120.80 acres under cultivated area and 1,790.37 acres under uncultivated area and the percentage of privileged cultivated land to the cultivated area of the district was 3.70 per cent.* The total area of *zirat* land recorded in the last settlement (1902—10) was 42,268.79 acres (*don* 17,234.32 acres and *tanr* 25,034.47 acres) while in the Revisional Settlement (1927—35) 35,196.91 acres (*don* 14,217.83 acres and *tanr* 20,979.08 acres); thus the latter recorded a decrease of 7,078.32 acres or 16.7 per cent.† The privileged lands of the ex-landlords are now governed by sections 5, 6 and 7 of the Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950.

Korkar.—Regarding the definition of *korkar* the *Revisional Settlement Report* has mentioned : "The definition of *korkar* in section 3 (*xiii*) of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act requires some amendment to make it agree with the working of the proviso to section 79 (3) which was introduced by Act VI of 1920. Keeping in mind these provisions, the words—'other than the landlord' in section 3 (*xiii*) (*b*) are a contradiction in terms. The proviso to section 79 should also be amended to make it cover conversions made from upland and jungle as well as from waste, since both upland and jungles are included in the definition of *korkar* in section 3 (*xiii*)".‡ Section 3 (*xiii*) (*b*) of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act was amended in 1947. The words "with or without the consent of the landlord according as such consent is required or not by section 64" has been repealed by section 4 of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy (Amendment) Act, 1947 (Bihar Act 25 of 1947). Section 64 has also been substituted by section 20 of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy (Amendment) Act, 1947 (Supra) which empowers every cultivator to convert land into *korkar* with the permission of the Deputy Commissioner. But if he was entitled on the date of the commencement of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy (Amendment) Act, 1947, by virtue of any entry in the record-of-rights or any local custom or usage to convert such land into *korkar* such permission of the Deputy Commissioner will not be necessary.

The *korkar* land was assessed differently in the different parts of the Chota Nagpur Division. A new section 67-A was inserted by section 19 of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy (Amendment) Act, 1938 (Bihar Act 2 of 1938) for a uniform rate of assessment of rent of land converted into *korkar*. No rent is paid for such lands for a period of four years from the year in which the first crop is harvested. The assessed rate after that should not exceed the rate prevailing in the village for third class rice land or according to the custom of the village only half of the said rate is payable for the *korkar*.

* *See*, Appendix F, Table I in the *Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations* (1927—35).

† *Ibid*, Table II.

‡ *Revisional Settlement Report* (1927—35), p. 59.

Field Bujharat.—Out of 3,915 villages in the district, *Field Bujharat* in *Khatians* was completed in 3,581 and *Khewat Bujharat* in 2,305 villages. Continuous *Khatians* were written up in 2,535 and new tenants ledgers in 1,915 villages.*

Mutations.—The progress of mutation holdingwise from 1961-62 to 1964-65 was as follows:—

Years.	Total number of holdings.	Sale.				Gift.	
		Agricultural.		Non-agricultural.			
		No. of holdings.	Area (in acres).	No. of holdings.	Area (in acres).	No. of holdings.	Area (in acres.).
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1961-62 ..	464,391	5,015	9,742.82½	69	95.61	98	512.15½
1962-63 ..	609,784	5,796	7,013.46½	518	117.10	98	409.21
1963-64 ..	597,238	6,906	9,956.40½	448	159.33	195	836.53
1964-65 ..	553,307	9,662	9,808.43	353	329.82	94	596.11½

Years.	Succession.		Partition.			
	Number of holdings.	Area (in acres).	No. of holdings.	Area (in acres).	Total number of holdings affected by mutation.	Area (in acres).
1	9	10	11	12	13	14
1961-62 ..	124	1,559.07	106	635.92	..	..
1962-63 ..	277	1,195.11	321	411.23½	7,010	9,146.12
1963-64 ..	696	4,154.63	160	636.74½	8,405	15,743.64½
1964-65 ..	38,222	1,38,940.53	110	362.78	48,441	1,50,037.67½

* *See, Land Revenue Administration Report of Ranchi*, 1961-62.

The statement below shows the progress of mutations villagewise from 1962-63 to 1964-65:—

Years.	Total number of villages.	Number of villages in which field *bujharat* in respect of *khatians* completed.	Number of villages in which *khewat bujharat* completed.	Number of villages in which new continuous *khatian* written up.	Number of villages in which new tenants landlords written up.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1962-63	3,593	3,593	3,212	3,033	258
1963-64	..	..	..	..	..
1964-65	3,915 (inclusive *Mundari Khuntkatti*)	3,586	3,510	2,441	2,047

Settlement of land.—Up to January, 1965 settlement of land was made as follows*:—

Recipient.	No. of families.	Total acres settled.
Scheduled Tribes ..	8,648	16,292.80
Scheduled Castes ..	1,474	5,677.30
Backward Classes ..	1,439	2,438.69

Bhoodan Movement.—The Bihar Bhoodan Yajna Act, 1954 provides for (*i*) donation of lands in connection with the *Bhoodan Yajna* initiated by Vinoba Bhave and (*ii*) settlement of such lands with landless persons. A statutory committee was established under section 3 of the Act to administer all lands vested in the committee for the purpose of *Bhoodan Yajna*. With a view to safeguard rights, title and interest of the *Bhoodan Yajna* Committee in the donated lands, instructions were issued by Government to the Deputy Commissioner stressing the need for early disposal by the Revenue Officers of the *Danpatras* by confirmation or supersession as the case may be according to the provisions of section 11 of the Bihar Bhoodan Yajna Act, 1964.

* Source.—Additional Collector's Office, Ranchi.

The following statistics show the progress made in Ranchi district till 1964-65:—

Area vested in the *Bhoodan Yajna* Committee under section 13(1) (in acres).	Number of grantees.	Area granted (in acres).	Area reclaimed (in acres).	Number of *Danpatras* filed under section 10.	*Danpatras* confirmed under section 11(4).
1	2	3	4	5	6
11,919.34	1,153	2,412.29	2,301.5	13,966	9,299

Rent assessed—					
Under section 18(1).		Under section 18(2).		Persons ejected from the Bhoodan lands.	
Area (in acres).	Amount Rs.	Area (in acres).	Amount Rs.	Number.	Area (in acres).
7	8	9	10	11	12
33.13	309.52	306.85	289.89	18	114.41

Land Acquisition.

For development projects under the Five-Year Plans and also in context of industrialisation of the district vast areas of land have had to be acquired.

During 1952-53 an area of 0.280 acre was acquired for public purposes and a sum of Rs. 3,146 was paid as compensation. The average cost per acre amounted to Rs. 11,236.* In 1953-54 the area acquired extended to 8,346 acres and the amount of compensation paid to Rs. 10,526. The average cost per acre came to Rs. 1,261.†

The land acquisition work started on a large scale near about Ranchi in 1957-58 for the Hatia Project. The details of the area acquired and

* *Bihar Land Revenue Administration Report*, 1952-53.

† *Ibid*, 1953-54.

compensation paid for in respect of some important land acquisition schemes during the period 1957-58 to 1959-60 are given below:—

Schemes.	Area acquired in acres.			Amount of compensation.
	1957-58.	1958-59.	1959-60.	
				Rs.
1. Hatia	1,605.80	366.45	..	20,80,040
(*a*) Plant side	..	..	..	..
(*b*) Dam side	..	1,321.20	6,754	13,90,008
(*c*) Township	..	21.898	..	16,20,599
2. Ranchi Insulator Plant ..	..	208.29	..	..

The total area acquired up to 1961-62 was 16,483.64 acres while the area under acquisition was 27,838,701 acres. The amount of compensation paid was Rs. 1,36,04,446.72 (Rs. 92,21,835.39 up to last year and Rs. 43,82,611.33 during the year under report).*

During 1962-63 an area of 6,760.88 acres was acquired and compensation of Rs. 3,14,28,419 was paid. Thus the cost of per acre was about Rs. 5,000. Both Central and the State Governments acquired these lands for various projects at Ranchi out of which railways under the former and the health and housing under the latter got the largest share. The area under acquisition was 28,625.82 acres.

The progress in land acquisition work till 31st March, 1965 was as follows:—

Area acquired up to 1963-64 (in acres).	Area acquired during 1964-65 (in acres).	Total area (in acres).	Acquisition after payment.	
			Up to 1963-64 (in acres).	During 1964-65 (in acres).
1	2	3	4	5
35,096.22	410.362	35,506.382	21,076.65	60.84

Total area (in acres).	Compensation paid up to 1963-64.	Compensation paid during the year.	Total compensation.
6	7	8	9
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
21,137.29	4,71,82,982.97	13,92,206.10	4,85,75,189.07

* *Land Revenue Administration Report for Ranchi*, 1961-62.

The number of persons whose lands were acquired was 251 in 1956; 4,745 in 1957; 3,423 in 1958; 3,988 in 1959; 2,712 in 1960; 3,062 in 1961; 1,330 in 1963 and 1,318 in 1964. The localities where lands were acquired are Latma, Satrangi, Dhurwa, Hatia and Sithia, all in the Sadar subdivision. Besides, at Ranchi lands were acquired for the Rajendra Medical College and Ranchi Veterinary College and at Ratu for the Bharat Ball Bearing Company, a private undertaking.

Consolidation of Holdings.

In order to prevent subdivisions and fragmentation of land and make a holding more economic through amalgamation of contiguous blocks through exchange with others the State Government passed the Bihar Consolidation of Holdings Act in 1956. This Act has not been extended in Ranchi district. It may be noted that the customary tribal laws as well as physical configuration of land discourage fragmentation of land.

Land Ceiling.

Land ceiling is one of the main schemes under land reforms. The State Government passed the Land Reforms (Fixation of Ceiling Area And Acquisition of Surplus Land) Act in 1961 (Bihar Act XII of 1962). Section 4 of the Act lays down the extent of ceiling area for the different categories of lands, namely, (*i*) 20 acres, if irrigated by flow irrigation; (*ii*) 30 acres, if irrigated by lift irrigation; (*iii*) 40 acres, for orchard; (*iv*) 50 acres, for *diara* land and (*v*) 60 acres of hilly and sandy lands. In Ranchi district the lands are mainly of categories (*ii*) and (*v*).

Other Sources of Revenue.

The statement below gives details of the other sources of revenue, both State and Centre, and the corresponding receipts and expenditure during the years 1960-61 to 1964-65*:—

Statement showing other sources of Revenue (Ranchi)†.

[Figures in lakhs of rupees.]

Major items.	1960-61.		1961-62.		1962-63.		1963-64.		1964-65.	
	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
State Excise (S) ..	2.300	51.527	2.317	57.785	2.434	64.067	2.376	71.622	2.936	74.265
Public Works Department(S).	209.277	22.989	196.858	19.909	252.945	46.454	234.034	10.881	287.934	40.891
Stamps (S) ..	0.605	28.010	0.565	29.482	1.131	41.181	1.792	59.984	1.607	61.136
Commercial Taxes (S)	1.249	37.270	1.820	55.216	1.814	60.156	1.699	91.193	22.524	124.966
Forest (S) ..	32.355	12.992	26.581	14.493	31.707	24.040	35.403	40.854	31.568	22.358
Registration (S) ..	0.400	1.366	0.401	1.441	0.412	1.912	0.487	2.286	0.489	2.563
Motor Vehicles (S) ..	0.466	2.375	0.404	2.986	0.471	4.368	0.472	5.661	0.454	3.756
Irrigation (S) ..	5.782	0.111	6.320	0.227	8.035	0.007	7.801	0.062	9.312	0.168
Public Health (S) ..	22.329	0.827	24.439	1.009	24.493	1.065	27.770	0.795	23.708	0.816
Education (S) ..	10.370	2.019	10.837	2.107	87.849	7.210	39.499	2.671	111.139	2.604
District Board(S) ..	9.348	9.755	9.631	7.345	6.892	4.174	7.353	9.606	7.403	3.598
R. M. (S) ..	12.023	13.434	15.056	19.318	22.555	19.216	15.892	18.694	17.029	18.584
Industries (S) ..	18.619	1.487	11.169	1.257	13.406	3.108	13.007	1.032	18.061	2.761
Animal Husbandry(S)	5.522	0.734	5.889	0.617	8.032	1.547	11.952	1.117	21.268	4.757
Income-Tax (C) ..	8.584	22.763	5.858	28.075	17.853	39.476	10.957	66.239	94.963	278.078
Public Works Department (C).	0.734	0.789	3.132	1.097	29.211	1.220	87.753	6.134	34.890	0.798
Post Offices (C) ..	37.628	15.088	24.545	3.355	27.601	7.162	27.322	5.892	29.281	5.092
Central Excise (C) ..	1.820	42.216	1.395	43.486	1.705	44.495	2.477	52.940	2.916	55.490
Agriculture (S) ..	30.585	3.487	47.251	3.366	27.004	4.019	33.189	5.223	43.990	6.223

* For Land Revenue, Cess and Sayerats *see* (supra).

† Source.—Treasury Officer, Ranchi.

Ref.—Central—(C), Provincial (S).

CHAPTER XII.

LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE.

Incidence of Crime.

In the early days of British administration, Chota Nagpur had an unenviable notoriety as a criminal district and was described by the Collector of Chatra in 1793 as "a receptacle for murderers, thieves and vagabonds and disturbers of the public peace".* The establishment of the South-West Frontier Agency in 1834, and of the State constabulary in 1863, caused some improvement in the criminal administration of the district, but apart from crime which was the direct result of the strife between the landlords and tenants, murders, *dakaities* and similar crimes of violence were common, at least in the outlying parts of the district, till the beginning of the present century, and it was not till the opening of subdivisions at Gumla and Khunti** that there was any marked improvement in the administration of criminal justice or in the prevention and detection of crime. The wild nature of the country gives exceptional facilities for the commission of *dakaities* and highway robberies and the escape of the culprits, as well as for the concealment of murders. Reid, the first Subdivisional Officer at Gumla, thus describes the condition of the west of the district:—"There were parts of the area, notably the more remote parts of Kurdeg, Kochedega and Kolebira thanas, where the system of British administration could hardly be said to be in force. Murder cases and other very serious offences were usually brought before the courts, but offences of lesser magnitude went unpunished. Even murders were frequently concealed and I know of one case at least, in which a Zamindar was reported to have committed as many as ten, and yet to have escaped conviction. The control over the police was so ineffective that they were the real rulers of the country and before any reform could be effected, it was found necessary to prosecute or dismiss many of them. The Chaukidari force was equally corrupt. During the first year after the foundation of the subdivision, the convictions of the *chaukidars,* who were the supposed guardians of the peace, for serious offences, such as *dakaiti,* robbery, theft and trespass, were numerous, the percentage being nearly treble that of any other class of the community. It was, therefore, necessary to discharge or dismiss large numbers of the worst of them who usually belonged to the Ghasi and Mahali caste†."

* *Cf.—A Statistical Account of Bengal*, Vol. XVI (Districts of Hazaribagh and Lohardaga) by W. W. Hunter (1877), pp. 475-76.

** Gumla opened in November, 1902 and Khunti in December, 1905.

† J. Reid: *Final Report on the Survey and Settlement Operations* (1902—10), pp. 47-48.

In 1910 an outbreak of *dakaiti* in the south-west of the district committed by a branch of the Mundas, known as the Eranga Kols, showed the necessity of exercising an even closer control over these outlying tracts and led to the decision to form a fourth subdivision at Simdega.* The Eranga Kols, though not a criminal tribe, were no doubt encouraged by the facility with which petty crimes escaped notice, to commit crimes of a more serious nature, and to make good their escape to the jungles of the neighbouring Feudatory States. Generally speaking, the aboriginals of the Ranchi district are not criminal, and the Mundas, Oraons and Kharias are justly proud of their respectability. Before the Settlement Operations (1902—10) put a stop to agrarian disputes, cases of trespass and paddy-cutting, often accompanied by violence, were common, but such crimes were committed in defence of real or imaginary rights by *raiyats,* who alleged that they had been dispossessed of their lands by the Zamindars. Early in the present century, cases of murder were common, but the majority of them were pathetic rather than revolting. In a sudden drunken quarrel the quick-tempered aboriginal uses the axe, which he invariably carries with more violence than discretion. He confesses his crime and is quite ready to undergo the punishment. A more serious class of case is the murder of suspected witches or wizards. Sometimes a whole village combines to beat from their boundaries the old woman who is pointed out by the *sokha* or witch doctor as the cause of disease among men or cattle, and such cases are often never reported to the police, or, if reported, no evidence is forthcoming against the guilty persons. In other cases a man in a frenzy of grief at the loss of his child or wife or cattle, considers that the only way to save himself from further trouble is to destroy the person or persons who have cast the evil eye upon him. The tribes most addicted to theft, petty burglaries, and robberies are the Ghasis, Mahlis, and Domras. Cattle-theft is common, and often the thieves themselves or the receivers of the stolen property are detected by the owners of the cattle who visit market after market in their search for the missing property. Cattle-poisoning is also not uncommon and is committed by Chamars, Lohras or Ghasis for the sake of the hides. A method frequently adopted is to shoot the animal with a bamboo-headed arrow, such as, is commonly used by graziers for driving cattle, into which has been fixed a poisonous berry, hardened to a sharp point. A small puncture is made in the skin, but the poison rapidly spreads through the veins. The crime is difficult to detect and often the villagers themselves attribute the deaths to the work of a *bhut* and do not realise that they are caused by human hand.†

Prior to industrialisation in post-1960 period, the district, by and large, retained its traditional character and therefore the pattern of crimes

* Opened in 1915.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 210—13.

showed little variation. However, the spread of modern education during the first half of the present century somewhat mitigated the incidence of crimes. The belief in witchcraft has gradually diminished but not totally disappeared. A sensational case of murder due to witchcraft was committed about twenty-five years ago when an Oraon woman believed to be a witch was murdered at village Saro in Bero police-station and her dismembered limbs were distributed among the villagers.

The incidence of murders due to belief in witchcraft from 1954 to 1967 is given below*:—

Year.	Murder by witchcraft.
1954	6
1955	10
1956	7
1957	9
1958	3
1959	9
1960	5
1961	9
1962	13
1963	4
1964	6
1965	11
1966	3
1967	2

It is difficult for the police to get good evidence of this type of crime as the sympathy of villagers, particularly of tribals, is usually with the accused persons.

During the last decade (1957–67), the incidence of crime has increased due to various factors. The population of Ranchi and its vicinity has become most heterogenous. In the wake of industrialisation, it has drawn people from all over India and this in turn has greatly changed the pattern of crimes. The interior and inaccessible regions have been opened up by roads and railways, exposing the countryside and its tribal population to modern civilisation. The offences relating to traffic violation, sexual delinquencies and smuggling, which were almost unknown previously, are now on increase. On account of communal

* Source.—Crime Branch C. I. D., Bihar and Office of the Superintendent of Police, Ranchi.

disturbances and student unrest the figures for riot recorded an abnormal rise in 1967. The following statement gives details of the various types of crimes:—

Statement showing the number of cases instituted, number charge-sheeted and number of convictions.*

Year.	Murder.			Dacoity.			Robbery.		
	Instituted.	Charge-sheeted.	Convicted.	Instituted.	Charge-sheeted.	Convicted.	Instituted.	Charge-sheeted.	Convicted.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1957 ..	118	58	23	38	14	4	15	7	5
1958 ..	117	54	25	46	13	8	36	10	5
1959 ..	99	62	24	26	8	4	26	10	1
1960 ..	111	74	25	17	6	4	24	9	1
1961 ..	120	87	36	16	11	5	18	6	2
1962 ..	119	73	20	24	10	1	45	12	6
1963 ..	91	56	N.A.	41	17	N.A.	30	11	N.A.
1964 ..	106	68	N.A.	31	N.A.	N.A.	27	N.A.	N.A.
1965 ..	121	75	N.A.	44	N.A.	N.A.	45	N.A.	N.A.
1966 ..	137	76	N.A.	40	N.A.	N.A.	66	N.A.	N.A.
1967 ..	207	88	N.A.	63	22	N.A.	85	24	N.A

Year.	Burglary.			Theft.			Riot.		
	Instituted.	Charge-sheeted.	Convicted.	Instituted.	Charge-sheeted.	Convicted.	Instituted.	Charge-sheeted.	Convicted.
1	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1957 ..	724	97	63	582	180	142	49	40	13
1958 ..	882	136	56	606	158	76	41	33	14
1959 ..	564	82	40	548	140	33	60	47	12
1960 ..	518	73	29	673	160	42	76	48	5
1961 ..	533	82	28	821	180	79	87	63	15
1962 ..	654	120	34	819	213	67	77	68	16
1963 ..	823	119	N.A.	900	206	N.A.	100	83	N.A.
1964 ..	826	N.A.	N.A.	1,063	N.A.	N.A.	97	N.A.	N.A.
1965 ..	991	N.A.	N.A.	1,264	N.A.	N.A.	74	N.A.	N.A.
1966 ..	1,046	N.A.	N.A.	1,438	N.A.	N.A.	97	N.A.	N.A.
1967 ..	1,365	166	N.A.	1,732	298	N.A.	234	125	N.A.

N.A.—Not available.

* Source.—Office of the Superintendent of Police, Ranchi.

The following statistics* show the institutions of kidnapping, rape, bad livelihood, cattle-theft and traffic accident cases in the district from 1954 to 1967:—

Year.	Kidnapping.	Rape.	B. L. Cases.		Cattle-theft.	Traffic accident.
			109.	110.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1954	28	7	21	2	26	32
1955	N.A.	6	14	5	42	N.A.
1956	28	6	20	4	27	10
1957	23	9	23	11	26	26
1958	20	4	39	17	34	31
1959	17	11	44	10	27	40
1960	22	9	13	N.A.	12	13
1961	21	15	17	36	14	66
1962	33	10	63	70	27	111
1963	29	14	98	40	40	92
1964	34	15	94	9	39	347
1965	37	32	129	23	40	328
1966	37	15	151	32	17	310
1967	33	16	168	24	63	294

The high incidence of traffic accident cases concerns mostly the urban areas round Ranchi and is directly attributable to the growing pace of industrialisation with consequent increase in volume of traffic on roads.

Organisation of the Police Force.

According to W. W. Hunter, the regular police force at the end of 1872 consisted of two superior European Officers (one District Superintendent and one Assistant Superintendent), 95 subordinate officers and 412 foot-constables. The total strength of the force was thus 509 men of all ranks. Besides, there were municipal police force, maintained in towns and large villages, which consisted of one native officer and 59 men. This force was maintained by rates levied from householders and shopkeepers carrying on business within municipal limits. There were also village watchmen (rural police force) numbering 2,332 maintained by the Zamindars or by service lands, held rent-free†.

Early in the present century the police administrative set-up consisted of 18 thanas and 10 outposts. The latter, which had been found to facilitate the investigation of crime, were, in 1905, declared to be police-stations within the meaning of the Criminal Procedure Code. In order to facilitate the investigation and prevention of crime and to improve the general administration, three new police-stations were formed one each at Jaldega in thana Kolebira, Thethaitangar in thana Kochedega and Bolba in thana Kurdeg.

* Source.—Office of the Superintendent of Police, Ranchi.

† *A Statistical Account of Bengal*, Vol. XVI (Districts of Hazaribagh and Lohardaga) by W. W. Hunter (1877), pp. 478-74.

The sanctioned strength of the regular police force in 1915, was one Superintendent, eight Inspectors, 59 Sub-Inspectors, one Sergeant, 74 Head Constables and 495 Constables, representing one police officer to every 11.1 square miles area and to every 2,114 persons. In addition to the civil police, there was a Gurkha Company of Military Police stationed at Doranda, consisting of two Subedars and Jamadars, twelve Havildars and Naiks, and 97 Sepoys.

The rural police force for watch and ward duties in the villages, consisted of 2,457 *chaukidars* appointed under the Chota Nagpur Rural Police Act (Act I), Bihar and Orissa, of 1914 and there were 70 *ghatwals*. The duties of the *ghatwals* differed from those of the village *chaukidars* in that they were exercised not within any village but within an area roughly determined by immemorial custom as *ghat* and their chief duties were to patrol the *ghat**.

Present strength.—The sanctioned strength of the police force in 1968 (March) was one Superintendent of Police, one Additional Superintendent of Police, four Deputy Superintendents of Police, eight Inspectors, 87 Sub-Inspectors, 93 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 93 Havildars, 1,471 Constables, one Sergeant Major (Armed Police), 53 Havildars (Armed Police), 514 Constables (Armed Police), 49 *ghatwals* and 1,738 *chaukidars*. Thus one Constable is to serve roughly 4.8 square miles of area and 1,639 persons.

The police administration of the district is headed by the Superintendent of Police with headquarters at Ranchi. He is under the administrative control of the Deputy Commissioner, the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, with headquarters at Ranchi, and Inspector-General of Police, Bihar, Patna.

The district has been subdivided into seven police circles, viz., Ranchi town, Sadar, Hatia, Khunti, Gumla, Simdega and Lohardaga, each consisting of more than one police-station and under a Circle Inspector. The district has 44 police-stations including five temporary ones in tents each under a Sub-Inspector of Police. There are six outposts (five temporary) and 20 town outposts (five temporary) in the district. Each of the outposts, whether rural or urban, is under the direct control of the officer-in-charge of the police-station concerned and is placed under the charge of an Assistant Sub-Inspector or a Havildar. Police outposts, known as town outposts in towns, and outposts in remote part of mofussil police-stations are established for the purpose of patrolling and surveillance, and, generally, for the prevention of crime. They are not investigating centres. Crimes reported are recorded at these outposts and the entries are forwarded to the thana concerned. In the present set-up these

* M. G. Hallett: *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 209-10.

outposts in the remote rural areas play a very important role as, otherwise even heinous crimes would have been brought to the notice of the thana concerned only after a long time. They also act as a buffer against anti-social forces.

Watch and ward in villages is the responsibility of the village *chaukidars* and that of guarding the difficult *ghats* and passes in the jungle of the *ghatwals*. The *ghatwals* have survived since olden times when zamindars policed their own estates. With improvement in communications and abolition of the zamindari system, they have now outlived their utility. At present they are practically doing the jobs of *chaukidars*. They used to be maintained by grants of rent-free lands given by the zamindars. But with the abolition of zamindari, though they continue to hold the lands given by the zamindars as rent-free holdings, they have now to pay the usual rents for these lands. They are now paid at the rate of Rs. 10 per month as salary and Rs. 13 as cost of living allowance. This is the rate at which the *chaukidars* also are paid.

Prosecution staff.—For the prosecution of criminal cases in the Magistrates' courts there is one Senior District Prosecutor equivalent to the rank of a Deputy Superintendent of Police, posted at Ranchi. He is assisted by eight Assistant District Prosecutors of whom four are posted in Ranchi Sadar court and one each in Khunti, Gumla and Simdega. Five Assistant Sub-Inspectors and 23 Constables are also attached to the prosecution staff. An Assistant District Prosecutor is appointed from the rank of practising junior lawyers and also police officers having knowledge of law and experience of prosecuting cases in courts. This system has replaced the old one in which Police Inspectors and Police Sub-Inspectors, especially selected, conducted cases of prosecution, and were known as Court Inspectors and Court Sub-Inspectors. The object of the present system is to ensure a more effective representation of prosecution to match the defence by eminent counsels.

C. I. D.—Ranchi is the headquarters of one Deputy Superintendent of Police, C. I. D., Special Branch, who is in charge of the whole of the southern range excepting Singhbhum and Dhanbad districts.

One Deputy Central Intelligence Officer of the rank of Deputy Superintendent of Police is in charge of whole of the southern range with a staff of two Assistant Central Intelligence Officers, and three Junior Intelligence Officers posted at Ranchi for the Ranchi district under the Central Intelligence Officer with headquarters at Patna. They are under the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, New Delhi.

There is also one Deputy Superintendent of Police, C. I. D., Crime Branch, Anti-Dacoity team, in charge of the southern range assisted by several Crime Branch Officers of the rank of Sub-Inspectors of Police.

The main function of this unit is to find out the gangs responsible for dacoities and measures to be adopted to control them and also to detect them.

Anchal Force.—The unit for each *Anchal* consists of one Havildar and eight Constables. In 1968 the strength of this force in the district is as follows:—Sergeant—1; Sub-Inspector—1; Assistant Sub-Inspectors—2; Jamadar—1; Havildars—38; Constables—241; and Accountant—1.

Home Guards.—The Home Guards are enrolled by the Deputy Commissioner on the recommendation of a Board consisting of the Superintendent of Police, the Commandant of Home Guards and one unofficial member. The term of their appointment is for four years, one year for active service and the remaining three years in reserve.

The strength of this force is : District Company Commander incharge—1; Area Company Commanders—4; Havildar Clerk—1; Sepoy Orderly—1; Section Leaders—27; Assistant Section Leaders—27; Platoon Commanders—9; and Home Guards—253. They are trained, equipped and armed and are under the control of the Superintendent of Police and assist the Deputy Commissioner through him.

During the national emergency of 1962 in wake of the Chinese aggression, another branch of Home Guards, known as Urban Home Guards, had also been provided to the district. This branch is functioning since December, 1962. Six Company Commanders, one Havildar Clerk, one Sepoy Driver and one Sepoy Cleaner have been posted in this district to look after the training of the Urban Home Guards.

The Urban Home Guards Volunteer Force has been organised in six companies (four of gents and two of ladies) at Ranchi. There are 12 platoons of gents consisting of four Company Commanders, 12 Platoon Commanders, 36 Section Leaders, 36 Assistant Section Leaders and 558 Urban Home Guards. There are six platoons of ladies consisting of six Platoon Commanders, 18 Section Leaders, 18 Assistant Section Leaders and 172 Urban Home Guards.

Village Resistance Groups.—To counteract dacoities these groups have been formed out of the members of the public for the purpose of patrolling in different police-stations. 1,766 Village Resistance Groups have so far been organised in various police-stations in the district. In addition to this the *Gram Panchayats* organise Village Volunteer Force in their respective jurisdiction. They also co-operate with the regular rural police for the purpose of law, order and control of crime.

District Crime Bureau.—To maintain records of criminal gangs operating within and outside the district and help the regular police force in investigation and crime control, a District Crime Bureau has been established in the district. This bureau consists of one Inspector, two Assistant Sub-Inspectors and two Writer Constables. They are the staff of the Criminal Investigation Department and work in plain clothes.

Radio and Wireless Station.—There are five wireless stations in the district for receiving and transmitting messages of State. They are distributed as follows:—Ranchi—2; Khunti—1; Gumla—1 and Simdega—1.

Juvenile Aid Bureau.—A Juvenile Aid Bureau was started at Ranchi in 1961*. It is meant to do a certain amount of pioneering work and serve as a nucleus of specific measures for prevention and control of delinquency amongst children and youths. Its jurisdiction extends over the urban areas of Ranchi and Hatia only. It is manned by one Inspector, two Sub-Inspectors, one Writer Constable and one Constable. They are under the overall control of the D. I.-G., C. I. D. Crimes, Patna. The Superintendent of Police, Ranchi, exercises only day-to-day supervision over them.

Bihar Military Police.—This is an emergency force to supplement the local police in dealing with disturbances on a large scale in any part of the country. This force consists of several units and is controlled by the Deputy Inspector-General of Military Police and Training with headquarters at Patna.

The strength of this force in this district is as follows:—

Permanent : One Commandant; one Assistant Commandant; two Wing Commanders; one Subedar Major; ten Subedars; 16 Jamadars; 66 Havildars; 11 Writer Naiks; 27 Naiks; 27 Lance Naiks and 1,013 Sepoys.

Temporary : One Deputy Commandant; one Quarter Master; one Adjutant; four Company Commanders; ten Jamadars; 40 Havildars; 12 Writer Havildars; 36 Naiks; 36 Lance Naiks and 70 Sepoys.

Part of this force was sent to Hyderabad in 1951 for maintenance of law and order and was placed under the Hyderabad Civil Police. In 1953-54 it was sent to Kashmir for guarding the cease-fire line and was placed under the Home Ministry, Government of India. In 1956—58, it was sent to Assam to maintain law and order in Nagaland and was placed under the Army. In 1963-64 a part of the unit was sent to NEFA and was placed under the Home Ministry of Government of India.

Government Railway Police.—There is only one Government Railway Police-Station in the district, located at Ranchi. It has one outpost at Muri Railway Station. The strength of the Ranchi Government Railway Police-Station consists of one Sub-Inspector, two Assistant Sub-Inspectors and 14 Constables. The outpost consists of one Assistant Sub-Inspector and four Constables.

* Order no. 108 in the *Bihar Police Gazette*, dated September 22, 1961.

Railway Protection Force.—The main function of this force is to protect and guard railway property and also public property entrusted to railway as carrier. It has a post at Ranchi and an outpost at Muri. The strength of the Ranchi post is : one Sub-Inspector; four Head *Rakshaks* (Havildars); four Senior *Rakshaks* (Naik); and 32 *Rakshaks* (Sepoys). The outpost at Muri has one Assistant Sub-Inspector, two Head *Rakshaks*, three Senior *Rakshaks* and 23 *Rakshaks*. The jurisdiction of the post is from Ranchi to Lohardaga; Ranchi to Muri and Ranchi to Hatia. The area covered by the post is 138 running kilometres. It is under the Chief Security Officer, South-Eastern Railway, Calcutta.

JAILS.

The District Jail* at Ranchi is under a wholetime Superintendent with a staff of one Jailor, one Sub-Assistant Surgeon, two Assistant Jailors, four Head Warders, 36 Male Warders, two Female Warders and one Clerk.

The jail accommodates 226 male and 27 female prisoners. It has a small dairy farm maintained inside it and the products are meant for the jail inmates. It has a hospital of 24 beds under the supervision of the Civil Surgeon of Ranchi. The administrative routine is carried on by the Superintendent of the Jail.

The table shows the daily average population of both convicts and under-trial prisoners over the period 1953—63:—

Year.	Convicts.			Under-trial.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1953	175.67	7.15	182.82	229.19	0.56	229.75
1954	181.15	6.27	187.42	163.27	Nil	163.27
1955	203.00	4.22	207.22	152.83	7.00	159.83
1956	201.22	4.25	205.47	181.09	6.81	187.90
1957	181.83	8.04	189.87	177.18	3.22	180.40
1958	167.84	10.77	178.61	183.30	8.04	191.34
1959	200.12	10.24	210.36	206.42	10.18	216.60
1960	129.50	9.62	139.12	205.08	Nil	205.08
1961	152.25	10.75	163.00	201.91	0.08	201.99
1962	156.26	14.45	170.71	181.09	0.19	181.28
1963	188.05	13.91	201.06	271.63	7.81	279.44

* Upgraded as Central Jail since June, 1967.

The overcrowding of this jail as of others in the State creates administrative problems. It underlines growing incidence of crime. The prisoners are given instructions in weaving, soap-making, gardening, oil-pressing, dairy farming, etc. They also enjoy the facility of a library.

There are also three subsidiary jails, one each at Gumla, Khunti and Simdega, accommodating 42 prisoners each. Each of them is under the charge of the Civil Assistant Surgeon of the respective subdivisional hospital, who is part-time its Superintendent. Each subsidiary jail has one Assistant Jailor, one Head Warder and six Warders.

Probation System.—The table below gives the figures of offenders released on probation and parole enquiries conducted under the Probation of Offenders Act, 1958, during 1959 to 1964 (up to April, 1964)*:—

Year.	Released on probation.	Parole enquiries conducted.
1959	1	2
1960	10	3
1961	7	15
1962	20	34
1963	26	17
1964 (up to April)	3	8

Administration of Justice.

The establishment of the South-West Frontier Agency in 1834 with headquarters at Kishanpur (Ranchi) under an Agent brought the whole region under the effective control of the British rule. The Agent was initially vested with criminal, judicial and revenue powers. Under him was the Principal Assistant of Lohardaga Division (now Ranchi district) who tried some original civil suits and heard appeals from the decision of the Munsifs. The Wilkinson Rules, although not sanctioned by Government, appear to have been followed till the introduction of the Code of Civil Procedure (Act VIII of 1859). To improve the administration of justice, the Agent was relieved of his duties as Civil and Sessions Judge and in 1843 an officer was appointed with designation of Deputy Commissioner to carry out these functions. The Deputy Commissioner corresponded to the present Judicial Commissioner and received that title in 1861. A further change in the administration was made by Act XX of 1854 whereby the agency was abolished and duties and powers conferred by Regulation XX of 1833 were vested in an officer appointed by the local Government and Chota Nagpur was administered as a non-regulation province under a Commissioner. The officer in charge of the

* Source.—District Probation Office, Ranchi.

Lohardaga district was first styled Deputy Commissioner in 1861. The headquarters of the Principal Assistant to the Agent had in 1842 been transferred from Lohardaga to Ranchi.

Criminal Justice.—The Deputy Commissioner had powers under the Criminal Procedure Code to try all cases not punishable with death, but later these powers were withdrawn. The Deputy Magistrates stationed at headquarters were either vested with the powers of a Magistrate of first class or of a second or third class. The Subdivisional Officers also had first class powers while the Sub-Deputy Magistrates were vested with second or third class powers. There were Benches of Honorary Magistrates at Ranchi and Lohardaga which disposed of minor cases under the Municipal bylaws and the Police Act, and two Honorary Magistrates at Khunti, one of whom had the powers of a Magistrate of the second class*.

The Judicial Commissioner (District and Sessions Judge) is both the judicial and administrative head of the judgeship. Besides, there are courts of three Additional Judicial Commissioners and one permanent and one temporary court of Sub-Judge at Ranchi. The latter are vested with the powers of an Assistant Sessions Judge. The appeals from the decisions of an Assistant Sessions Judge are heard by the Judicial Commissioner.

The break-up figures† of important Sessions cases tried under Indian Penal Code from 1954 to 1963 are given below:—

Year.	Section 302 (Murder).	Section 304 (Culpable homicide not amounting to murder).	Sections 363, 364, 366 and 369 (Kidnapping and abduction).	Section 376 (Rape).	Sections 395 and 396 (Dacoity).
1	2	3	4	5	6
1954	56	2	Nil	Nil	1
1955	54	5	1	Nil	3
1956	67	13	10	5	17
1957	52	11	2	3	8
1958	51	16	5	3	13
1959	46	19	2	3	12
1960	82	15	1	4	8
1961	100	20	5	11	9
1962	86	14	4	9	10
1963	86	20	10	14	16

As it would appear from the above the incidence of murder is very high.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 208-209.

† Source.—Office of the Judicial Commissioner, Ranchi.

The statistics* of the Sessions Cases from 1954 to 1963 are given below:—

Year.	No. of Sessions Cases pending from previous year.	Instituted.	Total.	Disposed of.	No. of persons.		No. of witnesses examined.
					Acquitted.	Convicted.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1954 ..	20	61	81	46	67	45	734
1955 ..	35	65	100	73	200	57	1,050
1956 ..	27	138	165	131	254	75	1,799
1957 ..	34	98	132	107	160	90	1,311
1958 ..	25	116	141	110	177	96	1,627
1959 ..	31	110	141	192	146	1,066	1,506
1960 ..	49	126	175	80	179	46	1,200
1961 ..	95	175	270	174	434	91	2,429
1962 ..	96	167	263	137	290	87	1,738
1963 ..	126	204	330	178	361	116	2,183

The institutions recorded a rise in 1956, 1958, 1959, 1960, 1961, 1962 and 1963. Invariably acquittals outnumbered convictions.

Administration of Civil Justice.—The civil justice is administered by the Judicial Commissioner, three Additional Judicial Commissioners and one permanent and one temporary Subordinate Civil Courts. The High Court deputes Additional Courts whenever there is a congestion of cases.

The Subordinate Civil Courts in the district comprise of one permanent and one temporary Court of Sub-Judge and one permanent and two temporary Courts of Munsifs at Ranchi. The Subdivisional Officers posted at Khunti, Gumla and Simdega are also vested with the powers of a Munsif. They can try suits up to the value of Rs. 2,000.

The Judicial Commissioner and the Additional Judicial Commissioners have powers to try suits and hear appeals, but generally they do not try suits except those of special nature. Their appellate powers on civil side are up to, but not exceeding, the value of Rs. 10,000. Besides civil powers, the Judicial Commissioner and the Additional Judicial

* Source.—Office of the Judicial Commissioner, Ranchi.

Commissioners have powers of a Sessions Judge also. The Judicial Commissioner is empowered to inspect all the Criminal Courts and offices in the district except that of the Deputy Commissioner*. They hold camp courts in the different subdivisions of the district and try cases.

The Sub-Judges posted at Sadar have unlimited pecuniary jurisdiction on the original civil side regarding cases of the entire district. They are also vested with the powers of Small Cause Court Judge to try suits up to the value of Rs. 750. The Sub-Judges are empowered to hear civil appeals against the decisions of the Munsifs and those who function as Assistant Sessions Judge have been empowered to hear criminal appeals against the decision of Second and Third Class Magistrates.

The Munsifs are vested with powers both the original side and also as a Small Cause Court Judge within their respective jurisdiction. Their powers on the original side do not exceed Rs. 5,000 and that as a Small Cause Court Judge Rs. 350.

The Registrar system was introduced in the district in 1956 on a temporary basis and it was made permanent in 1961. The table† below shows the total institutions of civil suits and cases under different heads while the Table 2 gives details of pending civil suits, cases and appeals and their disposals from 1954 to 1963:—

TABLE I.

Institutions of Civil Suits and Cases.

Year.	Title suits.	Money suits.	Rent suits.	Small Cause Court suits.	Miscellaneous judicial cases.	Execution cases.	Title appeals.	Money appeals.	Rent appeals.	Miscellaneous appeals.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1954 ..	482	841	Not available	396	575	814	211	51	74	80
1955 ..	562	967	Ditto	538	1,632	972	225	79	16	63
1956 ..	612	1,095	Ditto	630	920	879	155	37	16	92
1957 ..	574	898	Ditto	505	625	642	135	32	13	93
1958 ..	589	986	Ditto	572	611	743	161	28	1	73
1959 ..	800	892	Ditto	492	533	742	147	28	14	48
1960 ..	991	519	Ditto	307	383	458	145	171	Nil	38
1961 ..	1,162	755	Ditto	592	828	370	131	17	4	32
1962 ..	1,300	699	Ditto	529	784	493	145	29	7	48
1963 ..	1,278	380	Ditto	200	693	369	155	18	5	51

* In respect of appeals or revisions concerning cases of preventive types, such as those under sections 107, 109, 110, 133, 144, 145 of the Criminal Procedure Code, both the Judicial Commissioner and the Deputy Commissioner have concurrent jurisdiction. But by convention the Deputy Commissioner does not hear them.

† Source.—Office of the Judicial Commissioner, Ranchi.

TABLE 2.

Civil suits, cases and appeals.

Year.	Civil suits.				Civil regular appeals.			
	Last pending.	Instituted.	Total.	Disposed of.	Last pending.	Instituted.	Total.	Disposed of.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1954	1,505	1,323	2,828	1,608	387	336	723	274
1955	1,306	1,529	2,835	1,841	466	320	786	522
1956	1,079	1,707	2,786	1,433	269	208	477	214
1957	1,415	1,472	2,887	1,693	276	180	456	305
1958	1,276	1,575	2,851	1,552	168	190	358	107
1959	1,383	1,692	3,075	1,544	261	189	450	182
1960	1,073	1,512	2,585	1,417	241	162	403	178
1961	1,205	1,917	3,122	1,554	200	152	352	209
1962	1,603	1,999	3,602	1,870	145	181	326	136
1963	1,783	1,658	3,441	2,029	204	178	382	162

Year.	Rent appeals.				Miscellaneous appeals.			
	Last pending.	Instituted.	Total.	Disposed of.	Last pending.	Instituted.	Total.	Disposed of.
1	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1954	116	74	190	52	48	80	128	58
1955	151	16	167	139	72	63	135	95
1956	28	16	44	42	40	92	132	67
1957	12	13	25	14	65	93	158	70
1958	10	1	11	6	90	73	163	41
1959	7	14	21	7	125	48	173	121
1960	14	..	14	9	52	38	90	34
1961	5	4	9	2	45	32	77	52
1962	7	7	14	4	28	48	76	43
1963	10	5	15	6	34	51	85	52

Year.	Miscellaneous cases.				Execution cases.			
	Last pending.	Instituted.	Total.	Disposed of.	Last pending.	Instituted.	Total.	Disposed of.
1	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1954	289	575	864	605	716	814	1,530	713
1955	261	1,632	1,893	596	825	972	1,797	824
1956	612	920	1,532	566	982	879	1,861	1,001
1957	362	625	987	603	867	642	1,509	801
1958	394	611	1,005	688	748	743	1,491	728
1959	331	533	864	490	774	742	1,576	670
1960	291	383	674	298	504	458	962	425
1961	338	828	1,166	339	538	370	908	447
1962	830	784	1,614	1,038	462	493	955	410
1963	581	693	1,274	514	553	369	922	450

The above figures show that there has been a large increase in the number of title suits since 1959. This is due to circumvent the provision of section 46 of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act, 1908. This section of the Act does not allow any Adivasi to transfer his land to any person other than an Adivasi without the previous sanction of the Deputy Commissioner, which is seldom granted. With industrialisation of the district the value of land has increased tremendously as the demand for land by the non-Adivasis has gone up. The Adivasis also want to sell their land to avail of the high prices, but in view of the aforesaid provisions of law, they cannot sell their land freely. To circumvent this the prospective purchaser with the consent of the Adivasi owner of the land, filed civil suits stating that he had purchased the land more than 12 years ago and was in actual possession of the same and prayed for the formal possession of the land. The Adivasi owner would also confirm the same contention and thus the prospective purchaser would take possession of the land formally after obtaining the compromise decree.

Another factor for the increase in the number of civil suits is that the owners of houses, in order to enhance the rents of their holdings, file eviction suits against their tenants. This is because the influx of people to Ranchi in wake of its industrialisation and housing shortage have caused an enormous rise in rent of accommodation.

Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions.

The separation of judicial and executive functions in this district took effect from 1st July, 1964. Now except in respect of the trial of preventive sections in the Criminal Procedure Code, the judicial functions have been entrusted exclusively to judiciary. The Munsif and Judicial Magistrates have been appointed to try cases. They are under the administrative control of the Judicial Commissioner.

Panchayat Adalats.

The *Panchayat Adalats* have been established to make speedy disposal of petty cases on the spot without lawyers and thus curtail the expenses of litigation to the minimum. The Judges are from amongst the co-villagers who are expected to bring about as many compromises as possible.

It was intended that the witnesses in the *Panchayat Adalats* would not depose falsely as they would be under moral pressure of their own environments. It was also expected that the proper functioning of the *Panchayat Adalats* would ease the congestion of cases in the courts of Magistrates. Contrary to this, the elections of *Mukhiyas,* members of *Panchayat* and *Sarpanch* are always preceded and followed by copious litigations in courts at various levels.

The *Gram Kutchery*, the judiciary of the *Gram Panchayat*, is headed by the *Sarpanch* who is elected by adult suffrage. The *Gram Kutchery* is vested with the powers of a third class Magistrate. It is also vested with civil powers to dispose of petty suits.

The *Sarpanch* has certain emergency powers also in case of apprehension of breach of peace (vide section 64 of the Bihar Gram Panchayat Act). In trial of cases he is assisted by a panel consisting of five *panches* including himself, one panch each nominated by the contestants and two other *panches* selected by him. The *Gram Sevak*, a paid employee of the *Gram Panchayat* acts as bench clerk. In respect of the administration of justice, these courts are under the general supervision of the Judicial Commissioner. The Munsif of competent jurisdiction in respect of civil cases and the subdivisional officer in respect of criminal cases have also jurisdiction over them.

The statement below gives the statistics of institutions and disposals of the *Gram Kutcheries* from 1955-56 to 1962-63:—

Year.	No. of notified *Gram Panchayat.*	No. of *Gram Kutchery.*	No. of cases and suits instituted.		No. of cases and suits disposed of.		No. of cases and suits compromised.	
			Cases.	Suits.	Cases.	Suits.	Cases.	Suits.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
							Per cent.	Per cent.
1955-56 ..	491	491	1,952	231	1,776	197	1,208 (61.8)	135 (58.4)
1956-57 ..	491	491	1,952	367	1,717	311	994 (50.9)	107 (29.1)
1957-58 ..	597	394	968	122	823	96	514 (53.7)	63 (51.6)
1958-59 ..	597	391	1,053	103	953	95	549 (52.3)	48 (46.6)
1959-60 ..	597	592	1,103	142	902	122	648 (58.9)	70 (50.1)
1960-61 ..	670	596	1,357	245	1,283	221	918 (67.4)	164 (66.8)
1961-62 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.. ..	.. ..
1962-63 ..	705	705	1,322	507	1,167	389	922 (69.6)	267 (52.9)

The statistics show a higher incidence of litigation in the years 1955-56 and 1956-57. There is a decline in 1957-58. There was a rising tendency in litigation from 1958-59 onwards. The percentage of compromise in criminal cases was invariably higher than in civil suits. Apart from the statutory *panchayats*, there are also traditional tribal *panchayats*, which concern themselves exclusively with social matters, e.g., marriage, divorce, etc., of the tribals concerned.

Legal Profession and Bar Association.

The legal profession consists of Barristers, Advocates, Pleaders, Mukhtears and their clerks. At present (1964) there is no Barrister in the district. There are 177 Advocates at Ranchi, 7 at Gumla, 8 at Simdega and 7 at Khunti. The number of Pleaders at Ranchi is 44, at Gumla 2, at Simdega 3 and at Khunti 8. There are five Mukhtears at Ranchi, one at Gumla and three at Khunti. The number of Mukhtears is dwindling due to the abolition of Mukhtearship Examination in early 1940s. Under the Advocates Act, 1961, many Pleaders have got themselves enrolled as Advocates.

The Bar Association at the district and subdivisional headquarters have their own buildings and libraries. They look after the interest of their members and usually maintain cordial relation with the Bench.

The Ranchi Bar Library is an old institution dating back prior to 1888. The records available show that the number of members of the Bar in 1888 was only nine. It has produced some eminent members and some of them have adorned offices of great trust and responsibility including that of High Court Bench. The Bar provided leadership in various spheres of life. Among the members of the Bar in the early part of this century were Jagatpal Sahay, Balkrishna Sahay, S. K. Sahay, Jai Kali Dutta, Kali Pado Ghosh, Sarat Chandra Roy, Suresh Chandra Mitra, Kanto Bihari Lal, Ashim Chandra Roy Chaudhury, P. K. Banerjee, K. K. Banerjee (who became a Judge of the Patna High Court). Shri Kali Pado Ghosh took keen interest in co-operative movement. Shri S. K. Sahay, Bar-at-Law, as Chairman of the Ranchi Municipality and Vice-Chairman of Ranchi District Board made substantial contribution to the cause of primary education and also started a Law College at Ranchi. Shri Sarat Chandra Roy did valuable research in tribal anthropology and his contribution is indeed monumental.

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS.

Such Government departments in the Ranchi district as not deal with elsewhere are noticed below.

The following are some of the departments of State Government a district level, each being under the head of the department concerned:—

(1) Commercial Taxes, (2) Executive Engineer, Public Healtl Engineering, (3) District Industries, (4) District Anima Husbandry, (5) Executive Engineer, Public Works (6) District Agriculture, (7) District Education, (8) Labou Superintendent, (9) Civil Surgeon, (10) Executive Engineer Unified Minor Irrigation, (11) Executive Engineer, Water ways, (12) Executive Engineer, Electricity Board, (13) Anti Malaria, (14) District Inspector of Weights and Measures (15) District Co-operative, (16) Executive Engineer, Mechanical Division, (17) Assistant Superintendent, Secretariat Branch Press and (18) Ranchi Improvement Trust.

The following are divisional or regional level offices of State Government with headquarters at Ranchi:—

(1) Directorate of Rehabilitation, Hatia Project, (2) Chief Inspector of Factories, (3) Deputy Inspector-General of Police, (4) Deputy Director of Agriculture, (5) Regional Deputy Director of Education, (6) Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, (7) Divisional Manager, Rajya Transport Corporation, (8) Deputy Director of Gram Panchayat, (9) Sub-Regional Employment Officer, (10) Superintending Engineer, Public Works, (11) Superintending Engineer, Waterways, (12) Superintending Engineer, State Electricity Board, (13) Regional Deputy Director of Health, (14) Divisional Inspector of Weights and Measures, (15) Chief Conservator of Forests, (16) Presiding Officer, Labour Court, (17) Assistant Director of Soil Conservation, (18) Deputy Commissioner of State Excise, (19) Regional Planning and Development Board, (20) Deputy Controller of Accounts, (21) Assistant Director of Fisheries and (22) Regional Transport Authority.

COMMERCIAL TAXES.

The Ranchi Circle of the Commercial Taxes Department was started in 1944. The Superintendent of Commercial Taxes used to be the head of this department at the district level, but since August, 1964 the post was upgraded to that of Assistant Commissioner of Commercial Taxes, the latter being now the head of the department. There are five Assistant Superintendents of Commercial Taxes with headquarters at Ranchi to assist him in the matter of assessment of taxes on dealers and all other administrative matters pertaining to this office. There is a check-post at Muri under the administrative control of the Assistant Commissioner, to check the evasion of taxes on goods carried by public vehicles. The checking of the vehicles is done round the clock by four Assistant Superintendents of Commercial Taxes stationed there.

This department is concerned with the assessment and realisation of the following taxes:—

(1) *Agricultural Income-tax.*—It is being levied since 1938 under the Bihar Agricultural Income-tax Act, 1938, but its administration was handed over to Commercial Taxes Department in 1944-45. The collection under this head during 1963-64 was Rs. 53,091.57.

(2) *Bihar Sales Tax.*—It was first introduced in 1944-45. The collection from this tax in 1963-64 amounted to Rs. 45,05,613.58.

(3) *Central Sales Tax.*—It was introduced in July, 1956 and collection from this tax in 1963-64 was Rs. 18,82,733.46 as against Rs. 6,20,727.05 in 1962-63. This increase is attributable to the increase in the rate of tax.

(4) *Entertainment Tax.*—The administration of this tax was taken over by the Commercial Taxes Department in 1948-49. In 1963-64 the total receipt amounted to Rs. 7,74,000.80.

(5) *Electricity Duty.*—It is being levied in the district since 1948-49. The collection under this head during 1963-64 was Rs. 6,79,558.99.

(6) *Motor Spirit (Taxation of Sales).*—Before 1949 this tax was realised by the Excise Department. In the year 1963-64, the total collection from this source was Rs. 13,02,660.39.

(7) *Passengers and Goods Transport Tax.*—It was levied first in 1950. The collection under this head during 1963-64 was Rs. 5,25,108.23.

Co-operative Department.

The administrative head of the Co-operative Department is the Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Chota Nagpur. He is assisted by the District Co-operative Officer, Ranchi and four Assistant Registrars one each at Ranchi, Khunti, Gumla and Simdega. There is one District Audit Officer posted in the district who is under the control of the Joint Registrar, Co-operative Societies (Audit), Bihar, Patna.

There are two Central Co-operative Banks, one each at Ranchi and Gumla with their respective branch at Khunti and Simdega, the former being in charge of General Managers and the latter of Assistant General Managers.

Four Inspectors of Co-operative Societies are posted in Ranchi Sadar, three in Khunti and one each in Gumla and Simdega subdivisions. Besides, one Co-operative Extension Supervisor with one auditor is posted at each of the block headquarters in the district. All the blocks are covered by *Vyapar Mandals* and Large-size Co-operative Societies.

Chief Inspector of Factories.

In 1921 a separate Inspectorate was created for the province of Bihar and Orissa with H. W. Brady as Inspector of Factories, the post being upgraded as Chief Inspector in 1923. Previously, this work was being looked after by the Inspectorate of the Bengal Government. The headquarters of this department is located at Doranda (Ranchi). Its total strength in 1968 is—

> Chief Inspector of Factories, Bihar—1; Deputy Chief Inspector of Factories, Bihar—1; Deputy Chief Inspector of Factories (Productivity), Bihar—1; Medical Inspector of Factories, Bihar—1; Inspector of Factories (Chemical), Bihar—1; Inspectors of Factories—18; Productivity Officer—1; and Personal Assistant to the Chief Inspector of Factories—1.

There are 13 circle offices functioning at various divisional and subdivisional headquarters.

There is one Inspector of Factories for the whole of Ranchi district with headquarters at Ranchi. He is under the administrative control of the Chief Inspector of Factories, and looks after the implementation of labour laws in the factories located in this district.

Irrigation Department.

The Chota Nagpur Waterways Circle started functioning since December, 1957. It is in charge of a Superintending Engineer, who is assisted by four Executive Engineers, two posted at Ranchi and one each at Chaibasa and Jadugoda (Singhbhum). It has six subdivisions of which four are located at Ranchi, Tamar, Ghaghra and Kokro in Ranchi district. Each subdivision has four Sectional Officers who look after the construction works of their respective section.

The Hatia Dam Division, Ranchi, has three subdivisions, each located at the dam site and headed by Subdivisional Officers.

The Minor Irrigation Circle was created in December, 1962 with headquarters at Ranchi. The Superintending Engineer, Ranchi, is the administrative head of the circle and subject to control of the Chief Engineer, Irrigation, Patna. The Executive Engineer, Minor Irrigation, Ranchi, is the administrative head of the Division. He is assisted by two Subdivisional Officers one posted at Ranchi and the other at Lohardaga and seven Sectional Officers, four posted at Ranchi and three at Lohardaga.

Medical Department.

It has two sections : (*i*) preventive, i.e., Public Health Department and (*ii*) curative, i.e., Medical Department. The former is headed by the District Medical Officer of Health and the latter by the Civil Surgeon.

The Civil Surgeon, who is a senior member of the State Medical Service, is the Superintendent of all the hospitals and dispensaries in the district maintained either by Government or local bodies. He may also inspect Mission or other private hospitals in the district. As the Senior Executive Medical Officer he is responsible for the enforcement of drug control measures as well. He is the authority to issue license for chemists and druggists. There are 31 State dispensaries in the district located in the blocks and 109 health centres. The Ranchi Sadar Hospital has eight doctors. The subdivisional hospitals have also their medical staff. The Public Health Department has a chain of their own officers.*

Public Works Department.

There are five divisions of the Public Works Department at Ranchi. The Executive Engineers, Ranchi Division no. I and no. II are under the administrative control of the Superintending Engineer, Chota Nagpur Circle with headquarters at Ranchi. The Executive Engineers, Ranchi Construction Division no. I and no. II are under the control of the Superintending Engineer, Ranchi Circle with headquarters at Ranchi. The Executive Engineer, Highway Planning and Investigation Division, Camp Hazaribagh (temporarily) is under the administrative control of the Superintending Engineer, Highway Design Circle with headquarters at Patna.

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* For details, *see* the Chapter on 'Medical and Public Health Services'.

The Executive Engineers look after the construction of roads, buildings, preparation of projects, etc. They supervise and control the work of the Subdivisional Officer, who in turn also supervise the roads and buildings in their respective area.

The Ranchi Division No. I has four subdivisions, viz.. Ranchi, Doranda, Kanke No. I and No. II with headquarters at Ranchi. There are thirteen sections in the division, viz., Khunti, Tamar, Headquarters Section at Ranchi in Subdivision No. I; Headquarters Section, Ranchi, Government House Section No. I and No. II, Ranchi and Ormanjhi in Subdivision No. II; Kanke, Agriculture College, Kanke, Indian Mental Hospital, Kanke in Kanke subdivision; and Tatisilwai, Doranda No. I and No. II in Doranda subdivision.

Ranchi Division No. II has two subdivisions, viz., Road Subdivision and Building Subdivision at Ranchi. There are six sections in the division viz.. Itki, Headquarters Section, Ranchi and Opa in Road Subdivision, Ranchi; and Sections I, II and III all at Kanke in Building Subdivision with headquarters at Ranchi.

The Ranchi Construction Division No. I has three subdivisions, viz., Simdega, Construction Subdivision No. I, Ranchi and Gumla. There are ten sections in the division, viz., Simdega, Kolebira and Bano in Simdega subdivision; Lohardaga, Neterhat (in Palamau district), Ranchi Section Nos. I and II in Construction Subdivision No. I, Ranchi; and Gumla, Torpa, Basia in Gumla subdivision.

Highways Planning and Investigation Division has only one subdivision, namely, Ranchi in Ranchi district.

Forest Department.

The Chief Conservator of Forests, Bihar, has his office at Doranda, Ranchi. Besides him, there is a Deputy Chief Conservator of Forests, Conservator of Forests, Development Circle, Conservator of Forests, Southern Circle and Conservator of Forests, Western Circle, all stationed at Ranchi. One Forest Research Officer and one Forest Utilisation Officer at Ranchi are also attached to his office.

There are three Forest Divisions, namely, (*i*) Ranchi East, (*ii*) Ranchi West and (*iii*) Gumla with headquarters at Ranchi, each under the immediate control of a Divisional Forest Officer. The administrative data

of these divisions as also Forest Research Division and Forest Utilisation Division are given below*:—

Forest Administrative Units.

Name of Division.	Area of Division (sq. km.).	Range.		Beat.		Sub-beat.	
		No.	Average area (sq. km.).	No.	Average area. (sq. km.).	No.	Average area (sq. km.).
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Ranchi East and Ranchi West.	1,602	6	267	20	80	188	8
Gumla	2,732	5	546	18	152	115	24
Forest Utilization ..	..	5	..	5	..	5	..
Forest Research Division†	..	9	..	30	..	46	..

Trained and Untrained Personnel (as on 1st April, 1965)

Serial no.	Name of Forest Division.	Forest Rangers.			Foresters.		
		Trained.	Untrained.	Total.	Trained.	Untrained.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Ranchi ..	6	3	9	15	7	22
2	Gumla ..	1	1	2	12	11	23
3	Forest Utilisation	4	1	5	2	3	5
4	Forest Research Division.	6	..	6	8	..	8

* *Statistical Glimpses of Bihar Forests*, 1964-65, issued by Forest Department, Bihar, 1967, pp. 46-47, 48—50.

† Figures of Forest Research Division are inclusive of Lac Ranges, Lac Beats and Lac Sub-beats.

Serial no.	Name of Forest Division.	Forest Guards.			Ministerial Staff.		
		Trained.	Untrained.	Total.	Trained.	Untrained.	Total.
1	2	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Ranchi ..	160	34	194	5	7	12
2	Gumla ..	120	..	120	3	7	10
3	Forest Utilisation	4	5	9	5	5	10
4	Forest Research Division.	..	9	9	4	7	11

The Divisional Forest Officer, Ranchi (East and West), is assisted by six Range Officers with headquarters at Mahilong, Lohardaga, McCluskiegunj, Khunti, Karra and Tamar. There are 20 Beats in the Ranchi Division each in charge of a Forester.

The Divisional Forest Officer, Gumla, is assisted by five Range Officers with headquarters at Banari, Gumla (2), Simdega and Chainpur. There are 18 Beats in this Division each in charge of a Forester.

Agriculture Department.

The District Agriculture Officer, Ranchi, is the administrative head of the district agricultural office. He is under the administrative control of the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Chota Nagpur Range with headquarters at Ranchi.

The District Agriculture Officer has four Subdivisional Agriculture Officers with headquarters at Ranchi, Gumla, Khunti and Simdega respectively. There is one Additional Subdivisional Agriculture Officer with his headquarters at Ranchi who looks after the management of the Government farms.

The District Agriculture Officer is assisted by a team of specialists in Botany, Chemistry, Engineering, Marketing, Horticulture and Fishery, who are to take the result of research from their Laboratories to farmers in the field and train the Village Level Workers and the Agriculture Extension Supervisors in different blocks. The Subdivisional Agriculture Officers are also assisted by a team of specialists in Fisheries and Horticulture.

Animal Husbandry Department.

A Deputy Director is assisted by two Additional Deputy Directors, one for poultry and the other for administration, and heads this department at the divisional level.

At the district level there is a District Animal Husbandry Officer with his headquarters at Ranchi to look after the Animal Husbandry work in the district. He is under the administrative control of the Deputy Director at Ranchi. The District Animal Husbandry Officer is assisted by four Subdivisional Animal Husbandry Officers posted one each at Ranchi, Gumla, Khunti and Simdega. He is also assisted by the Subdivisional Veterinary Assistant Surgeons posted at Ranchi and Simdega and 39 Animal Husbandry Supervisors in blocks. The department looks after veterinary dispensaries, artificial insemination centres, welfare of animals, poultry farms, dairy farm, etc., in the district.

Industry Department.

The office of the District Industries Officer came into existence in September, 1957. He assists the Deputy Commissioner in industrial development of the district, specially in small-scale and cottage industry sector. He enquires into the needs of various industrial units for controlled articles and also recommends for industrial loans. There are two Industrial Extension Supervisors attached to the office, one at the headquarters and the other at the Sadar subdivision. In addition, there are 21 Industrial Extension Supervisors posted in various Community Development Blocks.

Public Health Engineering.

This division was created in 1949 at Ranchi and is headed by an Executive Engineer. In order to prepare the Drainage Schemes of Ranchi and other towns in Chota Nagpur, a Public Health Drainage Division was also opened at Ranchi in 1957 and with the coming up of Hatia Project a third division, namely, Public Health Division, Hatia Project, Ranchi, was opened in 1958. Now with these three divisions a Public Health Engineering Circle has been opened with headquarters at Ranchi and is in charge of a Superintending Engineer.

In Ranchi district there are nine Public Health Subdivisions, viz., No. I, No. II and Mechanical under Public Health Division, Ranchi; Drainage Subdivisions No. I and II under P.H. Drainage Division, Ranchi; and Subdivision Nos. I, II, III and one Mechanical under Public Health Division, Hatia Project, Ranchi. Each subdivision is in charge of an Assistant Engineer and has three Sectional Officers. There is also an Assistant Engineer posted as P. A. to the Superintending Engineer in the Circle Office, Ranchi.

Central Government Offices.

Central Excise Department.—The set up of the Central Excise Department in this district consists of an office of the Assistant Collector, Central Excise Integrated Division with headquarters at Ranchi. He is under the administrative control of the Collector, Central Excise with his headquarters at Patna. He is assisted by three Superintendents of Central Excise with their headquarters at Ranchi, Gaya and Dalmianagar, respectively, the Superintendent, Ranchi, being known as Superintendent (Headquarters). For the purpose of control, the entire jurisdiction of the Superintendent, Ranchi, is divided into a number of units known as a 'Range', each under the charge of an Inspector or a Deputy Superintendent. The Superintendent, Ranchi, is also assisted by three Inspectors with their respective headquarters at Ranchi, Gumla and Lohardaga.

The commodities grown or manufactured in this district on which Central Excise duties are leviable consist of unmanufactured tobacco, loose tea, package tea, batteries, ceramic products, trailers, tyres, etc. The wholesale dealers in unmanufactured tobacco, brokers and commission agents are licensed, as also all purchasers of non-duty paid tobacco, who store such tobacco in licensed premises known as warehouses. Similarly all the factories producing excisable commodities are licensed. The licensees are required to maintain accounts. The factories have also to submit returns.

The number of licensees of different commodities in this district in 1964 was as follows:—

Wholesale dealer in tobacco	..	..	988
Warehouse license (tobacco)	..	..	71
Tea Estate (loose)	..	..	2
Package tea	..	..	5
Trailer	..	..	1
Ceramic products	..	..	3
Batteries	..	..	1
Tyres	..	..	1

Income-tax.—The administration of income-tax in the States of Bihar and Orissa is under the control of the Commissioner of Income-tax with his headquarters at Patna. The following officers are stationed at Ranchi:—

(1) Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax, Southern Range;

(2) Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax, Ranchi Range;

(3) Income-tax Officer of Salaries Circle;

(4) Two Income-tax Officers of Ranchi Circle;

(5) Two Income-tax Officers of Special Circle; and

(6) Assistant Controller of Estate Duty.

The Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax has jurisdiction over the Chota Nagpur Division and the districts of Gaya, Santal Parganas and Bhagalpur. The Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax exercises appellate jurisdiction against the assessment orders passed by the Income-tax Officers of Ranchi, Hazaribagh, Gaya and Palamau. Assessees other than those having income from salary are assessed by the two Income-tax Officers of Ranchi. The Income-tax Officer, Salaries Circle, has jurisdiction over all private employees posted in the district of Ranchi other than the Government servants under the control of the Accountant-General, Bihar who are assessed by the Income-tax Officer, Salaries Circle, Patna. The Assistant Controller of Estate Duty has jurisdiction over Chota Nagpur and the State of Orissa. The two Income-tax Officers, Special Circle, have been assigned certain complicated and revenue yielding cases of Chota Nagpur, Gaya, Santal Parganas and Bhagalpur for proper investigation under the direct supervision of the Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax. The officers concurrently are also functioning as such under the Wealth Tax, Expenditure Tax and Gift Tax Acts. The officers are assisted by the Inspectors and necessary staff. The offices are housed in the department's own building situated centrally on the main road.

The major portion of income-tax of this district is derived from contractors, transport and timber business, wholesale and retail trades in general commodities and deduction at source from salaries.

Frequent local survey is made to find out new cases. The number of assessees for the year 1959-60 to 1964-65 was as follows:—

Assessment year.	Income-tax.	Wealth Tax.	Expenditure Tax.	Gift Tax.	Estate duty.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1959-60	3,152	65	2	9	105
1960-61	4,595	90	4	6	135
1961-62	5,659	102	6	5	180
1962-63	5,827	132	..	4	180
1963-64	5,987	183	..	17	210
1964-65	7,000	222	..	23	154

The big public sector industries have not started paying tax owing to heavy depreciation and other allowances. A good many ancillary and other industries are also being set up in this district, which may yield good revenue in future.

Accountant-General's Office.—The province of Bihar and Orissa was formed on 1st April, 1942, with Patna as capital. But for want of accommodation at Patna, it was decided to set up the headquarters of the Government temporarily at Ranchi. Simultaneously the office of the Accountant-General, Bihar and Orissa also came into being with W. A. Alder, I.C.S., as the first Accountant-General, who assumed charge on 20th May, 1912.

Originally, it was intended to locate the office of the Accountant-General at Patna. But, due to shortage of accommodation there it was located in the tiled hutments at Doranda, then a military cantonment, two miles south of the civil station of Ranchi. These hutments, which the Accountant-General's office is occupying, were first constructed in 1857, after the great revolt of that year, with a view to housing cavalry regiment. The buildings were, however, never used for that purpose, and later sold to a lac factory. In 1905, the Government of India acquired these buildings for housing the Survey of India Department. In 1912, these buildings were allotted to the Accountant-General and to the Commissioner of Income-tax. Thus, when the Accountant-General's office first moved in, the buildings were already 54 years old and were unsatisfactory from the very beginning as they were constructed for a different purpose altogether. Although, originally considered a make-shift arrangement the office continued to remain in these hutments till 1966 when a new multi-storeyed building with a floor area of over 1,20,000 sq. ft. rose adjacent east to these hutments to house the office. However, part of the office is still housed in the old hutments.

With the formation of the new province of Orissa in 1936, the Accountant-General's office was split up and the office of the Comptroller, Orissa, was formed with effect from 1st April, 1937. The Comptroller's (now Accountant-General's) office, however, continued to remain in the same buildings and shifted to the new buildings at Bhuvaneshwar only in 1956. The Accountant-General's (Bihar) office, which had by then substantially expanded, occupied the vacated buildings also.

The present strength of the Accountant-General's office is 46 officers and about 1,766 non-gazetted staff.*

The Accountant-General is responsible for maintaining the accounts in respect of the expenditure of the Government of Bihar. Audit of expenditure relating to Bihar Government and accounting of Central receipts and expenditure arising in Bihar is the responsibility of the Accountant-General, Bihar. He also conducts on behalf of the State

* As in 1966.

Government audit of the accounts of local bodies like, Municipalities, District Boards, etc., for which the cost is recovered from them. For conducting post-audit and accounting, he has 107 sections at the headquarters. Besides, there are 55 field parties who move about from place to place and conduct local audit of the initial accounts maintained in the various State and Central Government offices, Commercial Departments, Institution, etc., and also of the revenue* of the Central and State Governments. There is also a small branch office at Patna for conducting resident audit of the transactions of the River Valley Projects Department and Bihar State Electricity Board.

Heavy Engineering Corporation Limited.—The Heavy Engineering Corporation Limited, a fully owned Government of India undertaking, was incorporated in Bihar on 31st December, 1958 with headquarters at Ranchi for developing the manufacture of heavy capital equipments in India. It has a Board of Directors nominated by the Government of India. The Chairman of the Board of Directors is a full-time† Director of the Corporation. In addition, there are three other full-time Directors, viz., (*i*) Director of Personnel, Labour Welfare, Transport and Training, (*ii*) Director for Construction, and (*iii*) Director for Finance. The Chairman and the three full-time Directors form a committee of Directors which handles all administrative and policy matters and takes decision on various issues. There are also the departmental heads for various subjects. The projects are headed by General Manager and Chief Project Officers. Under them there are Deputy Chief Project Officers, Chief Construction Engineers and Deputy Chief Engineers. The Chief Construction Engineers and the General Managers have been delegated with certain administrative and financial powers within which they operate. The Chairman and the Board of Directors have also been delegated with certain powers. The administrative and the financial decisions beyond the power of the Board of Directors are referred to the controlling Ministry in the Government of India.

Hindustan Steel Limited.—The Hindustan Steel Limited, a fully owned Government of India undertaking, was formed in 1954. The headquarters of the company is functioning at Ranchi since 1960. The main object of the company is to carry on India's trade and business as iron and steel makers, steel converters, manufacturer of ferro-manganese, colliery proprietors, engineers and iron founders, etc., in all respective branches, and particularly to establish steel plants in the public sector. The company is entrusted with the construction and management of the steel plants at Rourkela, Bhilai and Durgapur and their ancillaries, viz., iron-ore mines, limestone quarries, coal washeries, an alloy steel project, a fertiliser plant and pipe plant and residential colonies.

* Income-tax, Central Excise and Sales Tax.

† Since February, 1969 till January 1969 the Chairman held an honorary and part-time assignment.

There is a Board of Directors of the Company and its Chairman acts on their behalf as the Chief Executive of the Company. The present Board of Directors consists of a whole-time Chairman and six part-time Directors drawn from amongst Government of India officers, leaders of industry, research and labour. The Chairman is advised by a Technical Adviser, a Finance Adviser and an Economic Adviser. There is also a Secretary of the Board of Directors, who assists the Chairman in dealing with the Company's affairs. The head office is divided into five divisions, viz., (1) Recruitment, Establishment and Industrial Relations; (2) Manpower Productivity and Training; (3) Economic; (4) Economic Studies; and (5) Secretariat. Each division is headed by a chief of the division.

National Coal Development Corporation Limited.—The National Coal Development Corporation, a fully owned Government of India undertaking, was constituted in 1956. It is the only public sector undertaking engaged in coal production and its processing in India. It is also the largest single unit in the country producing about 15 per cent of the total national output of coal.

The head office of the Corporation is located at Ranchi. The Corporation has a Board of Directors, including both Government officials and non-officials appointed by the President of India. There are 11 members of the Board of Directors*. The Corporation has a part-time Chairman, who presides over the meetings of the Board. Out of the 11 members of the Board, one member functions as Managing Director. He is in over-all charge of the National Coal Development Corporation with his headquarters at Ranchi. He is assisted by several divisions, viz., Division of Geology, Division of Planning and Development, Division of Production, Division of Accounts, Cost and Finance and Director of Administration, each under the charge of the Chief Engineer or Director to plan and execute the various schemes regarding the coal mining in the country.

The National Coal Development Corporation is also one of the largest employers in the country with about 73,000 workers and staff on its pay-roll. It is operating in five States, viz., Bihar, Bengal, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra. Its operations are divided into seven areas each under the charge of an Area General Manager.

Other Central Government offices.—The following offices of the Central Government are also located at Ranchi:—

(1) Civil Aviation Department; (2) Central Public Works Department; (3) Postal Department; (4) Telegraph Engineering Department; (5) Office of the Assistant Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes; (6) Warehousing Corporation; and (7) Life Insurance Corporation of India.

* As in 1964.

CHAPTER XIV.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

Retrospect.

With the location of the district headquarters, first at Lohardaga and subsequently at Ranchi, these places began to develop fast into townships in the latter half of the 19th century. This growth brought about the problems of construction and maintenance of roads, provisions for sanitation, prevention of diseases, etc.. and initially these were the responsibility of the administrative head of the district. However, it was increasingly felt at the highest government level that there should be separate institutions for meeting such problems. Lord Ripon took effective steps and Act III of 1885 was passed to replace the Road Cess Committee which up to that time had looked after the communications of the district. Duties were bifurcated when the Municipalities and the District Board were constituted and they took over certain functions of the Deputy Commissioners and the Public Works Department. But for a long time the overall supervision and overriding authority of the Deputy Commissioner remained over them. The Local Self-Government institutions were thus meant to run the administration of local affairs, such as maintenance of roads and bridges; management of pounds; establishment and maintenance of schools; provision of medical and veterinary relief; control of rural and urban sanitation, etc. Certain roads, bridges and rest houses were, however, reserved for the Public Works Department.

At present there are six types of local bodies in this district, viz., Municipality, Notified Area Committee, Ranchi Improvement Trust, *Zila Parishad*, Union Board and *Gram Panchayat*.

A significant step was taken to foster the spirit of Local Self-Government in 1947, when the Bihar Panchayat Raj Act was passed and put into operation in this district in 1949, to impart training in democratic institutions right up to the villages.

Ranchi Municipality.

This was constituted in 1869, and has a Municipal Board consisting of 40 Commissioners, of whom 32 are elected* and 8 are nominated including *ex-officio* Station Staff Officer. The last election was held in November, 1964. The Chairman is elected. The jurisdiction of the Municipality spreads over 12.39 square miles, as against about 6 square

* The election first introduced in 1918.

miles in 1917*. It is divided into seven wards with a total of 9,964 holdings (as in 1957-58), representing 9.8 per cent of the population. With the expansion of area the population has also increased from 33,069 in 1911 to 1,40,253 in 1961.

The principal sources of income of the Municipality are holding and latrine taxes at the rate of 12½ per cent and 7½ per cent respectively, besides the income from market, slaughter-houses, tanks, stalls, vehicles, carts and dangerous trades, etc. The figures of receipts and expenditure for ten years ending 1962-63 are as follows†:—

Year.	Receipts (in rupees).	Expenditure (in rupees).
1953-54	18,42,610.00	18,54,914.00
1954-55	36,04,104.00	23,68,576.00
1955-56	14,65,924.00	26,47,643.00
1956-57	36,57,035.00	27,62,966.00
1957-58	9,23,986.86	18,65,246.08
1958-59	11,30,274.58	11,26,847.10
1959-60	12,57,679.32	11,03,617.24
1960-61	14,89,467.39	13,34,001.28
1961-62	21,82,317.71	17,05,727.61
1962-63	17,14,147.37	23,04,381.75

The services of this Municipality cover sanitation, public health, education and civic works.

It is giving free medical aid to public by opening allopathic, *ayurvedic* and *unani* dispensaries. It has a Health Officer on loan from Government, under whom a Chief and four Sanitary Inspectors are working. The services of eight Midwives are also available to public, free of charge.

It started imparting free and compulsory education in 1921. It ran 40 primary schools during 1957-58 and gave grants-in-aid to recognised institutions of Ranchi town, including public reading rooms. It also gives grant to the blind, deaf and dumb schools.

It supplies filtered water since 1956 from its reservoir at Gonda Hatma. It has erected stand posts on some of the roads in the town. The cultivators and public are supplied with compost manure at a very modest rate.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 216.

† SOURCE.—Office of Ranchi Municipality, Ranchi.

About 20 miles of roads are provided with electrict lights and the rest with kerosene lamp posts. The municipal park has been provided with a radio set and a gymnasium for general public. The Ranchi Lake is being developed as a beauty spot. There are four cinema houses within the municipal area which are run privately.

LOHARDAGA MUNICIPALITY.

This was established on the 1st July, 1888. The Municipal Board at that time consisted of 10 members nominated by Government. The Municipal area in 1917 covered 2.5 square miles and the rate-payers numbered 947 or 13.9 per cent of the total population. The total income in 1914-15 was Rs. 6,497, mainly derived from a tax on persons, levied at one per cent on the income of the assessees, and a sum of Rs. 2,643 was obtained from this source. The other items of revenue were rent of pounds (Rs. 415), and rent of *sarais* (Rs. 252)*. The election system was introduced in 1922 when eight were elected and only two nominated. The election based on adult franchise was started in the year 1945-46 and the number of Commissioners raised to 15, 12 elected and 3 nominated. The municipal area now covers 2.21 square miles.

The table below shows receipts and expenditure under different heads from the year 1953-54 to 1956-57†:—

Year.	Receipts (in rupees).	Expenditure (in rupees).
1953-54	34,064	45,147
1954-55	42,405	40,068
1955-56	77,435	75,344
1956-57	77,364	70,860

The Municipality maintains one middle and one lower primary schools for girls, two lower primary and one upper primary schools for Harijans, and one upper primary school for boys. It has introduced free and compulsory education since 1951 and also maintains a park.

DORANDA NOTIFIED AREA COMMITTEE.

This was constituted in 1924. Its predecessor was a Military Station Committee. It has 10 members, all nominated by Government, five being *ex-officio* officials and five non-officials. The Chairman is appointed by Government and the Vice-Chairman is elected by the members from amongst the non-officials. Its jurisdiction covers 4 square miles. The main source of revenue is holding and latrine taxes. With the increase in

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 218.

† SOURCE.—Office of Lohardaga Municipality, Lohardaga.

the number of holdings, the revenue gradually increased to Rs. 21,000 per annum by 1945-46. In 1946-47 it rose to Rs. 48,692 mainly due to the enhancement of holding tax. Taxes are also levied on dogs, carts, rickshaws, etc.

The statement below shows the figures of receipts and expenditure from 1957-58 to 1962-63*:—

Year.	Receipts (in rupees).	Expenditure (in rupees).
1957-58	98,165	1,17,305
1958-59	1,36,980	1,43,521
1959-60	1,59,144	1,38,960
1960-61	1,96,578	1,90,442
1961-62	1,89,343	2,17,661
1962-63	2,33,293	2,26,484

The Committee maintains one primary and one middle schools. Besides, seven other schools are given monthly grants-in-aid. The main roads have been metalled and coal-tarred and provided with electric lights. The other streets are lighted by kerosene lamps. Piped water is being supplied since 1956-57. Street hydrants have also been installed. It maintains a public park and also implements a scheme for production of compost.

Ranchi Improvement Trust.

It is a body corporate created on 9th November, 1959† under the provisions of Bihar Town Planning and Improvement Trust Act (Act XXXV of 1951). Its main functions are to provide for the improvement, development and expansion of Ranchi town and Doranda. Its jurisdiction now spreads over about 50 square miles.

The management vests in a Board consisting of a Chairman and 13 Trustees. The Commissioner, Chota Nagpur Division, is *ex-officio* Chairman of the Board of Trustees. A Chief Executive Officer has been appointed to look after the administration and day-to-day work of the Trust. He has also been co-opted as a Trustee under section 15 of the Bihar Town Planning and Improvement Trust Act. He is assisted by a Secretary, and other office staff. On the engineering side there is an Executive Engineer, one Assistant Engineer and other staff including one Town Planner. The Bihar Restriction of Uses of Land Act, 1948, has been enforced in Ranchi and the surrounding areas to regulate the use of lands. Under this Act, the powers of the District Magistrate have been vested in the Chief Executive Officer.

* Source.—Office of Doranda Notified Area Committee, Doranda.

† *See* Government notification no. 9835-I.,S.-G., dated the 9th November 1959.

In order to prepare the Master Plan, the Trust has completed various surveys, e.g., demography, land-use, traffic, recreational facilities, etc., and executed some works in these directions. It has also constructed a market-*cum*-office building in the court compound. It proposes to take up the following major schemes in the near future:—

(1) Hind Piri Slum Improvement Scheme; (2) Lalpur Market Scheme; and (3) Baraghaghra Land Improvement and Development Scheme.

Besides, it would take up the improvement and beautification of Ranchi Lake and certain roads of Ranchi town.

The main sources of income of the Trust are from : (*i*) additional stamp duty to be realised at the rate of 2 per cent on instruments of sale, gift and usufructuous mortgage; (*ii*) annual contributions by the State Government under section 87 of the Bihar Town Planning and Improvement Trust Act; and (*iii*) contributions from municipal funds at the rate of one per cent per quarter on the annual rateable valuation of the Municipalities.

Apart from these, the Trust may also take loans from banks and derive income from remunerative schemes.

District Board.

In pursuance of a policy to provide for training of rural population in democratic institutions, the Bengal Local Self-Government Act was passed in 1885 and its provisions were extended later to the district of Ranchi also. The first District Board of Ranchi, with the Deputy Commissioner as the first Chairman, was established in April, 1900, on the recommendation of the then Commissioner, Mr. Forbes. The Board was intended to replace the Road Cess Committee, which up to that time had looked after the communications of the district. It was found that though too much of official control was annoying, nevertheless it could not be said that official Chairman was an unmitigated evil. The District Officer's care at that early stage of the institution in a comparatively backward area had its good points as well. But it was later realised to be an unhealthy practice. Therefore, the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms (1919) recognising these defects, proposed that these self-governing bodies should be as representative as possible. It was felt necessary to remove restrictions regarding taxation, budget and sanctions of works, to make the franchise as wide as possible and to replace the nominated Chairman by an elected non-official member. But the Chota Nagpur Division was excluded from having an elected Chairman though the elective system was introduced in 1924 in the other Divisions of Bihar. For Chota Nagpur Division it was laid down under Government notification no. 3675-P., dated 21st June 1923, that "a person shall be appointed by the Local Government either by name or by virtue of his office to be the

Chairman of a District Board". In Ranchi, the Deputy Commissioner was the *ex-officio* Chairman of the District Board by virtue of his office. In 1917, it was constituted of 9 members, appointed *ex-officio,* including the Deputy Commissioner as Chairman and 9 members nominated by Government*. The district was considered to be rather backward for an election system. The number of the members according to the system of election introduced with effect from the year 1923-24, was increased to 31, of whom 24 were elected and 7 were nominated by Government. The District Board was reconstituted in the year 1939, when a non-official member, Shri P. K. Banerjee, Advocate, was elected as Chairman for the first time on 2nd December, 1939. Since then there was no election of the Board. On 15th September, 1958 Government took over† its management, as indeed of other Boards in the State, on account of general deterioration in their administration. The Deputy Commissioner took over charge of the Ranchi District Board on the 19th September, 1958 and on the 20th March, 1959, handed it over to the Special Officer, who was appointed by Government to carry on the administration of the Board. All powers of the Board including that of the Chairman vested in him. The Deputy Commissioner, however, continued to exercise his usual supervisory powers as before.

The main source of income of the Board is cess on lands, mines and forests. During the year 1952-53, the total annual demand from cess was Rs. 3,07,000. The annual receipts from other miscellaneous sources usually amount to about Rs. 13,000 only. The Government have recently authorised District Board to levy tax on earth. The annual receipt from this source is Rs. 4,000. Thus the total income of the Board is Rs. 3,24,000 per year. This is augmented by grants received from Government for various purposes, such as education, public health and communication. The total grants received under these heads amount to about Rs. 10 lakhs on an average per year. The annual expenditure of the Board is about Rs. 14 lakhs.

The table shows the figures of receipts and expenditure for the five years ending 1962-63‡:—

Year.	Receipts (in rupees).	Expenditure (in rupees).
1958-59	6,95,856	7,99,904
1959-60	12,18,734	10,27,709
1960-61	12,78,824	3,95,761
1961-62	9,06,522	8,75,830
1962-63	6,04,113	7,51,156

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 214.

† Under Ordinance no. VI of 1958. *See* notification no. 8001-L.S.-G., dated the 12th September 1958.

‡ SOURCE.—District Board, Ranchi.

Outside the municipal areas of Ranchi and Lohardaga, the maintenance of roads, bridges and roadside rest houses, except those maintained by the Public Works Department rests with the Board. The management of pounds, establishment and maintenance of schools, either wholly or by means of grants-in-aid, medical and veterinary relief, and the control of village sanitation also rest with the Board.

Up to the middle of 1955, the Board maintained 20 allopathic dispensaries, two *Ayurvedic* dispensaries and subsidised six *Ayurvedic* practitioners. It also gave grants-in-aid to nine dispensaries maintained by other agencies, and also to three homoeopathic dispensaries. The annual cost incurred for medical relief in rural areas was about Rs. 90,000 of which Rs. 33,000 was met by recurring grants received from Government and the balance of Rs. 57,000 was met out of Board's fund. The three subdivisional hospitals were taken over by the State Government on 15th July 1955, and by the year 1960 all other dispensaries except two provincialised. The Board at present maintains four *Ayurvedic* and *Tibbi* dispensaries. The subsidies and grants-in-aid to *Ayurvedic* and other dispensaries have been discontinued. During 1952-53, there was one stationary veterinary hospital at the headquarters and Touring Veterinary Assistant Surgeons, two for each subdivision of the district. The total annual cost incurred for veterinary purposes was Rs. 22,000. The entire cost used to be borne by the Board. During 1957-58 only a sum of Rs. 9,314 was spent by the Board on veterinary work as by this time all the veterinary dispensaries were taken over by the Animal Husbandry Department of Government. The Board maintains 608 lower primary, 108 upper primary and 15 middle schools.

The average annual expenditure on education was about Rs. 4 lakhs, out of which the Board was required to pay from its own fund a minimum sum of Rs. 27,000 and the rest used to be met out of the grants received from Government. Since 1954 the administration of Board's educational institutions has been transferred to the District Superintendent of Schools. During 1962-63 the Board maintained a total of 569.97 miles of road as per details below:—

Metalled road	47.74	miles.
Unmetalled road	367.24	„
Village road	154.99	„

With the transfer of important roads to P. W. D. and provincialisation of education and health services the scope of works of the District Board became very limited before it was replaced by *Zila Parishad* in 1964.

Zila Parishad.

In accordance with the provisions of the Bihar Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads Act, 1961 (Bihar Act VI of 1961), the *Zila Parishad,* Ranchi, was constituted in October, 1964. It consists of the following:—

(*i*) All *Pramukhs* of the *panchayat samitis* in the district;

(*ii*) Members of the Legislative Assembly of the State and members of the House of the People whose constituencies lie wholly or partly in the district;

(*iii*) Members of the Legislative Council of the State and of the Council of States who are residents of the district;

(*iv*) One member each from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes;

(*v*) Three persons elected by an electoral college consisting of the Ward Commissioners of Municipalities and members of Notified Area Committees, in the district from among themselves;

(*vi*) Two persons elected by an electoral college consisting of the members of managing committees of all the Central Co-operative Banks functioning in the district from amongst themselves;

(*vii*) Three women (co-opted); and

(*viii*) One person nominated by the Bihar State Panchayat Parishad.

A member elected or co-opted holds office for a period of three years from the date of his election or co-option. There is an *Adhyaksha* and an *Upadhyaksha* for *Zila Parishad* who are elected by the members of the *Zila Parishad* from amongst themselves.

The term of office of *Adhyaksha* as also *Upadhyaksha* is for three years from the date of his election.

The *Zila Parishad* has powers to—

(*i*) scrutinise and approve budget of the *panchayat samitis* through its Standing Committee for finance and taxation;

(*ii*) distribute the funds allotted to the district by the Centre or State Government amongst the *panchayat samitis* and amongst the Blocks in the district;

(*iii*) co-ordinate the work of the *gram panchayats* and *panchayat samitis;*

(*iv*) co-ordinate and consolidate plans prepared by the different *panchayat samitis;*

(*v*) offer guidance and supervise the progress of development work in the Blocks;

(*vi*) advise Government on matters relating to development activities in the district;

(*vii*) discharge powers and functions of the *panchayat samiti* until a *panchayat samiti* for a Block is constituted, or when a *panchayat samiti* is superseded;

(*viii*) advise Government on allocation of work amongst the *gram panchayats* and *panchayat samitis* and co-ordinate work between the two bodies and amongst various *gram panchayats* themselves;

(*ix*) establish, maintain or expand vocational and industrial schools;

(*x*) prepare plans for the *Zila Parishad.*

It has a Standing Committee for each of the following groups of subjects, namely:—

(*i*) planning, community development and communication;

(*ii*) agriculture, co-operation, irrigation and power and animal husbandry;

(*iii*) industries including cottage, village and small-scale;

(*iv*) education and social welfare programmes for the weaker sections of the people and for women and children;

(*v*) finance and taxation; and

(*vi*) medical, public health and relief measures.

The District Development Officer is Secretary of the *Zila Parishad* but he does not have the right to vote.

The Collector and such other officers as the State Government may appoint specifically are entitled to attend the meeting of the *Zila Parishad* and its Standing Committee and participate in the deliberations but are not entitled to vote.

The *Adhyaksha* has powers to (*i*) convene and preside over the meeting of the *Zila Parishad;* (*ii*) have full access to its records; (*iii*) exercise administrative control over the Secretary for the purposes of

implementation of the decisions and resolutions of the *Zila Parishad* and of any Standing Committee thereof; (*iv*) visit the Blocks in the district and (*v*) inspect the works undertaken and the records maintained by the *panchayat samitis* and generally the working thereof.

Zila Parishad.—All moneys received by or on behalf of the *Zila Parishad* constitute a fund called *Zila Parishad* Fund which is to be applied for the purposes specified in the Act and for such other purposes and in such manner as may be prescribed.

The sources of income of the *Zila Parishad* are—

(*i*) the Central and State Government funds allotted to the *Zila Parishad;*

(*ii*) grants from All-India bodies and institutions;

(*iii*) loans raised by the *Zila Parishad* with the approval of the State Government;

(*iv*) proceeds of the local cess and such share of land revenue as may be allocated by the State Government;

(*v*) donations and contributions from *panchayat samiti* and from members of the public and any institution in any form;

(*vi*) income from endowment and trusts administered by the *Zila Parishad;* and

(*vii*) proceeds from taxes and fees which the *Zila Parishads* levy.

Union Boards.

There was no Local Board in this district. The subdivisional headquarters except Khunti have had Union Boards to administer the local civic needs. Bundu being a seat of lac manufacture, also had a Union Board.

Bundu Union Board.—This was constituted in 1926 and consists of four elected and two nominated members by the District Board. It administers conservancy and sanitation including drainage of local area, street lighting, prevention of public nuisance, education and pound. The heads of receipts are union tax, penalty, pound rent, government grant, District Board's contribution, education grant and other miscellaneous sources including dearness allowance. The heads of expenditure are establishment, repair of roads, conservancy, sanitation, street lighting, education and miscellaneous items including dearness allowance.

The statement below shows the receipts and expenditure from 1950-51 to 1963-64*:—

Year.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1950-51	8,536 13 0	8,227 13 3
1951-52	8,539 13 0	8,197 10 0
1952-53	7,444 3 9	7,256 9 3
1953-54	8,754 2 6	8,292 0 0
1954-55	5,525 0 6	5,239 4 3
1955-56	5,613 12 3	5,157 4 0
1956-57	4,801 5 6	4,772 15 6
	Rs.	Rs.
1957-58	5,235.43	5,122.58
1958-59	3,879.93	3,739.27
1959-60	4,546.91	4,453.70
1960-61	5,764.96	5,663.90
1961-62	4,452.22	4,369.27
1962-63	3,844.33	3,819.05
1963-64	4,295.70	3,818.84

Gumla Union Board.—This was constituted in 1926 and consisted of six members, four elected and two nominated by the District Board. The annual assessment was Rs. 4,000 and the District Board used to give matching annual grant equal to the previous year's collection by the Union.

The figures below show the amount of receipts and expenditure during the five years ending 1957-58†:—

Year.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1953-54	13,945 12 8	10,373 15 3
1954-55	13,940 14 11	12,773 14 6
1955-56	11,266 8 11	11,003 5 3
1956-57	14,568 6 8	13,098 6 3
1957-58	13,890 4 8	12,923 13 3

* Source.—Bundu Union Board, Bundu.

† Source.—Gumla Union Board, Gumla.

The main sources of receipts are from pounds, union fees, Government grants-in-aid, Government subsidy for dearness allowance, District Board's contribution and miscellaneous sources. The main items of expenditure are establishment, collection charges, road repairs, drainage, sanitation, conservancy, water-supply and street lighting.

The Board maintains two high schools for boys, one high school for girls, one middle school for girls, one junior training school, one lower primary school, one *maktab* and one lower primary school for *Harijans* within the area of the Union.

Since 1960 it has been converted into a Notified Area Committee.

Simdega Union Board.—This was created in 1950. It consists of nine wards spread over an area comprising entire Simdega and the surrounding *tolas* of villages Kyre. Gotra and Saldega. The Board consists of 11 members, two of them nominated by the District Board.

The following figures show the receipts and expenditure for five years ending 1957-58*:—

Year.	Receipts (in rupees).	Expenditure (in rupees).
1953-54	5,745	5,205
1954-55	4,249	2,067
1955-56	4,903	4,177
1956-57	4,658	4,203
1957-58	4,445	3,587

The Board has constructed new roads and culverts. It also spends some fund on primary education and maintains a *maktab*.

The striking feature about the revenues of the Union Boards is that it is more or less static. The fall of receipt of Bundu Union Board may be attributed to the continued recession in lac trade with small funds in hand. After meeting recurring expenditure the Boards have little to devote to development works.

Gram Panchayat.

The Bihar Panchayat Raj Act (Bihar Act 7 of 1948) was passed in 1947 and came into effect in Ranchi district from April, 1949. For every village or a group of villages, the Government may establish by notification a statutory *gram panchayat* in accordance with the provisions of the above Act.

* Source.—Simdega Union Board, Simdega.

The *gram panchayat* is entrusted with sanitation and conservancy, medical relief and first-aid, supply of drinking water including the cleansing disinfection of sources and storage of water, maintenance of the account of crop, animal and vital statistics, control and prevention of epidemics and infectious diseases, construction, maintenance, protection and improvement of public streets, roads, irrigation works, drainage and water-supply, organising voluntary labour force for community work, implementation of land reforms measures and assistance to the development of agriculture, commerce and industry, general watch and ward to meet the emergencies, e.g., fire, breach of an embankment, outbreak of epidemic and occurrence of burglary and for maintenance of peace and tranquillity in its jurisdiction. The executive functions of the *gram panchayat* are performed by an Executive Committee headed by the *Mukhiya*. It consists of—

(1) the *Mukhiya;*

(2) four members elected by the *gram panchayat;*

(3) four members appointed by the *gram panchayat.*

While appointing the members of the Executive Committee, the *Mukhiya* is required to take into consideration the claim of the members of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and females. The term of the office of *Mukhiya* and the members of the Executive Committee is from three to five years according to the gradation of the *panchayat* (Section II).

In this district 712 *gram panchayats* have been established in 1966-67*. The first election has been completed in almost all the *panchayats* and the second election in 53 *gram panchayats.* About 589 *panchayats* have been entrusted with the rent collection work.

The District Panchayat Officer is the administrative head and works under the general superintendence and control of the Deputy Commissioner. He is assisted by 43 Supervisors, 8 Instructors of Village Volunteer Force and 712 *Gram Sewaks.* The *Gram Sewak* is the lowest official of *panchayat* organisation and is a paid Government servant. He assists the *Mukhiya* in maintaining register and statistics and also acts as bench clerk of the *Sarpanch*†. The Government have started a Refresher Training Course, Brombay (Ranchi) since 1958-59 to impart training to *Gram Sewaks.* Section 26 of the Bihar Panchayat Raj Act provides for the organisation of the Village Volunteer Force in the villages under the command of the Chief Officers, who also get their training at the Training Institute, Brombay. The number of Chief Officers trained up to 1966-67 in Ranchi district was about 98, and the number of persons who have enrolled themselves as members of the force was about 1,43,742 and out of them 74,792 received training.

* Source.—District Panchayat Officer, Ranchi.

† *See* the Chapter on 'Law, Order and Justice'.

The *gram panchayats* have been empowered to raise taxes, such as professional and property taxes. Another source of their income is Government grant. An initial grant of Rs. 50 to each *gram panchayat* is sanctioned by the Government. They also get commission on collection of Government revenue and execution of development schemes.

Tribal Panchayats.

Till towards the end of the 19th century tribal *panchayats* played an important role not only in respect of social matters, such as marriage, divorce, ex-communications, etc., but also decided cases of criminal offences and civil actions concerning the tribals residing in their jurisdiction.

The smallest tribal *panchayat* was the *Tola panchayat* which decided the disputes in one *tola* of a village and dealt with minor cases. The *Parha panchayat* was an organisation of a group of villages and was of higher authority. It was presided over by *Parha Raja* who was executive head of the tribal clan in a particular area and acted on the advice of the members of the *Parha panchayat*.

With the functioning of courts at the subdivisional headquarters of the district since early part of the present century, people by and large preferred to seek remedy in these courts and the jurisdiction of tribal *panchayats* gradually became narrower and ultimately became confined absolutely to social matters for the tribals. The disintegration of the tribal *panchayats* may be attributed to breaking of patriarchal society due to spread of modern education giving individuality to the members of the society. Modern communications, movement of tribals in search of livelihood outside the locality, impact of industrialisation and urbanisation have further reduced the importance of these tribal *panchayats*. But the statutory *panchayats* have not occupied the vacuum caused by virtual disappearance of the authority of the tribal *panchayats* because of the slower reception of new schemes in the tribal areas. The jurisdiction of the statutory *panchayats* is invariably different from *parha*-based tribal *panchayats* which still have their traditional functionaries like *Pahan, Mahto,* etc., while the statutory *panchayats* are elective and therefore, their functionaries are likely to come in clash with the hereditary officials of tribal *panchayats*. The perusal of a list of elected persons to the statutory *panchayats* shows that a fairly large percentage of elected persons are non-tribals and have been returned on account of their economic influence in their countryside as *mahajans,* contractors, etc.

Panchayat Samiti.*

In accordance with the provisions of the Bihar Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads Act, 1961 (Bihar Act VI of 1962), the *Panchayat Samiti* in Ranchi district was constituted in October, 1964.

* Source.—The Bihar Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads Act, 1961, pp. 8—17.

It consists of the following:—

(*i*) *Mukhiyas* of all *gram panchayats* in the Block;

(*ii*) Chairman of Municipality and Vice-Chairman of Notified Area Committee, if any;

(*iii*) three representatives of the different co-operative societies in the Block other than a Central Co-operative Bank;

(*iv*) one of the members of the managing committee of the Central Co-operative Bank;

(*v*) two persons residing in the Block whose experience in administration, public life or rural development would be of benefit to the *panchayat samiti;*

(*vi*) two women residing in the Block;

(*vii*) two persons residing in the Block; from amongst Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes or persons other than the Scheduled Castes and Tribes.

Associate members.

(1) Every member of the Legislative Assembly of the State and of the House of the People residing in the Block.

(2) Every member of the Legislative Council of the State and of the Council of States residing in the Block.

These members have the right to attend and take part in the proceedings of the meeting of the *panchayat samiti,* but are not entitled to vote or to be elected as a *Pramukh* or *Up-Pramukh* or Chairman of any Standing Committee of the *panchayat samiti.*

There is a *Pramukh* and an *Up-Pramukh* for each *panchayat samiti* who are elected by the members of the *panchayat samiti* from amongst themselves.

Powers and functions.—The *panchayat samiti* may, with prior approval of the *Zila Parishad* and the State Government, levy contributions from the funds of the *gram panchayats,* Municipalities and Notified Area Committees in the Block.

Every *panchayat samiti* constitutes Standing Committees for each of the following groups of subjects, namely:—

(*i*) agriculture, animal husbandry, co-operation and minor irrigation;

(*ii*) education including social education, local arts and crafts, small savings and cottage industries;

(*iii*) public health including sanitation;

(*iv*) communication and works;

(*v*) finance and taxation; and

(*vi*) social welfare and programmes for the weaker sections of the people and for women and children.

The Standing Committee consists of not less than five and not more than seven members.

The Block Development Officer is the Secretary of the *panchayat samiti* and of the Standing Committee thereof, but he has no right to vote. He is responsible for implementing the resolutions of the *panchayat samiti* and of the Standing Committee.

The Collector, District Development Officer, Subdivisional Officer and other officers as the State Government may appoint specifically are entitled to attend the meetings of the *panchayat samiti* and its Standing Committees within the local limits of their jurisdiction and participate in the deliberations of such meetings, but are not entitled to vote.

Powers and functions of the Pramukh *and* Up-Pramukh.—The *Pramukh* shall—

(*a*) convene, preside over and conduct meetings of the *panchayat samiti;*

(*b*) have full access to all its records;

(*c*) encourage the growth of initiative and enthusiasm in the *gram panchayats* and provide them guidance in the plans and production programmes undertaken by them and help the growth of co-operation and voluntary organisation therein;

(*d*) exercise administrative control over the Block Development Officer for the purpose of the implementation of the decisions and resolutions of the *panchayat samiti* and the Standing Committees thereof; and

(*e*) perform all such functions and exercise all such powers as are imposed or conferred on, or delegated to him by or under this Act.

The *Pramukh* may, from time to time, visit the villages in the Block, and inspect the works undertaken and the records maintained by the *gram panchayats* in the Block and generally, the workings thereof.

In case of emergency, the *Pramukh* may, in consultation with the Block Development Officer, direct the execution of any work or the doing of any act which requires the sanction of the *panchayat samiti* or any of its Standing Committees and the immediate execution or the doing of which is, in his opinion, necessary for the service or safety of the general public, but he shall report the action taken to the *panchayat samiti* or the concerned Standing Committee at its next meeting.

Income of panchayat samiti.—The sources of income are—

(*i*) grants and aids received from the Government;

(*ii*) aids received from All-India bodies and institutions;

(*iii*) *ad hoc* grants received from or, through the *Zila Parishad;*

(*iv*) grants and funds for such liabilities, schemes and institutions as may be transferred by the State Government to the *panchayat samiti;*

(*v*) loans from the State Government or loans raised by *panchayat samiti* with the approval of the *Zila Parishad* and the State Government;

(*vi*) share of local cess and share of land revenue and other sums received from the *Zila Parishad;*

(*vii*) donations and contributions received from *gram panchayats,* Municipalities, Notified Area Committees, members of the public institutions;

(*viii*) proceeds from taxes, surcharge or fees which *panchayat samiti* may levy under this Act or under any other law;

(*ix*) income arising from lease granted by the *panchayat samiti* of public ferries, fairs, *hats* and the like, transferred to the *panchayat samiti;* and

(*x*) such contributions as the *panchayat samiti* may levy from *gram panchayats,* Notified Area Committees and Municipalities.

Expenses of panchayat samiti.—The expenses of the *panchayat samiti* are—

(*i*) payment of salaries and allowances to its officers and other employees;

(*ii*) allowances to its members including associate members, *Pramukh, Up-Pramukh,* Standing Committees thereof;

(*iii*) repayment of loans; and

(*iv*) any item of expenditure directed by Government for carrying out the purposes of this Act and such other purposes as may be necessary.

Progress.—Each Extension Block in the district has a *panchayat samiti.* There are 16 Tribal Blocks with adequate funds and the *panchayat samitis* concerned have plenty of work to execute.

CHAPTER XV.

EDUCATION AND CULTURE.

Historical Retrospect.

The tribals did not possess any scripts and so they could not have centres to impart education through the medium of writing. As in all primitive societies, songs and stories were memorised and passed on from generations to generations. But their *Akharas* and *Dhumkurias* trained them in social disciplines, which kept up their society.

From about the 11th century A.D. onward the Aryan Culture began to make deep impact on the district. Temples and shrines were established, as we will see later, and they became miniature centres of Sanskrit learning as it was considered to be a pious duty to patronise them. In these centres we see the nucleus of Sanskrit *tols* where students were trained to officiate as priests at religious functions. The inscriptions on some of the temples dating back to the 17th century A.D. show that Hindi (Braj Bhasha) in Devanagari character, in the style and tradition of Sanskrit, had come into vogue and it is but natural that in absence of any local script, it should have gained popularity and inspired people to learn it.

Dr. C. Bulcke, S.J. says that when the missionaries came to Ranchi, no written literature existed in any of the tribal languages of the district and neither grammars nor dictionaries were available. Due to this fact, they adopted Hindi in their contacts with the aboriginals and made it the medium of instruction in their schools, thus contributing in no small measure to the spread of Hindi in the district*.

State Enterprise.

At the time of the British occupation, and during the sixty years (i.e. 1770–1830), that intervened between that and the Kol insurrection, there could not have been many literate persons in the district as there were no public schools. It was in 1834, after the establishment of the South-West Frontier Agency, that a school was started at Kishenpur (Ranchi) at the instance of Government. The question of State's participation in public education was debated in Government quarters. The Agent, Wilkinson, thought that "if a good public school for affording instruction in the Nagree and English languages was established, it should

* Rev. Dr. C. Bulcke, S.J.: Monograph, 1967.

overcome the apathy of the better clan of the people in Nagpore". He mentioned that the existing English School at Kishenpore was regularly attended by 29 boys of all classes and there were about 10 who attended it occasionally. He strongly recommended that "a good school should be established at Kishenpore with an efficient Headmaster capable of teaching Nagree and English, and an Assistant. The school might be under the immediate management of a Committee, consisting of the Doctor, and some officers of the Ramgarh Battalion, subordinate to the Calcutta Committee of Education and my best exertions should be divided to induce the people to send their children to it."*

Wilkinson wrote, "there is no part of India where education is so much required as in the tracts of country under this Agency, where the belief in witchcrafts and evil spirit is almost universal. This state of ignorance and superstition has frequently been the cause of most cruel murders and the punishments, which have been awarded for murders committed under the impression that the murdered was either a witch or possessed of an evil spirit, have not been sufficient to prevent recurrence of the crime. We can only hope to get rid of this superstition and its consequences, which must always endanger the peace of the country, by education."* Wilkinson thought that one could not immediately calculate on any pecuniary aid from the people of the country. He personally offered Rs. 50 a month as long as he remained in the district and till the expenses would be defrayed by the private contributions.

The Board, however, thought, "it would be advisable to commence by teaching the vernacular only and when the people shall have been made acquainted with the advantages of education, and become reconciled to the system, it will be time enough to consider the expediency of introducing the English language into the places generally and even then it would perhaps be advisable to begin only with the situation at Hazaribagh".

In this connection it may be mentioned that David Hare, on behalf of the Committee of Education in Calcutta, wrote on the 6th September, 1838 that at least 25 or 30 boys should be taken up and that he thought it would be hardly worthwhile making an experiment with a lesser number of boys. This idea was accepted. There was also a proposal to send a few aboriginal boys to Hooghly or Calcutta for education, but this was abandoned. It was also decided that the boys should be fed and clothed. The Government considered that education of the inhabitants of this part of the country should be an object of political

* Letter, dated 1st November, 1837, from Wilkinson, Governor-General's Agent at Kishenpur, to the Secretary to the Sudder Board of Revenue.

importance.* In pursuance of a proposal from the Board of Revenue, contained in letter no. 287 of 22nd May, 1838, the Government of Bengal sanctioned on 20th June, 1839 a monthly expense of Rs. 210 for establishment of four schools and a grant of Rs. 400 for the construction of an equal number of school rooms in Hazaribagh, Manbhum, Lohardaga (Kishenpur) and Singhbhum.

It is apparent that Wilkinson, in collaboration with the then Government of Bengal and the Committee of Education in Calcutta, earnestly desired to spread education in the district, and presumably by improving the standard of the first Primary school of 1834, the Government Middle English School was started in 1839 at Kishenpur (Ranchi).†

Progress of General Education.—Till 1857, the school founded at Kishenpur was still the only Government institution in the district and contained only 67 pupils.‡

During the next decade some progress was made, but in 1871-72 there were only 22 schools in the district (including Palamau), with 986 pupils, and a few indigenous *pathshalas* and *maktabs*. From 1871 to 1881 progress was more rapid and was due largely to the expansion of the Lutheran Mission during this period, and partly to Sir George Campbell's scheme, introduced in 1872, under which grants-in-aid could be given to schools under private management. The effect of this scheme was at once apparent, and in 1872-73 there were 178 Government and aided schools, with 4,553 pupils, and 57 unaided schools, attended by 580 pupils. Since that date there was a steady increase in the number of schools. Between 1892 and 1902 the number of schools rose from 492 to 796, and the number of pupils from 12,569 to 20,503. In 1915 there were over 1,300 schools and nearly 40,000 pupils, the number of boys under instruction being 34,603 or 34 per cent of the male population of school-going age. With the increase in the number of schools and pupils, there was a corresponding increase in the number of literate persons, in 1881 only 30 males in every 1,000 were literate and in 1891 only 36, but during the period 1891—1911 the number of literate males rose to 57 per mille.

In spite of this marked progress, Ranchi was still more backward in education than other districts of the province, except Palamau and Singhbhum. The conditions of the district are such as to render the diffusion of education difficult. The villages are few and far between,

* Letter, dated 12th December, 1837 of Dunbar, Officiating Secretary, Sadar Board of Revenue, Fort William, to F. J. Halliday, Officiating Secretary to Government of Bengal, Revenue Department, Fort William.

† SOURCE.—Home Department, Revenue Branch, Consultation no. 18/23 of 29th July, 1880.

‡ *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 219.

the inhabitants are poor and indifferent to the benefits of education, and it is only in those parts in which there is a large proportion of Christians in the population that the number of literates is at all large. Among the non-Christians only 4,385 persons were recorded as literate in 1911 out of a total population of 6,07,820 or 13 per mille of the male and 2 per mille of the female population, but out of the Christian population of 1,77,473, 10,436 were literate, or 93 per mille among men and 25 per mille among women. The progress of education among the Christian inhabitants of the district has had the effect of stirring up the Hindus and Muhammadans to improve their condition.*

High Schools.—In the first decade of the present century there were four flourishing High English schools, namely, (1) Ranchi Zila School, (2) Gossner, (3) St. Paul's and (4) St. John's in the district with more than 1,500 boys on their rolls. The Ranchi Zila School was a Government institution while the rest received annual grants from Government and also special grants to enable them to erect new school buildings and boarding houses.

Middle English Schools.—During the same period there were 13 Middle English schools of which those at Gumla, Khunti and Jaria were maintained by Government; one at Bundu was aided by the District Board; one was aided by the Ranchi Municipality; and five were aided by Government. Three of the latter as well as three which were unaided, were under the management of one or other of the missions.

Middle Vernacular Schools.—There were five Middle Vernacular schools in the district, of which one was attached to the Ranchi Training School and maintained by Government, and four by the District Board. The mission had no Middle Vernacular school. These schools, which were little superior to Primary schools, were declining in popularity as parents of all classes preferred an English education for their children.

Primary School.—During 1907—1915 the number of Primary schools rose from 788 to 1,284 and the number of pupils from 18,256 to 34,289. Upper Primary schools generally had satisfactory accommodation, but the Lower Primary schools were usually found in wretched huts or in the verandah of the house of the leading villagers.†

In 1914, the district had 1,307 schools of all grades and the number of students was 39,867. The World War (1914—18), however, impeded the progress of education as almost all the German Mission schools were closed for a few years. In 1921-22, therefore, the number of institutions

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917) pp. 219-220.

† *Ibid*, p. 221.

and scholars came down to 1,299 and 38,090 respectively. Corresponding figures for the succeeding decennials and 1963-64 are as follows*:—

Decennial.	Schools.	Pupils.
1931-32	1,507	58,468
1941-42	1,593	65,202
1951-52	1,790	1,09,265
1961-62	2,510	2,38,810
1963-64	2,717	2,51,292

In 1947-48 the district had 1,613 institutions with 83,479 pupils. Since then there has been a rapid progress both in the number of schools as well as scholars.

Contribution of Missionaries.†

Education was indeed from the very beginning and remained throughout one of the main concerns of the missionaries. Each of the three missions organized Primary schools in as many villages as possible, Middle schools at mission stations and a central High school at Ranchi. The Lutheran Mission's Gossner School was already a Middle school in 1857 and became a recognised High school in 1895. Their Bethesda Girls' school was an Upper Primary in 1852 and became a recognised High school in 1947. The S. P. G. Mission opened two boarding schools, one for boys and the other for girls, in 1869. These developed into two full-fledged High schools : St. Paul's for boys (recognised in 1908) and St. Margaret's for girls (recognised in 1919). The Jesuits founded St. John's School for boys in 1889; this was recognised as a Middle school in 1901 and as a High school in 1905. The Ursuline sisters founded a boarding school for girls in 1905; this became a Middle school in 1917 and a recognised High school in 1935. As the number of Middle schools kept growing, High schools were opened in the interior of the district and at present (1967) the Lutheran Church runs ten recognised High schools in the Ranchi district, the Anglican Diocese five and the Catholic Archdiocese nineteen, out of which nine are for girls. The Catholics have another fifteen so-called proposed High schools awaiting recognition.

Three Senior Cambridge Schools are also run by the Christian missions: the Bishop Westcott School at Namkum (since 1916), the Loretto Girls' School at Doranda (since 1943) and St. Xavier's School also at Doranda (since 1960).

The 1966 statistics for recognised Primary schools are as follows : The Lutheran Church runs 149 Primary and 25 Middle schools; the Anglican Diocese 40 Primary and 16 Middle schools; the Catholic Archdiocese 348

* Source.—District Education Office, Ranchi.

† Rev. Fr. Dr. C. Bulcke, S.J.: Monograph, 1967.

Lower Primary, 86 Upper Primary, 58 Middle schools for boys and 32 Middle schools for girls. As a matter of fact the network of Catholic Primary schools with 58,728 students, is second only to that of the State. For higher education the Ranchi students used to go to St. Columbus College at Hazaribagh, founded by the Anglican missionaries as early as 1899 and was for many years the only graduate college in the whole of Chota Nagpur. St. Xavier's College, Ranchi, was opened by the Jesuits in 1944 and very soon attracted students from all over the province to its B.A., B.Sc. and B.Com. classes. The number of students in 1966 was about 1,800 boys and 500 girls, about 900 of them being tribals.

Other Social Agencies.*

The Adim Jati Seva Mandal, a voluntary social organisation, has opened some schools in the district since 1940. The State Government gives substantial grants for its various activities, viz., opening, management and supervision of schools, training of teachers, purchase of equipments and furniture, construction and maintenance of hostels, etc. The Thakkar Bappa Scheme for the welfare of Adivasis is also a part of the work of this organisation. Its achievements till 1963-64 are as follows : High schools—4; Middle schools—9; Upper Primary schools—58; Lower Primary schools—149; Hostels for students—13; Teachers Training school—1; total number of teachers—491; total number of boy students (Adivasi)—8,596, (non-Adivasi'—4,711; total number of girl students (Adivasi)—3,023. (non-Adivasi)—1,431; total number of boys in hostels (Adivasi)—682, (non-Adivasi)—194; total number of girls in hostels (Adivasi)—169, (non-Adivasi—32; number of students receiving free fooding (Adivasi)—185. (Harijan)—66.

Literacy.

The following table is self-eloquent of the progress of literacy in Ranchi district during 1901—61:—

Year.	Population.			Literates.			Percentage (approx.).		
	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1901	11,87,433	5,76,929	6,10,504	32,531	29,625	2,906	2.7	5.1	0.5
1911	13,87,073	6,76,526	7,10,547	43,041	38,403	4,638	3.1	5.6	0.6
1921	13,34,473	6,58,591	6,75,882	46,445	41,207	5,238	3.4	6.1	0.7
1931	15,67,149	7,77,063	7,90,086	43,386	35,193	8,193	2.8	4.5	1.03
1941	16,75,413	8,35,689	8,39,724	1,41,075	1,15,968	25,127	8.4	18.4	2.9
1951†	18,61,207	9,38,255	9,22,952	2,19,838	1,74,119	45,719	11.8	18.5	4.9
1961‡	21,38,565	10,76,251	10,62,314	4,09,244	3,13,973	95,271	19.1	29.2	8.9

* Source.—District Welfare Office, Ranchi.

† *N.B.*—The figures are from the respective Census Reports.

‡ *Census of India*, 1961, Vol IV, Part II-C, p. 62.

The following table shows comparative incidence of literacy, Anchal-wise, in 1961*:—

Serial no.	Name of Anchal.	Population.			Literates and educated persons.		
		Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Lohardaga ..	61,642	30,714	30,928	12,878	9,792	3,086
2	Kisko ..	29,136	14,388	14,748	3,419	2,951	468
3	Gamharia ..	42,622	20,840	21,782	4,767	4,171	596
4	Kuru ..	38,963	19,073	19,890	7,465	6,183	1,282
5	Burmu ..	48,746	25,328	23,418	7,431	5,992	1,439
6	Mandar ..	74,556	36,315	38,241	12,339	9,994	2,345
7	Bero ..	56,558	27,547	29,011	8,891	6,905	1,986
8	Lapung ..	31,965	15,530	16,435	3,532	2,823	709
9	Ratu ..	61,305	31,795	29,510	9,628	8,063	1,565
10	Kanke ..	87,908	45,722	42,186	17,674	14,788	2,886
11	Khijri ..	79,984	42,960	37,024	14,169	11,932	2,237
12	Ormanjhi ..	32,131	15,987	16,144	4,874	4,178	696
13	Silli ..	61,960	31,368	30,592	13,388	11,385	2,003
14	Angara ..	57,306	28,773	28,533	11,298	9,913	1,385
15	Karra ..	53,482	26,113	27,369	7,213	5,601	1,612
16	Torpa ..	71,258	35,130	36,128	12,273	9,077	3,196
17	Khunti ..	53,707	26,732	26,975	8,997	6,870	2,127
18	Murhu ..	44,980	22,475	22,505	7,227	5,486	1,741
19	Bundu ..	42,104	21,122	20,982	7,364	6,191	1,173
20	Sonahatu ..	58,461	29,071	29,390	9,197	8,380	817
21	Tamar ..	67,808	33,797	34,011	8,449	7,662	787
22	Erki ..	47,124	23,731	23,393	4,279	3,810	469
23	Bishunpur ..	27,970	14,121	13,849	3,370	2,850	520
24	Chainpur ..	30,446	15,139	15,307	7,638	5,348	2,290
25	Dumri ..	45,286	22,467	22,819	9,693	7,089	2,604
26	Ghagra ..	52,253	25,637	26,616	5,641	4,897	744
27	Sissai ..	84,180	41,356	42,824	9,161	7,956	1,205
28	Gumla ..	80,857	40,730	40,127	14,047	11,223	2,824
29	Raidih ..	39,754	19,560	20,194	7,361	5,594	1,767
30	Palkot ..	43,204	21,238	21,966	5,699	4,700	999
31	Basia ..	41,567	20,317	21,250	6,868	5,248	1,620
32	Konbir ..	39,407	19,348	20,059	7,472	5,464	2,008
33	Bano ..	49,132	24,499	24,633	8,989	6,650	2,339
34	Kolebira ..	82,603	41,078	41,525	16,387	11,772	4,615
35	Simdega ..	70,529	35,118	35,411	15,378	10,702	4,676
36	Thethaitangar ..	48,463	24,074	24,389	9,272	6,701	2,571
37	Kurdeg ..	48,298	23,705	24,593	9,449	6,860	2,589
38	Bolba ..	16,781	8,297	8,484	2,019	1,485	534

Women's Education.

The Christian missionaries were pioneers in the field of women's education in the district.

* Source.—*Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Part II-A, pp. 578—91.

The Lutheran Mission started the first girls' Upper Primary school, viz., the Bethesda School on the 1st December, 1852 in their Mission area at Ranchi. Apart from free education, they gave a subsidy of one anna per week to each student as a measure of encouragement. This school had to be closed during the Great Revolt of 1857 and reopened in 1860. It suffered a set-back during the World War (1914—18), when it had to be closed again; but was upgraded as Middle school in 1921 and raised to a recognised High school in 1947.

The St. Margaret's Girls' School was opened in 1869 by the S. P. G. Mission. In 1914 it was upgraded as a Middle school and in 1919 recognised as a High school. It was the first High school for girls in the district.

The Bengali Girls' School, a privately managed institution was opened in Tharpakhna in Ranchi town by the Bengali community in 1877. After remaining a Middle school for a long period, it was recognised as a High school in 1939.

The Ursuline Convent in Ranchi town under the Roman Catholic Mission was founded in 1905. From the Upper Primary and Middle school stages it developed into a High school in 1935. In 1965 this school had 972 students and 31 teachers.

The Ursuline Convent at Khunti was founded in 1905. From the Lower Primary and Middle school stages it developed into a High school in 1949. In 1965 it had 584 students and 18 teachers.

The Doranda State Subsidised Girls' High School was initially opened as a Primary school in 1917. It remained a Middle school till 1950, and was recognised as a High school in 1955. In 1950 it had only 80 students, but later developed quickly and in 1960 there were 500 students on roll with 20 teachers, including those of the Middle school. In 1965 the number of students rose to 850 with 25 teachers. This growth is attributable to the establishment of the Heavy Engineering Corporation and the offices of the Hindusthan Steel, Ltd. in its vicinity.

The Balika Shiksha Bhawan was opened on the 2nd January, 1934. This is the only school to cater for girls' education up to the Matriculation standard through Bengali medium and is affiliated to the Calcutta University. The only sources of its finance are tuition fees and public contributions. At the time of opening in 1934, there were only 40 scholars with five teachers; at present (1965) there are 300 scholars and 18 teachers. A kindergarten section was also opened in 1960.

Shree Shiva Narain Marwari Middle Kanya Pathshala was established in 1937 at Upper Bazar in Ranchi town as a Lower Primary school. In 1940 it was raised to the Upper Primary standard with 100 students and

four teachers. In 1950 it was upgraded as a Middle school and had 226 students and eight teachers, rising to 432 students and nine teachers in 1960. At present (1965) the strength of the students and staff is 675 and 18 respectively. A High school was also started in 1957 with 20 students and two teachers and was recognised in 1963. At present (1965) the number of students on the roll is 273 with 10 teachers.

At the headquarters of each subdivision, namely, Khunti, Gumla and Simdega, the Roman Catholic Mission has raised the standard of their Ursuline Convent Girls' Schools to High schools. The Catholic Education Board at present (1965) maintains 10 High schools and 29 Middle schools for girls in the district. The Church of India, Chota Nagpur Diocese in Ranchi (the old S. P. G. Mission) maintains four High schools and six Middle schools for girls. The Gossner Evangelical Lutheran Church runs only one High school for girls. The incidence of female education among the Christians even in the remotest parts of this district is very high. The Ranchi district occupies the first place in Bihar for female education up to the Primary level. This relatively high literacy is due to the sustained efforts of the Christian missions.

Co-education is a common feature not only in all Primary schools, but at all stages of education up to the college. In boys' High schools, however, the number of girls is comparatively low, as will appear from the table below*:—

Types of Boys' Institutions.	No. of Girls.			
	1951-52.	1956-57.	1961-62.	1963-64.
1. High schools	140	137	645	937
2. Senior Basic schools	192	461	1,124	1,437
3. Middle schools	1,022	1,362	1,852	2,345
4. Junior Basic schools	136	872	1,049	1,231
5. Primary schools	722	19,439	31,435	36,527
TOTAL	13,212	22,439	36,105	42,477

The following table shows the number of recognised girls' schools for imparting general education and scholars on rolls*:—

Year.	Schools.	Scholars.
1946-47	78	8,304
1956-57	122	14,164
1963-64	223	77,433

* SOURCE.—District Education Office, Ranchi.

Co-education was introduced in Ranchi Degree College in 1949. This had its limitations and ultimately the Ranchi Women's College was started in 1949 with only five students with public donations and liberal grants from the State Government and the University. In 1965 it had 765 students.

EDUCATION FOR BACKWARD CLASSES, SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES.

The children of these groups receive the same education as those of the non-aboriginals and non-Harijans in general as well as professional schools. They get all facilities from the State, viz., full free studentship, book-grant, stipend, etc.

The table below shows the number of students of these groups reading in school for general education in the district*:—

Schools.	Scheduled Castes.		Scheduled Tribes.		Backward Classes.	
	1955-56.	1963-64.	1955-56.	1963-64.	1955-56.	1963-64.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
High	402	837	8,838	12,345	2,655	4,542
Middle	768	1,024	12,133	16,407	3,292	5,431
Primary	4,260	8,435	55,398	73,419	13,161	16,342

The table below shows their strength in the special schools (mostly of Primary standard) opened exclusively for respective group in the district†:—

Type of Special schools.	1956-57.		1963-64.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
Harijans	4	196	5	260
Adivasis	112	4,357	157	7,435
Backward Muslim Communities	34	1,169	43	2,457

* SOURCE.—District Education Office, Ranchi.

† *Ibid.*

Residential schools for Harijans and other backward communities have also been opened, mostly in semi-urban and rural areas of the district. Hostels for Adivasi students, both for boys and girls, have also been established.

Expansion of General Education.

Primary Education.—During 1872-73 there were 178 Government and aided schools with 4,553 students, and 57 unaided schools, attended by 580 pupils.* Of these, all except two were of Primary standard. There was a steady increase in the number of Primary schools and also of pupils since then. After introduction of the Scheme of Compulsory Primary Education in 1921 in the municipal areas of Ranchi and in 1951 in that of Lohardaga, there was considerable progress of Primary education as it was made free.

In 1950-51, out of 6,112 children of school-going age in the urban areas of the district, 5,793 were on the rolls, while in 1956-57 out of 10,971 children, 9,060 were enrolled, percentage being 94.9 and 89 respectively. The fall in the percentage during 1956-57 was due to the fact that the percentage in Lohardaga was considerably low, being only 52.5.

The following table shows the progress of Primary education in the district since 1955-56†:—

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Number of Teachers.
1955-56	1,660	86,231	3,111
1956-57	1,692	1,00,030	3,177
1957-58	1,669	99,866	3,212
1958-59	1,721	1,26,579	3,345
1959-60	1,892	1,35,940	3,315
1960-61	2,033	1,46,578	3,423
1961-62	2,060	1,50,013	3,676
1962-63	2,059	1,39,162	3,832
1963-64	2,151	1,41,475	3,879

Middle Schools.—Many of the Primary schools founded since 1834 had gradually been raised to the standard of Middle schools.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 219.

† Source.—District Education Office, Ranchi.

The figures include all schools run by the State as well as private agencies, e.g., missions, etc.

The following table shows the progress of Middle schools since 1955-56*:—

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Number of Teachers.
1955-56	105	19,563	813
1956-57	106	19,076	801
1957-58	109	20,857	795
1958-59	131	20,661	955
1959-60	146	32,108	938
1960-61	157	35,264	1,065
1961-62	181	42,996	1,281
1962-63	224	53,322	1,528
1963-64	238	61,090	1,623

Since 1954 the State has assumed direct control over Primary and Middle schools through the District Superintendent of Education, divesting the District Board of this responsibility, though it continues to give grants to municipal bodies to run such schools in their respective jurisdiction.

Basic Schools.—Basic education was introduced in the district in 1946-47 and the schools were first opened at Kanke and Simdega. In addition to general education, training is given in spinning, weaving and improved methods of agriculture in these schools. They are controlled by the District Education Officer under the technical advice and supervision of the Deputy Superintendent of Basic Education. The district has three types of Basic schools, viz., Junior Basic, Senior Basic and Post-Basic.

The following table shows the expansion of Basic education in the district since 1950-51†:—

Year.	Junior Basic.			Senior Basic.			Post-Basic.		
	Schools.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Schools.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Schools.	Scholars.	Teachers.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1950-51 ..	19	1,625	31	5	1,095	31	1	47	5
1955-56 ..	92	5,000	208	23	2,890	140	1	71	7
1960-61 ..	136	8,182	305	37	6,218	270	2	134	11
1963-64 ..	133	8,698	305	40	8,103	271	2	147	17

* Source.—District Education Office, Ranchi.

† *Ibid.*

It would appear from the above figures that this type of education is not popular among the masses for whom it is intended. The number of schools and teachers has multiplied, but there has not been a corresponding rise in the number of students.

Secondary Education.—The Government-owned Middle English School, established in 1839, was upgraded in 1875 as the first High school in the district, i.e., Ranchi Zila School under the Calcutta University.

It was found that the following defects had grown up in the system of Secondary education during 1854—1882: (1) mother-tongue was completely neglected as the medium of instruction; (2) nothing was done to train up teachers for Secondary schools and (3) courses of study were much too academic rather than realistic as vocational and technical courses were not included in the curriculum.

In 1882, an Education Commission known as "Hunter Commission" was appointed by the Government to report on the entire system of education in the country. The Commission recommended for complete withdrawal of Government from the direct management of Secondary schools and leave them to private enterprises on grant-in-aid basis. Instead Government were to take up the entire responsibility of Primary education. These recommendations were, however, for some reasons not implemented by the authorities.

During 1882—1912 there was considerable expansion of Secondary education. It was partly due to the enthusiasm of private enterprises and partly to the system of grant-in-aid. The three Christian Missions in the urban area of Ranchi founded the following High schools during this period:—

(1) Gossner High School (under G. E. L. Mission) in 1895.
(2) St. Paul's High School (under S. P. G. Mission) in 1908.
(3) St. John's High School (under Catholic Mission) in 1905.

Since the establishment of the Patna University in 1917, till the formation of the Secondary School Examination Board in 1951, all the Secondary schools were under the control of the Patna University which conducted the Entrance or Matriculation Examination.

The University Education Commission under Dr. S. Radha Krishnan remarked that "Our Secondary education remains the weakest link in our educational machinery and needs urgent re-inforcement". The Commission, therefore, recommended that the standard of admission to University courses should correspond to that of the Intermediate Examination, i.e., 12 years of study at the school and Intermediate college. As a result of this recommendation, Multi-purpose Higher Secondary schools came into existence in 1958 with a view to maintain a link between the Secondary

education and the Higher education in colleges. The Ranchi Zila School was the first to be upgraded as Multi-purpose Higher Secondary School in the district. Subsequently, several other High schools were also raised to this standard.

At present (1968) the following Multi-purpose and Higher Secondary schools are in this district*:—

Sadar Subdivision.

(1) The Government Multi-purpose Higher Secondary School, Ranchi (formerly Ranchi Zila School).
(2) The Government Girls' Higher Secondary School, Ranchi.
(3) St. John's Higher Secondary School, Ranchi.
(4) Marwari Multi-purpose School, Ranchi.
(5) State Subsidised Higher Secondary School, Silli.
(6) Vikas Multi-purpose School, Ranchi.
(7) H. E. C. Higher Secondary School, Jagarnathpur.
(8) Indian Aluminium Company Higher Secondary School. Muri.
(9) S. S. M. P. Higher Secondary School, Lohardaga.

Gumla Subdivision.

(1) Gumla State Subsidised Multi-purpose Higher Secondary School, Gumla.
(2) State Subsidised Higher Secondary School, Raidih.

Khunti Subdivision.

(1) State Subsidised Higher Secondary School, Khunti.
(2) State Subsidised Higher Secondary School, Bundu.

Simdega Subdivision.

(1) St. Mary's Higher Secondary School, Samtoli.

Besides, there are proposed Higher Secondary schools at Namkum, Joran and Ratu in Sadar subdivision; Kaharia in Khunti subdivision and Jaldega in Simdega subdivision.

The following are present (1968) High schools in the district*:—

Sadar Subdivision.

(1) St. Paul's High School, Ranchi.
(2) Gossner High School, Ranchi.

* SOURCE.—Office of the Director of Public Instruction, Bihar, Patna.

(3) Balkrishna High School, Ranchi.
(4) L. E. B. B. High School, Ranchi.
(5) St. Margaret's Girls' High School, Ranchi.
(6) Ursuline Convent Girls' High School, Ranchi.
(7) Bethesda Girls' High School, Ranchi.
(8) Chota Nagpur Girls' High School, Ranchi.
(9) State Subsidised High School, Doranda.
(10) C. N. Raj High School, Ratu.
(11) Azad High School, Ranchi.
(12) State Subsidised Kasturba High School, Lohardaga.
(13) State Subsidised S. S. R. V. V. High School, Doranda.
(14) State Subsidised Janta High School, Ormanjhi.
(15) High School, Rahe.
(16) High School, Khelari.
(17) Chunnilal High School, Lohardaga.
(18) St. Alosius High School, Ranchi.
(19) Shree Shivnarain Marwari Girls' High School, Ranchi.
(20) High School, Bantahajam.
(21) State Subsidised High School, Bero.
(22) Lutheran High School, Lohardaga.
(23) Girls' High School, Lohardaga.
(24) State Subsidised High School, Itki.
(25) Sakri High School, Itki.
(26) High School, Tangardih.
(27) Gouridutt High School, Ranchi.
(28) Gram Vikas Vidyapith High School, Silli.
(29) St. Anna Girls' High School, Mandar.
(30) St. Agnus Girls' High School, Itki.
(31) Doranda Girls' High School, Doranda.
(32) Yogoda Satsang High School, Ranchi.
(33) Kuru High School, Kuru.
(34) Sossai High School, Sossai, Maradih.
(35) Dr. Anugrah Narain High School, Kairo.

Khunti Subdivision.

(1) Jubilee High School, Govindpur.
(2) St. Joseph's High School, Torpa.

(3) High School, Tamar.
(4) Convent Girls' High School, Khunti.
(5) State Subsidised High School, Sonahatu.
(6) Laxminarain High School, Murhu.
(7) State Subsidised High School, Tapkara.
(8) High School, Karra.
(9) High School, Khuntitoli.
(10) St. Anna's Girls' High School, Torpa.
(11) High School, Takarma.

Gumla Subdivision.

(1) St. Ignatius High School, Gumla.
(2) High School, Chainpur.
(3) Mission Girls' High School, Gumla.
(4) A. G. S. M. High School, Bharno.
(5) Lutheran High School, Gumla.
(6) Sarvoday High School, Basia.
(7) High School, Thakurgaon.
(8) State Subsidised High School, Ghaghra.
(9) High School, Palkot.
(10) State Subsidised High School, Bishunpur.
(11) St. Anna's Girls High School, Chainpur.
(12) Ursuline Girls' High School, Gumla.
(13) Sant Tulsi High School, Sissai.
(14) High School, Kandara.

Simdega Subdivision.

(1) State Subsidised High School, Simdega.
(2) Girls' High School, Samtoli.
(3) E. C. Girls' High School, Simdega.
(4) State Subsidised High School, Bansjor.
(5) High School, Kinkel.
(6) State Subsidised High School, Bano.
(7) High School, Lachragarh.
(8) High School, Kurdeg.
(9) State Subsidised Girls' High School, Simdega.

(10) Ursuline Convent Girls' High School, Noatoli.
(11) High School, Koranjo.
(12) High School, Baghdega.

Besides, there are proposed High schools also at Murhu, Jairagi, Bhikhampur, Toto, Kolebira, Bolba, Bagru and Irki.

The table below shows the expansion of Secondary schools since 1955-56*:—

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Number of Teachers.
1955-56	30	13,443	516
1956-57	30	14,452	566
1957-58	38	16,323	600
1958-59	52	17,916	620
1959-60	54	18,942	622
1960-61	53	19,511	637
1961-62	53	19,976	604
1962-63	55	21,068	620
1963-64	59	22.138	710

Medium of Instruction.

Prior to 1940, the medium of instruction in all the non-language subjects from classes VIII to XI of High schools was generally English. The vernacular language of pupils was also taught as one of the subjects of study. After 1940, modern vernaculars (Hindi, Bengali and Urdu) together with English were made the media of teaching up to Matriculation standard. After Independence, though English is taught as a compulsory subject in classes VI to XI†, the stress is now on Hindi.

Public Schools.

The following public schools in this district impart instruction through the medium of English. The Vikas Vidyalaya, however, has both English and Hindi as media:—

Bishop Westcott Boys' School.—It was started in 1916 at Namkum. In 1965 it had 430 students and a staff of 21 teachers. It has a library with 3,280 books; and a hostel for 300 boys. Among the extra-mural activities, A.C.C., N.C.C., Scouts, etc., may be mentioned. The students sit at the Indian School Certificate Examination.

* Source.—District Education Office, Ranchi.

† Since 1967 failure in compulsory English is no bar to one's passing the Matriculation or Higher Secondary Examination "Without English", if otherwise fit and his admission into colleges; but one has to pass in English at Pre-University or Degree Part I stage, as the case may be, in compulsory English paper of previous corresponding standard.

Loretto Convent.—It was opened at Doranda in 1943 under the Roman Catholic Mission and was recognised by the Council for Indian School Certificate Examination in 1952. Those girls who have almost completed their fourth year and also boys up to the age of 6 years are admitted in this school. In 1965 it had 530 students and 28 teachers.

St. Xavier's School.—It was started at Doranda in 1960 by the Jesuits and is housed in a modern building. In 1965 it had 691 students on rolls.

Vikas Vidyalaya.—It was founded in 1952 by the Manav Vikas Vidyalaya Trust of Calcutta and is situated on Ranchi-Hazaribagh Road, about 9 miles north of Ranchi town. It is a residential school, imparting education up to Higher Secondary level and is affiliated to Central Board of Secondary Education, New Delhi. It specialises both in Science and Commerce groups of subjects. Admission is done on the result of test alone. There are two terms, first starting at the end of June and ending in December and the second starting in January and ending in April. The Vidyalaya comprises standards I to VIII, standard I being equivalent to Class V of Bihar. The Higher Secondary Examination is taken after completion of standard VIII. The annual cost per student comes to about Rs. 2,600 inclusive of tuition, boarding and pocket-money. Only vegetarian meals, but of high standard, are supplied. There is a well-equipped hospital attached to the school with a full-time compounder and nurse and a qualified doctor, visiting it regularly. The Vidyalaya maintains a high standard of social life, games and sports and allied activities. In February, 1968 it had 421 boarders, 15 day scholars and 28 members of teaching staff, hailing from different parts of the country. Against Indian cultural background it prepares boys to face the challenge of the present technological age. It has a library and reading room, comprising about 11,000 volumes and a number of daily papers and periodicals. Horticulture, agriculture and dairy are some other pursuits within the campus, largely to meet the requirement of the inmates. The Vidyalaya has developed cordial links with the neighbouring villages.*

* Source.—Principal's Annual Report, 1968.

College Education in Ranchi District.

Retrospect.—A Government Middle English school, as referred to above, was started at Ranchi as early as 1839 by Major J. R. Ousley, the Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, with Babu Mahesh Chandra Chatterjee as the first Headmaster. It is believed that it was located at the present site of the local Marwari High School. Its building and furniture were totally destroyed during Great Revolt of 1858. Later, the building was reconstructed at the same site. From 1858 the British authorities withdrew concession in respect of books and also imposed fee from 1860, probably as retaliatory measures against the local population for the latter's alleged participation in the revolt. In 1868, for the first time, one student of Ranchi Government School was prepared for the Entrance Examination of the Calcutta University and he came out successful. In 1873, the school was shifted to a new building (which later housed the training school, now incorporated in the main block of the Ranchi University Department) and raised to High school standard in 1875 and came to be known as Ranchi Zila School. The same year the Governor-General and Viceroy of India, Lord Lytton, paid a visit to this school and made a grant of Rs. 50 only for award of prizes to meritorious students. Col. E. T. Dalton, Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, helped develop the school, particularly in respect of outdoor games. In 1875 there were 173 students on roll and by 1912 the number rose to 500. The school was shifted to the present site in 1915. From early times it was under a European Headmaster of Indian Educational Service.

Ranchi College.—The earliest effort towards starting college education in the district dates back to 1926 when I.A. classes were opened in the Ranchi Zila School and affiliated to the old Patna University. The college classes were held in the hostel building, popularly known as Zamindari Hostel, of the school situated near Ranchi lake. From 1st August, 1946 the Ranchi Government Degree College began to function as a separate institution, distinct from the Ranchi Zila School. During the period, 1946–54, teaching up to degree standard in various humanities and science subjects as well as up to Post-Graduate standard in a few arts subjects was started and consolidated. From 2nd January, 1952 control over this college was transferred to Bihar University and it became a Constituent College of that University. The period 1954–59 saw rapid development in various sectors of this college, the teaching of science receiving great impetus during the tenure of Principal G. P. Dube (1954–60)*. On the 12th July, 1960 the Ranchi University came into existence and assumed control over this college. Since then Ranchi College has further developed and become the premier institution in Chota Nagpur to impart higher education in humanities and science. It

* *See*, Dr. P. N. Ojha: *A Short History of the Ranchi College*, 1959.

has an imposing campus in Morabadi Maidan while its former premises are now occupied by various Post-graduate faculties of Ranchi University. It has hostels to accommodate part of its students. The Honours teaching in all the humanities except Sanskrit, Bengali, Oriya, Urdu and Persian, has been introduced in the college. Besides, Honours teaching in Physics, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology and Geology has also been introduced. The Post-graduate teaching in Hindi and History was started in September, 1951.

The progressive rise in the number of students (boys and girls) and staff is indicated by the table below*:—

	1946.	1950.	1955.	1960.	1965.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Students	250	793	1,679	2,602	2,722
Staff	8	36	69	103	165

Ranchi Women's College.—It was started in 1949 with only five students and was first affiliated to Patna University up to the Intermediate standard in Arts in 1950-51 and later to Bihar University in 1952. In 1953 it got affiliation up to the Bachelor of Arts standard. Gradually the science classes and Honours teaching in Hindi and Philosophy have been introduced. The college has a hostel in its campus.

The progressive rise in number of students and staff is indicated by the table below†:—

	1950	1955	1960	1965
Students ..	58	234	501	765
Staff ..	13	24	36	45

Ranchi St. Xavier's College.—It was started in July, 1944 by the Roman Catholic Mission with 140 students and nine lecturers. The Commerce classes were added to it in 1947. It was raised to B.A. and B.Sc. standard in 1948. Subsequently Honours classes in Hindi, English, Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry were added.

* Source.—Ranchi College, Ranchi.

† Source.—Ranchi Women's College, Ranchi.

The following table shows the progress of this college*:—

	1945 (Year of recognition).	1950.	1955.	1960.	1965.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Students (including girls) ..	123	630	1,148	1,831	2,215
Staff	10	30	50	66	79

Doranda College.—It was started on 28th July, 1962 as a night college in the building of S. S. V. High School at Loranda with Arts and Commerce sections. It has a Governing body with nine members. Pre-University Classes were recognised in 1963-64; Degree Part I classes in 1964-65 and Degree Part II classes in 1965-66. The following table gives the strength of students:—

	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
Students ..	415	294	201

Other Colleges.—Colleges for general education have recently been opened at Lohardaga, Gumla, Simdega and Khunti and also one, i.e., Marwari College, in Ranchi town. All these colleges have affiliation with the Ranchi University.

Ranchi University.—It was established by the Bihar State Universities Act, 1960, and came into existence on the 12th July, 1960. It is a teaching-*cum*-affiliating University with headquarters at Ranchi. It has jurisdiction over the five districts of Chota Nagpur Division, viz., Ranchi, Hazaribagh, Dhanbad, Palamau and Singhbhum. At present (1965) there are 34 colleges affiliated to it, 16 being in this district. Prior to 1952 the colleges in Ranchi were affiliated to the Patna University and thereafter till the formation of the Ranchi University they were affiliated to the Bihar University with headquarters at Patna.

There are at present (1965) 11 Post-graduate Departments in the University, namely, Hindi, History, Anthropology, Geography, Political Science, Zoology, Botany, Philosophy, Physics, Chemistry and English and 588 boy and 130 girl students (total 718) reading in all these Departments.

The University has 10 faculties, namely, (1) Arts; (2) Science; (3) Commerce; (4) Engineering; (5) Agriculture; (6) Law; (7) Medicine; (8) Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Science; (9) Mineral Technology and (10) Education.

* Source.—Ranchi St. Xavier's College, Ranchi.

*Table showing the number of institutions, scholars and teachers under the Ranchi University during the years 1960-61 and 1964-65**:—

Institution.	Number of Institutions.			Number of Scholars.			Number of Teachers.					
							Professors.		Lecturers.		Total.	
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
						1960-61.						
1. University Post-graduate.	1	..	1	501	66	567	(Teachers for Post-graduate Departments were not bifurcated).					
2. College for general education.	4	1	5	3,624	857	4,481	..	..	220	35	220	35
3. College for professional education.	4	..	4	1,684	32	1,716	7	..	124	1	131	1
4. College for special education (Research Institution).	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
						1964-65.						
1. University Post-graduate.	1	..	1	588	130	718	4	..	9	..	13	..
2. College for general education.	8	1	9	4,791	1,113	5,904	..	..	285	59	285	59
3. College for professional education.	6	..	6	3,241	187	3,428	23	..	219	5	242	5
4. College for special education.	1	..	1				(Not available)					

* Source.—Ranchi University Office, Ranchi.

Professional Institutions.

Education.

Administrative Training School.—It was opened in 1952 at Ranchi by the State Government to train officers of the State Civil Service (Executive Branch), both senior and junior. The staff consists of (*a*) a Principal in the senior scale of the I.A.S.; (*b*) two officers of the rank of A.D.M. (one each for Revenue and Development Course); (*c*) a Senior Assistant Accounts Officer; (*d*) a Senior Lecturer in Economics and (*e*) a Deputy Magistrate (for Hindi Course). The classes are held in Audrey House within the campus of Raj Bhavan. It has a modern hostel at Morabadi, accommodating about 125 officer-trainees. In early stages the number of trainees averaged below 50, but in 1963 it was over 100.

When the school was started the course of training covered 4 months, but now it extends to 52 weeks, of which half is spent at the school and the rest in the field (district) for training under the revised course introduced with effect from 1st December 1958. The following additional courses have also now been included : (*i*) A course of elementary agriculture and statistics with special reference to agriculture; and (*ii*) an orientation course—Welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The main topics taken up in course of institutional training are Acts, Codes, Manuals, etc. Besides, the trainees have to go through books on general administration, elementary public administration, management, political science, elementary economics and co-related subjects. The library of the school contains about 10,000 volumes, besides journals and magazines.

Throughout the course, the officers are deputed from time to time on Bakrid, Ram Navmi *mela* duty, etc., to acquire first hand experience in maintenance of law and order.

The officers for field training are ordinarily posted to the districts of Chota Nagpur and Santal Parganas. The training lasts for 24 weeks ranging between one to six weeks in various sections of the Collectorate, six weeks being mandatory in an extension block. The training comprises practical study of revenue, criminal, accounts and development work.

Teachers' Training Schools.—Prior to 1915, there was a first grade Government-managed training school for vernacular teachers in Secondary schools in Ranchi, with 60 pupils. Students who passed the Middle English or Vernacular examination were eligible for admission in it and the course for training lasted for 3 years. A hostel building was also provided.

There were also four other aided schools for the training of teachers for Primary schools with about 60 pupils. Two of them were formerly reserved for Mundas and Oraons only, but owing to the inferior qualification of the *Pandits* and pupils, these schools were not successful and were then thrown open to all, including Christian and non-Christian aboriginal teachers. As early as 1872 the Lutheran Mission had a teachers' training school and the other missions followed their example. Now-a-days the three missions run recognised junior and senior training schools, both for men and women*. The Lutheran and Anglican Missions have theological training institutes since 1870; the Catholic Mission started its seminary for prospective priests in 1903†.

In 1950-51 a reorientation of the system of teachers' education was found necessary and the courses were modified so as to bring them nearer to the basic system of education. The Elementary Training schools were renamed as Junior Basic Training schools for the training of teachers for Junior Basic and Primary schools, and the training period was extended to two years instead of one previously. There are three such Junior Basic Training schools in the district—one each at Bundu, Gumla and Hirhi (Ratu)—the first two being for male and the third one for female students. In addition to the above, there are two Senior Basic Training schools—one at Chiri (Kuru) and the other at Salgadih (Tamar)—opened in 1950-51 for the training of teachers for Senior Basic and Vernacular teachers of Secondary schools. All the Training schools have nearly 200 seats each and short courses for six months have also been introduced for experienced teachers having at least Matriculation standard of education.

The Adim Jati Seva Mandal also maintains a recognised training school at Sosai Ashram.

Teachers' Training College.—During 1955, the Teachers' Training College was established in the premises of the Multi-purpose Zila School, with 115 seats. Later, in 1957 the number of seats was increased to 165 and 38 students were given stipend of Rs. 30 each per month. The college permits co-education, nearly one-third being female students at present (1965). It has a library with about 8,000 books. The teaching staff consists of Principal and six lecturers.

Commerce.

Commercial Schools.—A commercial class was attached to the Teachers' Training School. Another such class for typing and shorthand training was attached to the St. John's High School. But these no longer exist now. However, several private commercial schools have come up in Ranchi town.

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* Rev. Fr. Dr. C. Buleke, S. J. : Monograph, 1967.

† *Ibid.*

AGRICULTURE.

Agriculture School.—It was started by Government in 1953 at Kanke and trains Matriculates for two years' Diploma course in agriculture and veterinary. A six months' training course is given to the candidates at the Extension Training Centres and thereafter the Diploma holders are sent to Development Blocks to work as village level workers. The school has a farm of 20 acres which is run by the students themselves. At present (1965) there are 79 trainees with six members on staff including the Superintendent.

Agriculture Training School.—In 1957 the G.E.L. Mission started a model farm at Khuntitoli (Simdega), where agricultural training is given to future farmers. In 1963 the Jesuits opened an Agricultural Training Centre at Namkum, with a two years' course for boys of Matriculation standard.*

Ranchi Agriculture College.—It was established in 1955 and since 1959 admits 100 students annually. It provides for a four-year Degree course in Bachelor of Science (Agriculture). The minimum qualification for admission has changed from a pass in the Intermediate Science to a pass in the Higher Secondary or Pre-University Examination with Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics or Biology.

Post-graduate classes in Agricultural Chemistry, Agricultural Economics and Land Development (Soil Conservation) were started in 1961 and a year later, Master of Science (Agriculture) classes were opened in Agricultural Botany and Agronomy. In each of these courses, only ten students are admitted annually. Post-graduate students conduct research work on specific problems under the guidance of Professors. The teachers of the college also undertake independent research projects, besides the regular teaching and Post-graduate research work.

The following table shows the rise in the number of students†:—

Year.	Under-graduate classes.			B.Sc. (Ag.) Final.	Post-graduate classes.		Total.
	Pre-Agriculture.	B.Sc. (Ag.) Junior.	B.Sc. (Ag.) Previous.		M.Sc. (Ag.) Previous.	M.Sc. (Ag.) Final.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1955-56 ..	Nil	85	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	85
1960-61 ..	51	117	106	74	Nil	Nil	348
1961-62 ..	96	87	87	105	19	Nil	307
1964-65	102	47	85	65	38	19	356

* Rev. Fr. C. Bulcke, S.J.: Monograph, 1967.

† SOURCE.—Ranchi Agriculture College, Ranchi.

The staff consists of 32 Professors and 28 Demonstrators. The library is equipped with about 7,000 books.

VETERINARY.

Veterinary College.—It is functioning since 1964. The new college building has been constructed by Government at Kanke. It has 256 students and 11 lecturers and a hostel.

LAW.

Chota Nagpur Law College.—It was started in 1954 with 123 students under an Honorary Principal and four part-time lecturers and is located in the premises of Balkrishna High School, Ranchi. It is managed by a Governing Body, appointed by the Ranchi University, with the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, Ranchi, as its President. At present (1965) there are about 600 students with 15 members on the staff. It teaches only up to Degree standard.

MEDICINE.

Rajendra Medical College.—It is situated at Bariatu, 2 miles from Ranchi town and was opened on 1st September, 1960. Prior to this, 30 students of this college were being admitted in the Patna Medical College since 1955. It is a Government-sponsored college and from the 9th July, 1963 has been named Rajendra Medical College.

On the date of opening of the college there were 148 students with 16 members on teaching staff. As the hospital was not opened then, the practical classes were being held in the Ranchi Sadar Hospital which functioned as a College Hospital till November, 1964 when the College Hospital was opened at the new site at Bariatu. The number of students in 1965 was 759 with 68 members on teaching staff. The college and hospital are housed in impressive buildings with modern equipments. The number of patients, however, is small at present (1965) due to the co-existence of the Sadar Hospital.

ENGINEERING.

Birla Institute of Technology, Mesra.—With a view to meet the shortage of trained technical personnel in the country *vis-a-vis* the requirement of the Five-Year Plans, the Birla Institute of Technology was established in July 1955 at Mesra, 10 miles north of Ranchi town. It is an undertaking of the Hindusthan Charity Trust. Its campus is located in peaceful sylvan surroundings, extending over 500 acres. The main Institute building covers an area of over 200,000 sq. ft. comprising lecture

rooms, administrative block and various laboratories. The workshop annexe has a covered area of 30,000 sq. ft. The Heat Power Laboratory is accommodated in a separate annexe covering 6,000 sq. ft. There are at present (1965) seven hostels for students; one hostel for Post-graduate students and a central library are under construction. All staff members are provided with residential quarters*.

The Institute is open to students of all States in India and admission is on merit, each State or Union territory having its own quota. It was started with 132 students (66 students each in Electrical and Mechanical Sections) in 1955. The number was raised to 270 (90 in each of the courses, Electrical, Mechanical and Civil) during 1957-58. Later, in accordance with the Central Government's Scheme for further expansion, the number of seats has been increased to 300 (120 in Mechanical, and 90 each in Electrical and Civil Engineering) from the year 1963-64. Post-graduate courses of two years' duration have been started from July, 1964 with 5 students per year in each of the following courses : (*a*) Mechanical Engineering, (*b*) Electrical Engineering, and (*c*) Tele-Communication Engineering and also in the Diploma course in Space-Engineering and Rocketry. The total number of students in January, 1955, 1960 and 1965 was 132, 600 and 1,500 respectively. The teaching staff consists of the Principal assisted by 11 Professors, 30 Associate Professors and 96 Assistant Professors. The Administrative staff consists of the Registrar, Assistant Manager and Workshop Superintendent. It is a residential institution, affiliated to the Ranchi University. The staff and students are drawn from all over India.

There is a modern dispensary with two beds and a wholetime Medical Officer to look after the health of the inmates. It also treats the surrounding villages, free of charge. The practical training is given to students during vacations to consolidate and add to their understanding of engineering principles. Some junior staff are also sent for specialised training in industry to familiarise themselves with current trends and requirements of modern industry and put them in contact with live problems, to enable them to do effective teaching.

Industrial Schools.—An Industrial School was originally started at Ranchi with the assets of Chutia Fair Fund with the object of giving training in handicrafts to aboriginal youth. It was later transferred to the management of Government and classes for sub-overseers and motor mechanics were added to it. In 1915 there were 181 students in the sub-overseers class, 11 in motor mechanics class and 87 pupils in artisan class. Since then, considerable improvement has been made to the plants and machineries. A hostel building has also been constructed.

* SOURCE.—Prospectus of B. I. T., Mesra (1965)

Formerly there was a small Industrial School at Bundu, aided by the District Board, where 20 boys were taught blacksmithy and carpentry, but the school did not prove a success and was closed down later.

The Roman Catholic Mission maintains a Carpenters' Training School at Katkahi in Chainpur thana.

Ranchi Technical School.—It was established by the G.E.L. Mission at Ranchi in about 1866. At present (1965) there are 107 students under training. The school imparts five years' improved apprenticeship courses of training in the following trades : Carpentry, Pattern Making, Cabinet Making, Painting and Polishing, Moulding, Smith's Work, Fitting, Machining, Electrical Fitting or Electrical Wiring and Motor Mechanics. Every student is awarded a stipend on the following scale : 1st year—Rs. 12 per month; 2nd year—Rs. 14 per month; 3rd year—Rs. 16 per month; 4th year—Rs. 18 per month; 5th year—Rs. 22 per month.

The course comprises lectures in theory as well as craftsmanship training in the workshop. The medium of teaching is Hindi. The theoretical courses of instruction include Practical Mathematics, Elementary Science, Applied Mechanics, Heat Engine, Electricity, Workshop Process and Mechanical Drawing. On completion of the full period of training one of following certificates is awarded : (*a*) A Diploma to those who have undergone the full workshop training as well as full theoretical courses of instruction; (*b*) A Charge Hand's Certificate to those who have undergone the full workshop training as well as three years' theoretical course of instruction; and (*c*) A Journeyman's Certificate to those who have undergone the workshop training only. At present (1965) the school has 25 teachers and instructors under a Superintendent at its Head.

It started the training of War Technicians from the 2nd June, 1941, under the Government of India (Labour Department) Scheme and 12 blacksmiths, 36 fitters, and 12 turners were admitted. The scheme continued till 1944-45. On cessation of the war the training of War Technicians terminated and the training of Ex-Servicemen was started under the same scheme and 17 carpenters, three cabinet-makers, eight draftsmen (mechanical), 16 mechanical (general), five mechanics and four turners were admitted during 1946-47. This scheme continued till 1949-50. After the closure of Ex-Servicemen's training on the 31st March, 1950, Adult Civilian Trainees Classes and Displaced Persons Trainees Classes were started on 1st April, 1950 under Government of India, Ministry of Labour, Industrial Training Scheme. This centre imparts instructions to the trainees in blacksmithy, carpentry, draftsmanship (civil), draftsmanship (mechanical), fitter, and welding (electrical and gas).

The seating capacity in the technical trades at the Industrial Training Centre, under the Adult Civilian and Displaced Persons Training Scheme is at present (1965) as follows:—

Trade.	Adult civilian.	Displaced persons.
Blacksmith	16	Nil.
Carpenter	16	Nil.
Draftsmen (Civil)	16	Nil.
Draftsmen (Mechanical) ..	16	Nil.
Fitters	16	2
Welding (Electrical and Gas) ..	16	12
Turners	..	12
Total ..	96	26

The Ranchi School of Engineering.—This is a Government Polytechnic Institute opened in 1954 in the premises of the old Technical School for imparting a three-year Diploma course in Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineering. Initially admission was limited to 60 seats, which in 1958 was increased to 120 for Civil and 30 each for Mechanical and Electrical Engineering. In 1963 the school introduced a two-year Diploma course, replacing the old one with an increase of 70 seats, the total number of seats being 250. The branchwise break-up of seats was : Civil—120; Electrical—65 and Mechanical—65.

The following table shows the progress of this school :—

	1954	1955	1960	1965
Students ..	60	100	180	640
Staff ..	6	11	22	35

Printing Apprenticeship.—Technical training is provided for apprentices in printing at the G.E.L. Press, founded in 1873.

The Catholic Press, Ranchi, founded by the Jesuits in 1930, has trained local people in modern printing technology and at present (1967) also provides work for about 130 people*.

Technical Training Centre, Fudi.—The G.E.L. Mission started this centre in 1963 at Fudi, 10 miles south of Ranchi. It is a training-*cum*-production undertaking and provides a two years' course for 16 boys in each of its three sections : wood, metal and buildings†.

* Rev. Fr. C. Bulke, S.J.,: Monograph, 1967.

† *Ibid.*

Embroidery.

Lace-making and Needle-work School.—In 1907 the Ursuline sisters started a lace-making and needle-work centre to provide work for widows and poor girls. Sister establishments have been functioning over the last few decades at Khunti, Tongo, Rengarih, Noatoli and Samtoli. The Ranchi Embroidery Centre at present (1967) provides employment for 210 women. The S.P.G. Mission has also been running a lace-making centre at Ranchi since 1908*. These centres also impart training to aboriginal and other girls in lace works, sewing, tailoring and weaving.

The Industries Department of State Government runs Women's Industrial School at Ranchi. A doll-making-*cum*-training centre is also maintained by Government. Both these institutions are popular. The Usha Sewing Machine Company also runs sewing classes at Ranchi.

Domestic Science.

Grihini Schools.—In order to prepare village girls for their future role as wives and mothers, the Catholic Mission has started eight centres under its *Grihini School Programme*. The course lasts normally five months, and the subjects taught are cooking, sewing, laundry work, child-care, house-keeping, vegetable-growing, hygiene, folk-songs, etc. There are about 30 to 45 aboriginal girls in each of these centres†.

Fine Arts.

Music and Dancing Centres.—Though there is no recognised institution for music, dance and drama, there are a few local parties, clubs and schools in the district which promote these arts. The Kharia party of Gumla, Baghma party, Munda party, Kanke Dhumkuria, etc., are some of the centres of tribal culture and stimulate indigenous folk dance‡. Geetali Jantri Sangha and Surashree have popularised dances and music through teaching. The Chota Nagpur Girls' High School has been holding vocal music classes since long. The Doranda Girls' High School has also got a music class. The Bishop Westcott School, Namkum has, of late, opened a section for imparting education in dance and music. An organisation known as 'Baitalik' holds classes in Balika Shiksha Bhawan for Rabindra Sangeet and instrumental music. The Bihar Sangeet Shiksha Bhawan has also been holding classes for vocal music. The "Nadi Academy" for dance has now opened two separate schools, one in Lalpur and the other on the Kanke Road. In the Russian Hostel of the Heavy Engineering Corporation, arrangement has been made to impart

* Rev. Fr. C. Bulke, S.J. : Monograph, 1967.

† *Ibid.*

‡ A party of folk-artists from this district was sent under the auspices of the Bihar Academy of Dance, Drama and Music in January, 1957 to participate in the Republic Day Celebration in New Delhi, and was awarded the second prize.

education in dance. The Tagore Society of Ranchi has opened a music section recently. The All-India Radio, Ranchi since its inception in 1961, has been encouraging tribal songs, classical music and Rabindra Sangeet. The Welfare Centre is the main place for holding musical performances and dramas at Ranchi.

Oriental Studies.

Oriental Schools and Colleges.—Teaching in oriental institutions is based on traditional pattern and generally Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian and Urdu come within its purview. In recent times teaching of Sanskrit has somewhat been reoriented to suit the modern requirements by inclusion of Hindi, English, history and other humanities. One Sanskrit *tol* had existed in Ranchi town since before 1915 and received aid from the Municipality and Government.

In 1920 late Rai Saheb Ganpatrai Budhia established a small Sanskrit *Pathshala* in Ranchi. Later it developed into a college. In October, 1953 this college was handed over to Government and named Ganpat Government Sanskrit College. It has at present (1965) 11 lecturers and 35 students. They receive free education and lodging in the hostel. The college maintains a library with 3,200 books. The students of the Radhakrishna Government Sanskrit High School also get free education and lodging. At present (1965) it has 106 students and 7 teachers and a library containing 630 volumes.

Prior to 1915 there were 37 *Madarsas* and 28 *Maktabs* which received aid from Government and District Board. These were for imparting special education to the Muhammadans. Later, these institutions became defunct or amalgamated with Primary schools for general education. One Seraj-ul-Islam Madarsa, recognised as Urdu Primary School had existed at Ranchi since long and was raised to the Middle Vernacular standard. This is aided by the Municipality and Government. In 1965, it had 66 pupils and 5 teachers, all trained.

Yogoda Satsang Vidyalaya.—This was founded in 1917 by Shri Paramhansa Yoganandaji. It is a Junior High school recognised by the Board of Secondary Education, Bihar, the medium of instruction being Bengali. It is mainly a residential school, located in the campus of the Yogoda Satsang Society at old Hazaribagh Road. It aims to bring about a synthesis between the spiritual vision of the East and the scientific practicality of the West. Starting with eight students and five teachers in 1917, the school has at present (1965) 87 students and 14 teachers. Physical training, excursion and initiation to *Yoga* (concentration) are important features of its curriculum.

Education for the Handicapped.

St. Michael's Blind School.—The S. P. G. Mission founded this in Ranchi town in 1898 with 12 students. It is meant both for boys and girls of school age. In morning the students attend the Middle school and in afternoon they are taught cane work, weaving, tailoring, embroidery and knitting. The school has a library. The total number of students in 1967 was 67, another 16 students were living outside the premises*.

Deaf-Dumb School.—There is a school for the deaf and dumb at Nibaranpur, known as 'Kshitish Deaf and Dumb School'.

Social Education.

Adult Literacy.—As elsewhere in the State, adult literacy campaign was sponsored in this district during 1938-39 by the contemporary popular Government for the promotion of literacy among the uneducated mass. During the World War (1939—45) the movement became defunct; but in 1950, it was revived with emphasis on dissemination of useful knowledge among common people. Mobile *'Mod Mandalis'* and *'Yatra parties'* in countryside impart recreation-*cum*-teaching through *Kathas, Kirtans Bhajans'*, folk dance and dramas, etc.

Grants for purchase of books, musical instruments and equipments for holding literary and cultural classes are also given. There were altogether 428 social education centres including 72 for females in 1961 in the district and 10,050 males and 2,392 females were made literate. However, since 1963-64 this scheme has been put in abeyance in Bihar, though the post of lady social organisers numbering 20 in 1965 has been retained in the district.

Physical Education.—Almost all the High schools and some of the Middle schools have made provision for drill and organised games. Many of the High schools have physical instructors also. There is a Deputy Superintendent of Physical Education for the district, who is incharge of organising games and physical activities in all the Secondary schools including Middle and Basic schools. To foster the spirit of sportsmanship amongst the students many schools arrange inter-class and inter-school competitions in games. Government often sanction monetary grants to various indigenous *Akharas* and *Vyayamshalas* in the district. Three gymnasium centres are maintained in Ranchi town—one by the Union Club and Library, second by Ranchi Municipality in the Bari Park, and the third by J. M. Sen-Gupta Memorial Club of Ranchi. Besides, about 75 smaller *Vyayamshalas* are also maintained in the district.

Scouts and Girl Guides.—During 1950 the Scouts as well as Hindusthan Scouts were amalgamated and function now as the Bharat Scouts and Girl-guides' Association and are affiliated to the State organisation, having headquarters at Patna.

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* Rev. Fr. C. Bulcke, S.J.: Monograph, 1967.

The scouts render services in *melas* and fairs. But with the expansion of the National Cadet Corps and the Auxiliary Cadet Corps the number of scouts has diminished. At present (1965), Ranchi Women's College has 400 girl-guides and the Government Girls' Higher Secondary School, Chota Nagpur Girls' High School, Doranda Girls' High School and the Bethesda Girls' High School have girl-guides numbering 50 each.

Auxiliary Cadet Corps and National Cadet Corps.—The Auxiliary Cadet Corps is running in almost all the High schools in the district except the St. Paul's High School and the Marwari Higher Secondary School. This unit is meant for school boys only. All the High schools and colleges in the district (except the Marwari and Doranda colleges) have National Cadet Corps. This Corps imparts military training to students and is divided into two units, namely, Senior Division and Junior Division. The former is meant for college students and the latter for school students only. In Ranchi there are headquarters of the 3rd, 19th and 43rd Bihar Battalions; 3rd Girls' Battalion; and 2nd Air-Squadron of the National Cadet Corps under an Assistant Administrative Officer, N.C.C., Chota Nagpur Division. At present (1965), in the Senior Division of National Cadet Corps there are 33 officers with 5,700 cadets and in the Junior Division 31 officers with 1,600 cadets. As regards the Auxiliary Cadet Corps there are altogether 5,760 cadets (of whom 900 are girls) under 96 teachers or platoons.

Bihar Youth Hostels Association, Ranchi Branch.—It came into existence on October 2, 1953, merging its fore-runner the Cyclists' Association of Ranchi in it. It is exclusively an educational and cultural organisation, fully secular in character. Its individual membership is open to students and staff, of either sex, of recognised educational institutions in the district as also to institutions themselves. Its objects are—

(*i*) to open youth hostels all over the district of Ranchi, particularly in places noted as beauty spots and also those important from historical, cultural and industrial points of view, to provide simple, overnight sleeping accommodation at nominal charges for hostellers, who walk on foot or travel on ordinary cycle and thus enable them to supplement their class-room education by travel;

(*ii*) to develop a sense of adventure and endurance in young people by encouraging them to go on exploration and mountaineering; and

(*iii*) to bring the youth of this district in contact with those in other parts of the country and abroad and thus help them develop their cultural outlook.

Among its activities the following may particularly be mentioned: (*a*) Inter-School General Knowledge Competition; (*b*) Inter-School and Inter-College Debates; (*c*) Inter-School Cultural Competitions (e.g., poetry recitation, drama. music, etc.); (*d*) Excursions and Camps; (*e*) Long Distance Cycling. Apart from Government Youth Hostel at Hundru falls, there are a number of youth hostels, mostly located in the premises of High schools.

Bihar Mountaineering Association, Ranchi Branch.—The Ranchi Branch of the Association came into existence in 1966 with a view to popularise mountaineering in this district, particularly in educational institutions. Its current programme includes long route marches, imparting training to students in rock climbing and sponsoring them for basic and advance courses in mountaineering in the Himalayas.

Ranchi Football and Athletic Association.—This was organised in 1950 and is affiliated to the Bihar State Sports Association. It gives affiliation to sports, clubs and teams of the district and sponsors football tournament. It receives grants from the State Youth Welfare Fund and also from the Commissioner, Chota Nagpur division.

Clubs.

Union Club.—It was started in 1886 as Chota Nagpur Club and was amalgamated with the Union Library (Established 1884) in 1911, the new organisation being renamed as Union Club and Library. It is located on Hazaribagh Road. Its membership is open to all, though it is mainly patronised by the Bengali community. Besides 70 life members, it has at present (1965) about 400 members. It provides for billiards, ping-pong, carrom, tennis and badminton and a gymnasium within its premises. Among outdoor activities, it participates in football, cricket and hockey tournaments. It also organises cultural functions, particularly one on the occasion of Saraswati Puja.

Hinoo Friends' Union Club.—This was started on 12th February, 1914. At present (1965) it has 150 members with average daily attendance of 50. It provides for indoor games, e.g., cards, chess, table-tennis, etc.

Ranchi Club.—It is an old club, situated on the main road of Ranchi town. Traditionally it has been patronised by Civil and Military Officers of high standing. Now many officers of public undertakings as also gentry of upper classes are its members. It provides for indoor games.

Bihari Club.—It is an old club and is located on Katchery Road. It is mainly patronised by middle class Bihari residents of the town. It provides for game of cards.

St. Joseph Club.—It is located at Purulia Road. Membership is open to Christians only. It provides for football, hockey and other outdoor games as also some indoor games, e.g., ping-pong, cards, etc.

Chota Nagpur Athletic Association.—It was established in 1911 and conducts football tournaments in Ranchi town. It has a tennis section also.

Other Clubs.—Among other clubs of Ranchi, the following may be mentioned : (*i*) Star Club; (*ii*) Ranchi Football Club; (*iii*) Chota Nagpur Blues; (*iv*) Hira Nagpur Club. They are mainly sports organisations, specialising in football and hockey. Mostly young men of Ranchi town are their members.

At present (1967), there are three special types of clubs at Ranchi, namely : (*i*) Rifle Club; (*ii*) Crime Club and (*iii*) Film Club. They are of recent origin and their members are mostly from amongst the well-to-do classes. The object of Rifle Club is to give training in musketry to their members, mainly as a measure of self-defence. The Crime Club has so far organised some lectures on modern trends in crimes with a view to counteract their incidence. The Film Club intends screening foreign films of repute at the earliest opportunity after their release to their members.

Y.M.C.A.|*Y.W.C.A.* (*Young Men's and Women's Christian Association*).—They are local units of international organisation, aiming to promote the art of living, co-operative working, games and sports and other recreational activities. Their membership is open to all. The Y.W.C.A. also runs a small hostel for college girls at Purulia Road to provide accommodation to them on modest charges.

Recreation Club, Dhurwa.—This was started on 23rd March, 1965 for the employees of the Heavy Engineering Corporation, Hatia. It provides for cultural and sports activities, a library with a reading room and a ladies' wing.

Rotary Club.—It was started in November, 1954 and is a unit of the International Rotary. Membership is restricted to the representatives of trades and professions. They meet once a week and discuss matters of common interest. Sometimes, lectures, cultural performances, film shows, etc., are also organised by the club.

Lions Club.—It was started in 1959 and like Rotary is a unit of an international organisation, but its membership is individual, though activities are similar to those of the Rotary. It has two branches, namely, Ranchi South and Ranchi North.

Theatre Group.—The Hindusthan Steel Co. have organised a theatre group, which occasionally stages drama and admits public also to its shows.

Apart from the Y.W.C.A., which is exclusively meant for women, the rest of the clubs, referred to above, are for men. However, the Rotary and the Lions Club also invite the wives of their members. At Ranchi Club also the wives of members may participate in its activities. In view of the growth of modern education and women joining offices and professions, club amenities are in great demand by them. Further, from the nature of the clubs it would be apparent that few of them cater for the social amenities of middle classes.

Cultural, Literary and Scientific Societies.

The educational institutions, particularly the Ranchi University, and its constituents, have founded several societies, each related to particular subjects taught or patronised by them, within their respective campus. Primarily they are meant for the students and staff of individual institutions, though their role in the cultural enrichment of society at large may also be appreciable.

Among the public literary societies, the following may specially be mentioned:—

Tagore Society.—This was founded in Ranchi town in 1958, mainly to propagate the ideals of poet Rabindra Nath Tagore through the medium of lectures, literary seminars, musical and theatrical performances. It also maintains a music school for the purpose of imparting training in *Rabindra Sangeet.*

Scientific Societies.

The Indian Lac Research Institute, Namkum.*—It is a research organization exclusively devoted to lac. It functions under the Indian Lac Cess Committee, a statutory body controlled by the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India. It was started in 1925 with the object of carrying out investigations for effecting improvements in the methods of cultivation and manufacture of lac. Later, its scope was widened to include measures for the better utilization and marketing of lac. Researches carried out since then have resulted, *inter alia,* in improved methods of cultivation and manufacture of seedlac and bleached lac, as also recovery of by-products. A few other notable achievements are : the autoclave process, improved types of water-soluble lac varnishes, plastic moulded articles, insulating materials, etch primer, protective coating for works of art, photo-mounting tissue paper, etc., all based on lac. Practical assistance to manufacturers and consumers in the form of free technical advice is also provided. The Institute has done considerable work of importance to trade and industry in the field of analysis, standardization and grading of lac.

* Source.—*Lac and Lac Products*, published by Indian Lac Research Institute, Namkum, Ranchi, p. 1.

Regional Lac Analytical Laboratories have been set up in different important lac-processing centres in the country with a view to helping manufacturers produce goods of standard quality. Similarly, Field Research Stations have been set up in different regions to study the regional problems in lac production as also to explore the possibilities of potential lac hosts. Practical advantages of french-polishing furniture are being demonstrated at a centre in Delhi, and a few similar centres elsewhere.

Bihar Tribal Research Institute.—It was established in 1953 by the State Government and is under the administrative control of the Welfare Department. It is located at the northern extremity of Morabadi, Ranchi. Its main activities concern researches on customs, languages and pattern of social behaviour of the tribal population of Bihar, with a view to advise Government on formulation of welfare measures for the tribals. The enquiries relating to the cultural pattern of the tribals, their social and ethical values, the psychological needs which motivate them, the morphology and phonetics of the languages spoken, the effects of acculturation on their physical well-being, and finally intake of food which influence their pattern of growth fall within its purview.

In early years of its existence it was engaged in making preliminary reconnaissance survey of the primitive tribes living in different parts of the State. A small collection of ethnographical specimens, illustrating the life of the people was gathered to form the nucleus of a museum. Short field surveys on some pressing problems affecting the tribal people were also made. Its publications include "Land and People of Tribal Bihar", besides several brochures and papers. The Institute is intended to provide a medium for the officers of the State Government and social workers engaged in welfare work in tribal areas to receive systematic training in applied anthropology and social psychology, their knowledge being essential for them to give a correct psychological approach to tribal problems.

Regional Agricultural Research Institute.—The campus of the Ranchi Agriculture College also accommodates this Research Institute. The Principal of the College is also its Director. The Regional Deputy Director of Agriculture, Chota Nagpur, controls and co-ordinates the Agricultural Research Projects. The Institute is manned by a number of specialists. Its main object is to carry out researches to tackle the agricultural problems of Chota Nagpur. The subjects of investigation under different sections are as follows*:—

Agronomy.—The section carries out field trials in the district farms and the cultivator's plots in addition to the Kanke Farm with a view to determining optimum cultural conditions for

* SOURCE.—*Agricultural Education and Research in Ranchi*, published by Ranchi Agriculture College, Kanke, 1961, pp. 14—17.

the cultivation of rice, wheat, maize, millet, pulses and oil-seeds and for demarcating the suitability of the improved varieties of the principal crops evolved by the crop specialists in different areas of the region. The section is in charge of an Assistant Agronomist and was working from before the establishment of the Institute.

Agrostology.—The section is engaged in collection and trial of both indigenous and exotic grasses and legumes from the point of view of high fodder yield and soil conservation purposes. Suitable combination of grass legume mixtures and various agronomical practices towards the above are also under investigation. The section is in charge of an Agrostologist.

Plant Breeding.—The section comprises of: (*i*) rice, (*ii*) pulses, (*iii*) oil-seed, and (*iv*) maize and millet. The objective of the section is to evolve high yielding varieties of rice, pulses, oil-seeds, maize and millets suited to Chota Nagpur Region. The pulses work is under a Pulses Specialist while the work on rice and oil-seed under an Assistant Rice Specialist and an Assistant Oil-seeds Specialist respectively.

Crop Physiology.—The section conducts trials on the major cereal crops like rice, maize and wheat with various hormones and growth principles by different methods of application. Utility of soaking seed in hormones and nutrients and foliar spray of the hormones and fertilizers is also studied. The problem of drought resistance in wheat from the point of view of identifying an index for drought is also under investigation. Work on potatoes and cotton on the above lines has also been started. The section is also engaged in preparing a key for identification of deficiency symptoms of various plant nutrients by visual methods. It is in charge of a Crop Physiologist.

Agricultural Engineering.—The section undertakes designing, testing and standardization of agricultural implements, such as ploughs, harrows, hoes, seed-drills, pumps and other labour saving essential devices suited to different conditions of the region. It is in charge of an Assistant Agricultural Engineer.

Fruit and Vegetable Research.—This section has been created with a view to concentrate on finding suitable cultural and manurial practices for the various fruits and vegetable crops. It has also to evolve high yielding and better quality fruits and demarcate suitable areas for the different varieties so evolved. It is in charge of an Assistant Professor of Horticulture.

Plant Pathology.—The section deals with the investigation of the diseases of agricultural and horticultural crops with a view to developing suitable control measures. It is in charge of an Assistant Plant Pathologist.

Entomology.—Investigation of habits, habitat and life cycles of various insect pests of agricultural and horticultural crops as well as stored commodities together with the determination of suitable control measures for the control of these pests form the main work of this section. It is in charge of an Assistant Entomologist.

Agricultural Chemistry and Soil Research.—Research on soil husbandry practices, chemical constitution of crops and determination of optimum manurial and lime requirements of various crops in the region form the main work of this section. It is in charge of a Soil Chemist assisted by an Assistant Agricultural Chemist.

Cultural, Literary and Scientific Periodicals.

The Appendix III to this chapter gives a list of 12 periodicals and magazines printed and published during 1963-64 in Ranchi district. Not many of them may strictly be classed within the category of cultural, literary and scientific periodicals. At present (1965) there are 31 printing presses in Ranchi, but most of them have nothing to do with journalism or production of literary or scientific periodicals. The 'Gharbandhu' is the oldest periodical and is devoted to religious matters. Next oldest was the "Church Messenger" which has since become defunct. All the current publications of the church are religious in contents. Some periodicals, e.g., 'Industrial Ranchi' and magazine issued from Ranchi Agriculture College, Kanke have some scientific bias, but they are of recent origin and have small circulation.

An analysis of Appendix III gives the following classifications with respective circulation of the periodicals and magazines of the district:—

Classification of publication.	Number.	Approx. circulation (of one issue).
1. Religious	6	18,965
2. Literary and cultural ..	11	11,690
3. Scientific periodcals ..	4	3,250

The church papers account for about 55 per cent of circulation. They are all monthlies and their *per capita* consumption is more than of other papers. They have their own press to assure the punctuality of publication and a network of distribution through the church agency all over the district. There are 11 papers almost wholly devoted to literary and cultural topics, but except for one their circulation figures are unimpressive. Few of them are regular. Some of them are multilingual also. These papers have little commercial prospect. There are only three periodicals which may boast of scientific bias, but their circulation is very limited. General lack of resources and unresponsive readership militate against the longevity of magazines and periodicals brought out by agencies other than the church.

Appendix IV gives a list of scientific periodicals printed at the Catholic Press, Ranchi for various organisations, public and private, all over the country. While this suggests excellence of printing and dependability of the above press and employment and training of local personnel, these periodicals and magazines are not for local consumption; they are despatched in toto to the publishers concerned. It may be that some copies of these magazines are subscribed to by local institutions and individuals*.

Public Libraries, Museums, Botanical and Zoological Gardens.

British Council Library, Ranchi.—It was inaugurated on 25th March, 1962 and is located near the Ranchi Club, off the main road. It has a spacious reading hall with all modern amenities. The current membership (1968) is about 1,800 and the annual subscription is Rs. 10. There are about 16,000 volumes, all English. Besides, a large number of British newspapers and periodicals are also available.

District State Library, Ranchi.—It was established in 1953 and is under the direct control of the Education Department, Bihar. In 1965 it had 1,233 members. In 1964-65 the average monthly circulation of books was 893 and monthly attendance of readers 1,422. It is housed in its own building constructed at a cost of Rs. 55,000 and employs a staff of about 15. It has a spacious reading room and also a children's corner. A mobile unit is attached to the library and moves all over the district. At present (1967) the library has 14,640 volumes in Sanskrit, Hindi, English, Bengali and Urdu and subscribes to 64 newspapers and periodicals†. This library imparts one month's Librarian's Training Course. In 1964-65 there were 40 trainees, of whom 30 received a stipend of Rs. 10 each.

Union Club Library.—The Union Club Library is the oldest in the district. It was started in 1884 with 36 members. It has more than 20,000 books in Bengali and English and subscribes to most of the leading journals of the country. On average 50 readers visit it daily.

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* Also *see* 'Newspapers and periodicals' in Chapter 'Public Life and Voluntary Social Services Organisations'.

† Source.—The List of Libraries, 1967, issued by the Superintendent of Libraries, Bihar.

The Hinoo Friends' Union Club Library was started in 1914. A reading room with several dailies and periodicals have been provided. The library has now English and Bengali books numbering about 8,000. The monthly circulation of books on average comes to 650.

The Santulal Pustakalaya was established in 1926 in the Upper Bazar, Ranchi. At present (1965) it has 300 members. It has a reading room and subscribes to newspapers and magazines. About 200 persons attend it daily.

The Sarvajanik Pustakalaya at Doranda was opened in 1938 by the 'Doranda Natya Sankirtan Samiti'. At present (1965) the library has 133 members and 5,008 books.

The J. M. Sen Gupta Memorial Library in Ranchi town was established in 1939. At present (1965) it has 500 books.

The Sharda Pustakalaya, Khunti, was established in 1948. It has 40 members and about 2,500 books.

The Gumla Public Library is situated at Gumla. It has 25 members and 880 books.

The Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Simdega, was founded in 1964. At present (1965) it has 46 members and 348 books.

The other public libraries are included in Appendix II.

Museums.—There is no large-size public museum in this district. In the campus of the Raj Bhavan, adjacent to Audrey House, some exhibits connected with the martyrs of 1857 revolt are kept. The Tribal Research Institute, Ranchi has a small museum, containing objects related to tribal life.

The private collections of anthropological specimens by late S. C. Roy is housed in his home on Church Road, Ranchi*.

Botanical Gardens.—This district has no public botanical garden.

The gardens maintained by the Agriculture College and the Kanke Agriculture Farm are utilised for imparting training to the students and for research work.

Zoological Garden.—There is no zoological garden in the district.

Script.

Prior to British rule, the script in use in this district was *Devanagari*, as found in the inscriptions on temples†. The British administration, however, divided official correspondence and court documents in two

* He also helped organise the anthropological section in the Museum at Patna.

† *See* Temples (*Infra*).

categories, namely, English and Vernacular*. The script for English correspondence was, of course, Roman; but that for vernacular offices and routine court-matters, e.g., summons, etc., was Urdu. Introduction of Urdu appears to be a historical incident inasmuch as the scribes, clerks and registration officers who came to Ranchi from Sherghati and Chatra and registration officers who came to Ranchi from Sherghati and Chatra on it becoming the headquarters of the district, were traditionally versed in Persian and Urdu and therefore, began to use Urdu script.

Prior to 1881, all vernacular office papers were ordinarily written in the Urdu character. The Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, ordered in a letter dated the 30th June, 1880, that from the 1st July, 1881, the Nagari or Kaithi character should be exclusively used in all the courts and offices of the districts of Hazaribagh, Lohardaga and Singhbhum with the exception of Dhalbhum, in the manner prescribed in the Government resolution, dated 13th April, 1880†. Indirectly this circular also helped promote the cause of Hindi.

Men of Letters.

Among the men of letters of this district who achieved distinction, late Sarat Chandra Roy, was a pioneer in the field of anthropological research. Among his works in English the following may be mentioned:—(*i*) Kharias, (*ii*) Mundas and their Country and (*iii*) Oraons of Chota Nagpur.

The contribution‡ of the missionaries in the linguistic and academic fields has been of considerable importance. When they first came to Ranchi, no written literature existed in any of the tribal languages of the district and neither grammars nor dictionaries were available. Due to this fact, they adopted Hindi in their contacts with the aboriginals and made it the medium of instruction in their schools, thus contributing in no small measure to the spread of Hindi in the district. They began studying the local languages and produced a whole series of scientific works on this subject. Among these, pride of place must be given to Father J. Hoffmann's ENCYCLOPAEDIA MUNDARICA, VOL. I–XIII**.

* The present General Administration Section of Collectorate was formerly known as "English Office" while the papers of departments of comparatively lesser importance from administrative point of view were kept in "Vernacular Office".

† *Final Report on Survey and Settlement Operations in the District of Ranchi* (1902—10), p. 41.

‡ Rev. Fr. Dr. C. Bulcke, S.J.: Monograph, 1967.

** Published by the Government of Bihar, Patna, 1930—41.

The 23rd International Congress of Orientalists (Cambridge, 1954) passed a resolution of congratulation on the completion of this work.

The important linguistic publications by Ranchi missionaries are listed below*:—

J. C. WHITLEY : *Mundari Primer,* Calcutta, 1873.

A. NOTTROTT : *Mundari Grammar,* 1882.

J. DE SMET, S.J. : *Rudiments of Mundari Grammar, Calcutta,* 1891.

E. H. WHITLEY : *Notes on the Ganwari Dialect of Lohardaga,* Calcutta, 1896. The second edition, printed in 1914, is entitled *Notes on Nagpuria Hindi.*

J. HOFFMANN, S.J. : *Mundari First Reader,* 1896.

A. NOTTROTT : *Mundari Bible,* 1881—1899.

F. HANN : *Kurukh* (Oraon) Grammar, Bengal Secretariat Press, Calcutta, 1900.

F. HANN : *Kurukh-English Dictionary,* Calcutta, 1903.

J. HOFFMANN, S.J. : *Mundari Grammar* (222 pp). Bengal Secretariat Press, Calcutta, 1903.

F. HANN : *Kurukh Folklore,* Calcutta, 1905.

REV. WAGNER : *Kolarian Riddles,* 1906.

J. HOFFMANN, S.J. : *A Mundari Grammar with exercises.* Pt. I (74 pp.) and Pt. II (147 pp.), Calcutta, 1907.

F. HANN : *Oraon Gospels* Bible Society, Calcutta, 1911.

A. GRIGNARD, S.J. : *An Oraon-English Dictionary* (697 pp.). Anthropos, Vienna, 1924.

A. GRIGNARD, S.J. : *A Grammar of the Oraon Language* (311 pp.), Calcutta, 1924.

A. GRIGNARD, S.J. : *Hahn's Oraon Folklore in the Original.* A critical text with translation and notes. Bihar Government Press, Patna, 1931.

H. FLOOR, S.J. AND G. DRUART, S.J. : *Dictionary of the Kharia Language* (125 pp.) Calcutta, 1934.

C. BULCKE, S.J. : *A Technical English Hindi Glossary,* Ranchi, 1955.

C. BLESES, S.J. : *An English-Oraon Dictionary, Ranchi,* 1956.

P. S. NOWRANGI, S.J. : *A Simple Sadani Grammar,* Ranchi, 1956, Reworked in Hindi as *Nagpuriya Sadani Boli ka vyakarana,* Ranchi 1965.

P. S. NOWRANGI, S.J. : *A Sadani Reader,* Vol. I, Ranchi 1957. Its second volume is entitled *Nagpuriya (Sadani) Sahitya.*

* Rev. Fr. Dr. C. Bulcke, S.J : Monograph, 1967.

C. BULCKE, S.J. : *A Concise English-Hindi Dictionary* (900 pp.), Ranchi, 1967.

Some other cultural and scientific studies by Ranchi missionaries are as follows*:—

P. DEHON, S.J. : *Customs of the Oraons.* Memoirs of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. I, pp. 121—181, Calcutta, 1906.

J. HOFFMANN, S.J. : *Mundari Poetry, Music and Dances.* Memoirs of the A.S.B., Vol. II, pp. 88—120.

J. BRESSERS, S.J. : *Botany of the Ranchi District.* Ranchi, 1951.

C. BULCKE, S.J. : *Rama-katha : Utpatti aur Vikas.* Hindi Parishad, Allahabad University. 1st Ed. 1951; 2nd Ed. 1962.

P. EKKA, S.J. : *The Tana Bhagats.* (A study in social change). Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the University of Oxford in 1966.

Of the officers, who worked in this district, the following may be mentioned for their works, noted against each:—

Col. E. T. Dalton†—*Ethnography of Bengal,* 1872; John Reid‡—*Final Report on Survey and Settlement Operations in Ranchi;* 1902—10; E. Lister**—*District Gazetteer of Hazaribagh,* 1917; M. G. Hallett§—*District Gazetteer of Ranchi,* 1917; E. F. Taylor@—*Final Report on Revisional Survey and Settlement of Ranchi,* 1928—35; and W. G. Archer***—*Blue Grove* and other works on Oraon folk songs.

Among the native poets late Buddhu Babu is remembered in the region of Panch Parganas where his poetry in Bengali is recited$. Swami Vedantanand has written in Bengali on the philosophy of Ramkrishna Paramhansa.

Radha Krishna has made contributions to Hindi literature in the field of novels. Yogendra Nath Sinha has depicted forest life in the form of short stories in Hindi.

* Rev. Fr. Dr. C. Bulcke, S.J.: Monograph, 1967.

† Commissioner, Chota Nagpur (1857—1875).

‡ First S. D. O., Gumla (1902); Settlement Officer, Ranchi (1907—1910).

** Settlement Officer, Ranchi (1902—1907).

§ Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi (1915); later Governor of Bihar and then Governor of U. P.

@ Settlement Officer, Ranchi.

*** S. D. O., Gumla.

$ *See* Bahar Kundi in Chapter "Places of Interest" (*Infra*).

Cultural Assimilation.

We have seen that Ranchi district is multi-lingual as well as multi-racial*. Till about the middle of the 19th century it was but a sleepy tract of country, almost unknown to the world outside. Ranchi proper itself was then no more than a tiny obscure village. In course of about a century the district has passed from pastoral stage to one of industrial civilisation, at the apex of which we find a most sophisticated, cosmopolitan society. It presents a panorama of humanity rich in colour and variety. While the nomadic Birhors are still in the hunting stage of civilisation, at the other extreme are people who command all affluence that science and technology can provide. Not only almost all tribes and communities of India are present in this district, but the World at large is also in evidence here, each with its individual culture and outlook. In the midst of diversity, some thread of cultural unity has always been discernible. The process of cultural assimilation has been at work here for over a millenium and among various factors, the contribution of temples has been significant. A brief introduction to old temples and ruins is given below†:—

Temples of Panchparganas.‡—The temples in Ranchi district, historically or architecturally, fall into two distinct categories : the 'Orissan' complex of temples in Panchpargana and the 'Vaishnav' group of temples. The temples of Panchpargana are supposed to be historically the oldest in the district. This region has been a confluence of two major streams of culture : the so-called Hindu influence, both pre-Vaishnav and Vaishnav from the adjoining regions of Purulia and Seraikela and the tribal (Munda). The temples are scattered over the banks of the rivers Kanchi and Karkari along which the Hindu influence penetrated into this Munda region. In 1871 E. T. Dalton, Commissioner of Chota Nagpur, on his way from Bundu to Chokahatu came upon "very old looking ruins of stone temples, eight in number, apparently dedicated to Siva" on the right bank of Kanchi." He noticed "several *lingas* about as the only visible object of worship". The temples were mere "ruins, built of cut stone, square and put together without any cement or clamps"; "no one in the neighbourhood" had the "faintest notions by whom or at what period, these shrines were constructed". These shrines might have been those now standing at Buradih, Haradih, Bamla,

* *See* the Chapter on "People".

† The descriptions of temples are based on a monograph by Dr. Kumar Suresh Singh.

‡ The geographical region consisting of Bundu, Silli, Tamar, Baranda and Raha.

Diuri, Palna, Pandadih, etc. Remains of temples and images have also been found in adjoining parts of Singhbhum and *tarai* of Tamar. Probably these temples could be ascribed to the Pala period (11th-12th century). These were the focii of pre-Vaishnav influence, or Shiva-Shakti-Surya cults in the region. These temples scattered over the entire plains of Panchpargana, adjoining Purulia (West Bengal) and parts of present Singhbhum have been influenced by the canons of medieval Orissan architecture. The *Rekha* temple at Telkupi and the ruined brick temple at Boram in the Purulia district and similar temples at Icha and Kera in Singhbhum are some representative specimens. The temples of Panchpargana are only a continuation of Orissan architectural type. Two temples almost intact still stand at Haradih and Diuri, both in Tamar. A brief introduction to the temples of Panchpargana is given below:—

Burhadih Temples.—A couple of temples stand at Haradih, though popularly they are known as Burhadih temple flanked by the villages of Darubera and Badla (both in Tamar) and Heth Burhadih (Bundu) on a mound overlooking the Kanchi river. They are probably the only perfect specimens of *Rekha* type of Orissan temple architecture surviving almost intact in this region. There were a large number of Shiva-phallic images in these sacred precincts till some years ago; now most of these have been removed by inhabitants of adjoining villages. Still ten of these remain. The main basalt image of *Mahamaya* (as popularly called) or mother Goddess, about three cubit high, seated on the lion seat, is attractive. The smaller image is that of *"Mahisasur-mardini"* in the well-known posture of killing *Mahisasur* in the form of a he-buffalo. On the other bank of the river are to be found remains of a similar temple which contains the main image of a Sun-God, carrying two sun-flowers, and embedded up to the upper leg in a chariot to which seven horses are yoked. There is also an image of what is popularly known as *"Chaturbhuji"*, the four-armed Mother Goddess*.

Diuri Temples.—The temple at Diuri, about two miles from Tamar, has three closed windows. It contains the image of the sixteen-armed Mother Goddess, popularly known as

* Also *see*, D. R. Patil's *Antiquarian Remains in Bihar*, 1963, p. 160.

In 1944 A. Ghosh noticed on the site, ruins of "not less than twenty" temples, "their bare plinths and fallen fragments of *amalakas* or *pinnacles*". He also observed "two basalt architectural fragments, a door-gamute and a lintel with *Gaja-Lakshmi* and a residential brick structure".

Solahbhuji Devi, flanked by Shiva on the top, and Saraswati and Lakshmi, Kartikeya and Ganesh on the sides. The deity has ornaments such as necklace, *kardhani* (on waist), earrings and bracelets sculptured on her. One of her hands is in the pose of expressing blessing while other hands hold *gada,* bow, sword, *chakra, damru, trisula, dhal,* arrow, flower, etc. According to local tradition one Munda Raja of Kera (Singhbhum) on being defeated by an enemy retreated to Diuri village and installed the deity in the midst of bamboo clumps. It is also heard that this image is of the eldest sister among the seven sisters of the Shakti group, the others being at Kera (Singhbhum), Palna (Tamar thana), Purnanagar (Erki thana), an unidentified village (Singhbhum), Haradih (Tamar thana) and Dewli (Manbhum). The villagers believe that human sacrifice used to be offered at this temple till about the turn of the present century. It is said that Kala Pahar, the iconoclast, sought to desecrate this temple and even damaged it; some manage to identify bullet marks on the walls of the temple and attribute the broken limbs of the main deity to the vandalism of a British Officer who passed this way during the Kol Insurrection.

Harin Temple.—Ruins of a similar temple may be seen at Harin (Sonahatu) on the river Kanchi. The temple which stood five feet high till 70 years ago was damaged by a *Semal* tree which grew into its walls. A Shiva *linga* exists, and is worshipped by villagers from neighbouring villages.

Other Temples.—Ruins of similar temples exist at Bamladih (Sonahatu), Palna (Tamar), etc.; an image of *"Padmapani"* has been found at Dimbujarda. Images of Sun-God are also stored at Shiva *mandap* at Tamar. Bamani ruins, situated in the heart of the Sonepur Munda region, represent probably the farthest extent of Panchpargana architectural influence; the remains of probably a Shaiva stone temple with "about a dozen, large grooved stone pedestals" have been kept around the temple court-yard "near a tank now silted up."* Such places as Etre and Hitutola, require further exploration for probable Shaiva sites.

Tradition credits the Asurs with the construction of most of these temples in Panchpargana; but most probably these were built by local chieftains, now forgotten, or by some prosperous peasants who arrived in the wake of the migration

* Also *see*, D. R. Patil's, *Op. Cit.*: p. 14.

of peasant population from the south, carrying with them the religious and architectural traditions of Orissa. A notable fact about the worship of the deity in the temple at Diuri is that it is conducted by the Munda *Pahan,* the traditional village sacrificer, on all days except Tuesdays when a Brahman worships the Goddess after decorating her with golden *hasuli,* nose-ring and ear-ring and dressing her in yellow and red *sari.* The *Pahan* of Diuri is in the immediate charge of the temple and accepts sacrifice of sheep, goats and buffaloes, particularly during the Durgapuja when sacrifices are performed on a large scale. At Harin also the *Pahan* is in charge of the "Shiva" image and accepts the sacrifice of animals from people. Animal sacrifice to "Shiva" is unknown elsewhere. This has obviously been imported from the local cult. This shows that the Hinduisation of the Mundas in Panchpargana was not a one-sided affair. In the process of cultural synthesis the *Pahans* gained in respectability.

Ruins of Majhgaon.—Majhgaon in Chainpur thana, in the extreme western part of this district, mainly inhabited by Oraons, is another notable site of a Shaiva temple. Brick ruins of a temple, exquisitely carved stone pieces, Shiva *lingas,* large iron trident (*trisula*), a number of images of such deities as Vishnu, Surya, Mahisasurmardini, Lakshmi and Ganesh have been found here*.

Vaishnava Temples.—Next to these temples based on Shiva-*Shakti-Surya* cults, come the predominantly Vaishnav group (or Jagannath cult) of temples. There are a large number of them, both old and new, spread all over the district. Shyam Charan temples in Tamar and Radha Rani temple in Bundu are not very old specimens. But the Doisa-Chutia-Jagarnathpur complex of temples is the oldest and most venerated.

The impressive palace complex built at Nawrattan (1687–1711 A.D.) has its Mahadev temple, rock-temple and the five abbeys, *Panch math* and picturesque *Dhobi math.* The Jagarnath temple was built in it in 1683 A.D. by Harinath, *guru* of the Raja; the two inscriptions on the temple refer

* Also *see*, D. R. Patil's *Op. Cit.*; pp. 248-49.

The history of the ruins at Majhagaon or Tanginath, etc., has yet to be determined.

to 1739S as the year of its construction*. The small double storeyed temple at Chutia with its arches and underground stairs was built by one Hari Brahmachari in 1685† A.D. The temple at Jagarnathpur, 6 miles from Ranchi surrounded by ramparts and situated on the rocky eminence, now overlooks the bustling township and the industrial complex at Hatia. It was built by Thakur Aini Sahi in 1691 A.D. In two corners of the rampart are stored phallic image of Shiva, two broken feet, images of Ganesh and Garud. A flight of stairs has been added recently (22nd February 1965). A big *mela* is held in the plains below the temple on the *Rathyatra* day every year, which coincides with similar *Rathyatra mela,* on smaller scale all over the district.

The stone temple at Borea, 5 miles from Ranchi, built in 1665–82 A.D. by Lakshmi Narain Tiwary, was dedicated to Lord Madan Mohan. It has two inscriptions, probably the earliest in the local Hindi dialect and Devanagari character, which

* One inscription reads—

सम्वत गूह गुण सिन्धु शशी, शुची तृतीया रवि साथ
जगन्नाथ कहं भुपति गुरु हरिनाथ

(Royal preceptor Harinath had Jagarnath temple established on Sunday, the third day of the noon-lit fortnight in 1739S.)

Another inscription reads—

अंकाग्नि मुनि शुभांशा तृतीयाय शुची शिते
असौ कृष्णालय श्री रघुनाथ सदगुरु

(The holy preceptor of Raja Raghunath founded this temple of Krishna on the third day of the moon-lit fortnight in 1739S.)

A third inscription (no longer in position) says—

मुनि रस सिन्धु शशी समजान कार्तिक शुक्ल रविवार प्रमाण
श्री हरिनाथ देव कृतराज, गोकुलनाथ संग विराज

(The temple was founded on Sunday, the third day of the moon-lit fortnight of Kartik in 1767 S. by Harnath Deo along with his brother Gokulnath.)

† The inscription reads—

सम्वत करयुग सिन्धु शशी अक्षयतृतीया चन्द
ब्रहमचारी हरिमठ किआँ श्री रघुनाथ नरिन्द

(Brahmachari Hari established the temple in the reign of Raghunath on the third day of the moon-lit fortnight in 1739 S.)

are eloquent of its origin. The original text would read in English as follows*:—

(1) The illustrious Rama is true. In Samvat 1722 (A.D. 1665) Vaisakh, tenth bright moon, and in the reign of the illustrious Raja Raghunath (of Chutia Nagar), the Lord's temple was begun by Laxminaraina."†

(2) "Salutation to the illustrious Madan Mohan, Auspicious: In 1722, Samvat (A.D. 1665) Vaisakha, 10th bright moon, Monday, the foundation of the shrine of Sri Madan Mohan was laid; and in Samvat 1725 (A.D. 1668) Sravana, 10th bright moon, the foundation of the gateway, with the room and the enclosure, was laid; completed in Samvat 1739 (A.D. 1682), at a cost of Rs. 14,001 for the purposes of the god. The amount is correct. Now, if a Hindu desecrate the temple with its gateway and enclosure, he shall drink cow's blood, and shall be visited with the sin of murdering a Brahman and a spiritual guide. If a Musalman desecrate the temple, with its gateway and enclosure, he shall eat pork, and commit the sin of murdering his akhund or preceptor and of putting pork in a saint's dinner-plate."‡ The devout Laxmi Narain caused this humble request to be written. The architect Anirudha says, the request is proper.

* Haldar, Rakhal Das. Notes on Three Inscriptions on Stone found in Chutia Nagpur, *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. XI, 1871, pp. 108–110.

† श्री राम राज्य ।
सम्वत सतरसइ बाइस ।
बैंशाख सुदि दशमी रजनीश ॥
श्री रघुनाथ नरेश बिराज ।
लक्ष्मीनारायण ईश्वर माठसाज ।

‡ *Ibid.* श्री मदन मोहन (नमस)ते
अस्ति श्री सम्वत १७२२ समय बैशाख सुदी दशमी १० (सीमा) रके श्रीश्री मदन मोहनके मटदायादल आउ सम्वत १७२५ समय सावन सुदी दशमी १० के दरयाजा ओ कोटरी श्री छायदेयाली का दावा देल तैयार मेल सम्वत १७३९ के ताकरलशीत मेल रुपया हजार १४००१ चांद ईश्वर निमित्ते ये किछु लगल हय से सत्य हय ताकर हिन्दु भय मठ दरयाज छारदेयाली ढाहाय्याय से गाइकवकदेपीयय ब्राह्मणमारते कहत्या गुरूमारले कहत्या ताक हय मुसलमान भय मठदरयाज छारदेयाली ढाहा याय तो शुयर खाय आखन मारलक ओ पीरक थारा शुयर कहरा डारलक दोषतेहि मुसलमानक हय तेवारि लक्ष्मीनारायण भगवत इ विनति लिखाय राखल हय कारीगर अनिरूधक विनिति सांच हो ।

Rakhal Das Haldar also mentions a stone inscription in Persian, not correctly cut and unintelligible, which may probably be only a translation of Hindi inscription*.

Other temples are Hapamuni temple of Mahamaya in Ghagra and Basudev Rai temple at Korambe.

Tribals' first reaction to these temples was one of wonder for the architectural excellence of these edifices. In their folk songs they sang of Doisa as "glittering like gold", their Khukhra "bright as silver" and Chutia and Jagarnathpur as "glimmering". The tribals participated then as they do now in the festivities such as *Desai, Mahadev Munda Melas* and *Makar Sankranti* celebrations at these temples. Later, in the 19th century, in the wake of the revivalistic movement these sites became places of pilgrimage in the new religious order organised by Birsa. It was declared that these temples were constructed by Mundas in the "Satyuga" (Golden Age) for the worship of their God. They claimed these historical sites as their "ancestral places"†. These temples were not merely centres of Hindu worship; but played a positive role in the diffusion of Hindu culture in the vast scattered tribal areas of the district.

A few images without any temple to house them could be historically as old as those in the Panchpargana or Manjhgaon. Maharaja of Chota Nagpur's family deity, Chintamani Devi at Palkot, is supposed to be of respectable antiquity. A small broken image of Shiva (?) was discovered at Bhagalpur Juljula in Karra thana in September, 1962. The process of acculturation started probably as far back as the 11th century A.D. in the Panchpargana region. While the impact of Vaishnavism on the tribals living in the Panchpargana is well known, that of the earlier waves of *Shiva-Shakti-Surya* cults remains to be studied‡.

Temples of Ranchi town.

Kali Mandir.—About the middle of the 19th century one Karunamoy Banerjee installed the image of goddess Kali in a small temple at Ranchi; subsequently on account of some tragic bereavement in his family, he entrusted the worship and management of the deity to one Ram Sahay Mishra, a Brahman hailing from Aurangabad (Gaya) who raised some fund and constructed a small temple in which he enshrined the image of Kali. In 1915 his successor, Janki Ballabh Mishra, after a successful law-suit named the aforesaid temple as Kalisthan, which stands on the main road and draws a large number of devotees everyday as there is a general belief among people that the deity is very powerful and fulfills all the desires, if properly worshipped.

* **Haldar, Rakhal Das, J. A. S. B.** *Op. Cit.*

† *See* the Chapter on 'History'.

‡ Dr. Kumar Suresh Singh: Monograph, 1967.

Durga Mandir.—It is situated at the northern extremity of the main road. This temple of Goddess Durga was constructed in the 19th century on the initiative of one Khagen Babu. In course of time images of Kali, Ram, Sita, Krishna and Shiva were also enshrined here. There is a spacious hall attached to this temple and is used for religious organisation. Durga Puja has been celebrated over the past decades with all pomp and gaiety. The Bengali community of the town are chief patron of this shrine.

Shiva Temple.—On the top of the Ranchi hill, west of Ranchi lake, there is an old-time Shiva temple which attracts a large number of devotees on the occasion of *Shivaratri.* The deities of Ram and Mahavir are also enshrined here. There is also a tribal deity known as "Pahari Deota", which is represented by a stone piece near the Shiva temple. Both tribals and Hindus (mostly of lower castes) make sacrifices to this deity for the welfare of their children and family.

Mahavir Mandir.—This is situated at Upper Bazar, Ranchi and has since olden times been an important centre of Hindu worship. This is the originating point of *Mahaviri Jhanda Procession* in Ranchi town.

Ram Mandir.—This is situated at Nibaran Pur and is mainly associated with Ram Navmi and Durga Puja.

Among the other temples constructed in Ranchi town in the present century, the following may be mentioned:—

Sati Mandir.—It is situated near the Ranchi hill. The *Sati* is venerated as a symbol of purity and chastity. A *mela* is held here annually when large crowds of female devotees come to worship the *Sati Mata* for the safety of their husbands and sons and those not blessed with any child seek blessing. The temple is patronised by the Marwari community particularly.

Ram Mandir.—This temple enshrines the deity of Ram and is located at Purulia Road. It celebrates Jhulan, Ramnavmi, etc.

Sita Mandir.—This is situated at Ratu Road and draws local devotees.

Durga Mandir.—This is another temple dedicated to Goddess Durga and is located at Upper Bazar. The non-Bengali population mainly worships here.

Mahavir Mandir.—This is located at Church Road and enshrines the images of Mahavir, Sita and Ram. The Ramnavmi festival is the main attraction here.

Shiva Mandir.—This is situated at mahalla Shivaganj at Harmu Road.

Besides, there are many other temples in Ranchi town and also in the interior of the district.

Mahaviri Jhanda.—The Mahavir Chawk, Upper Bazar, becomes a scene of festivities on the night prior to the Ramnavmi day when flags accompanied with procession from various mahallas are assembled here. The physical feats and performances resembling war rehearsal are integral part of these festivities. On the Ramnavmi day the procession starts from Mahavir Chawk and terminates at Ramchandra Mandir at Nibaranpur where it transforms into a large size *mela.* The *Mahaviri Jhanda* procession is a common festival all over the district on the Ramnavmi day when large number of people, including tribals, move with the banner of Mahavir, in accompaniment of music and with show of physical powers.

Nearly 500 images of Goddess Saraswati are installed at various places in Ranchi town with concentration in Bengali locality on Hazaribagh Road. Award of cash prizes for best images has encouraged their artistic construction in recent times. This is mainly a festival of students and intellectuals. The immersion of images is preceded by processions in which large number of people, including tribals, participate.

The Visvakarma Puja also has, of late, become popular, particularly on account of increasing volume of trades and business in the district. The images of Visvakarma are installed in many workshops and also in the homes of artisans. Irrespective of castes, all artisans participate in the processions following the images for immersion.

Jain Mandir.—The Jain Mandir, a magnificent building, is situated at Market Road near Sadar police-station, Ranchi. It was constructed in 1948 and contains an image of Lord Mahavir. The *Mahavir Jayanti* is celebrated with great enthusiasm when a procession is taken out through the main streets of the town with the image of Lord Mahavir on a chariot and besides the entire Jain community, many other Hindus also join it.

Gurudwara.—The Sikhs, on arrival at Ranchi after the partition of the country, built a *Gurudwara* on the main road in 1952, where they assemble every Sunday morning to worship their *Gurus* and hear religious discourses and sing hymns from their holy scripture. The *Gurudwara* also forms a social forum for them. On the birth-day of Guru Nanak they take out a large, colourful procession which is joined by a large number of other people also.

Punjabi Beradari.—The Punjabi community, resident in Ranchi town on their migration from West Punjab in wake of the partition of the country, have added a new feature to the Holi festival. In the night of the '*Holikadahan*' they take out a procession, consisting of so-called

Sadhus robed in saffron attire and with long beards, singing didiactic songs in accompaniment of native musical instrument such as *Kartal, Jhanjh* and *Dholak* and marching through the main streets of the town, extolling *dharma* which is symbolised in the survival of Prahlad and burning of Holika. On the Holi festival day they extend invitation to all to assemble at the bank of Kanke Dam, off Kanke Road, for sprinkling coloured water on each other. Apart from promoting solidarity among them, the procession and get-together are also drawing large number of other people to this mode of celebrating the Holi festival.

The industrial expansion of the district in post-1960 period has brought together people not only from different parts of India, but also from abroad. Though they have formed their own social clubs, e.g., Kerala Sangh, South Indian Association, etc., they also invite guests from other communities to their cultural functions. The children of the employees of various public and private undertakings, drawn from all over India and also foreign countries read together with local students in schools, colleges and university and also participate in various academic and cultural activities, particularly sports.

Easy means of communications, modern educational institutions, recreation centres, eating houses, work-places, etc., are bringing cross sections of people in contact with one another. The urban and rural areas are getting integrated closely. Food, dress and general living are gradually getting standardised. In fact, a cosmopolitan culture has begun unfolding itself in Ranchi.

APPENDIX I.

EXPENDITURE.

The total expenditure on education in the year 1914-15 including inspection and miscellaneous charges, was Rs. 4,60,912 of which Rs. 1,08,973 were met from Provincial Funds, Rs. 67,848 from District Board Funds, Rs. 5,696 from Municipal Funds, and Rs. 2,78,385 from fees and private sources*.

EXPENDITURE (PRIMARY TO SECONDARY INCLUDING BASIC).

The following table shows the expenditure incurred out of State Exchequer during 1964-65 and 1965-66 on various categories of schools both for boys and girls as per details below†:—

Serial no.	Categories of Schools.	1964-65 (in Rs.).			1965-66 (in Rs.).		
		Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Multi-purpose Higher Secondary.	9,75,906	8,65,991	1,09,915	10,67,653	9,52,356	1,15,297
2	Higher Secondary	2,23,035	2,14,734	8,301	2,19,181	2,17,402	1,779
3	High	13,96,190	10,30,946	3,59,244	20,08,081	15,62,532	4,45,549
4	Senior Basic	3,86,528	3,86,528	Nil	6,49,164	6,49,164	Nil
5	Middle	17,03,033	14,00,247	3,02,786	20,50,841	16,68,673	3,82,168
6	Junior Basic	1,54,644	1,54,644	Nil	1,95,781	1,95,781	Nil
7	Primary	29,68,753	27,54,464	2,09,289	35,63,715	32,88,490	2,75,225
	Total ..	78,02,089	68,12,554	9,89,535	97,54,416	85,34,398	12,20,018

EXPENDITURE ON COLLEGES.

The following table shows the expenditure incurred by colleges in the district during 1964-65 and 1965-66†:—

Names of colleges.	1964-65 (in Rs.).	1965-66 (in Rs.).
1. Gumla College	52,451	56,156
2. Lohardaga College	26,112	49,000
3. Birsa College, Khunti	48,962	52,465

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 223.

† SOURCE.—Office of the Director of Public Instruction, Bihar, Patna.

Names of colleges.	1964-65 (in Rs.).	1965-66 (in Rs.).
4. Marwari College, Ranchi	38,810	35,842
5. Simdega College, Simdega	43,826	57,490
6. Doranda College, Doranda	39,802	61,565
7. Ranchi College, Ranchi	13,16,808	14,88,676
8. St. Xavier's College, Ranchi	4,78,614	4,99,817
9. Ranchi Women's College	2,64,865	2,32,206
10. Ranchi Agriculture College	4,72,391	6,46,185
11. Birla Institute of Technology	23,52,198	24,47,040
12. Chota Nagpur Law College	98,614	95,785
13. Ranchi Medical College	9,16,905	12,23,635
14. Ranchi Veterinary College	1,10,695	2,38,332
15. Ranchi Teachers' Training College	74,590	81,367
16. Ranchi Hospital for Mental Diseases*	30,799	32,664
17. Ranchi Sanskrit College, Ranchi	55,811	68,497
Total ..	64,22,653	73,26,722

EXPENDITURE ON UNIVERSITY.

The table below shows the total annual expenditure for 1964-65 and 1965-66 incurred by the Ranchi University†:—

	Rs.
1964-65	12,76,510
1965-66	19,76,510

Per capita expenditure on education of all types, in this district in 1964-65 and 1965-66 is shown below :—

Total population of the district according to 1961 Census.	21,38,565		
	1964-65.	1965-66.	
	Rs.	Rs.	
Total expenditure on educationin the district	1,55,01,252	1,90,57,648	
Per capita expenditure on education in the district.	7.2	8.8	

* This expenditure relates exclusively to the training of medical students from the various medical colleges in Bihar.

† SOURCE.—Office of the Director of Public Instruction, Bihar, Patna.

APPENDIX II.

In addition to the libraries already mentioned, the following are the recognised ones in the district of Ranchi*:—

1. Mundari Literary Society Library, At and P. O. New Garden, Ranchi.
2. Krishna Ballav Library, At and P. O. Ghaghra, Ranchi.
3. Urdu Library, At and P. O. Simdega, Ranchi.
4. Public Library, At and P. O. Chainpur, Ranchi.
5. Public Library, At and P. O. Tamar, Ranchi.
6. Jan Jagran Library, Tukupani.
7. Public Library, Sissai.
8. Adim Jati Seva Mandal Library, Lakha, P. O. Kolebira, Ranchi.
9. Gram Library, Jate, P. O. Brindabazar, Ranchi.
10. Public Library, Lohardaga.
11. Gorachand Library, Nawagarh, Angara.
12. Public Library, Childag, Angara.
13. Shree Jan Jagriti Library, Kakaria.
14. Gutua Library, Gutua, P. O. Piska Nagri.
15. Indrapat Library, P. O. Lapung.
16. Public Library, Chutia.
17. Sharda Library, Khunti.
18. Hasib Memorial Urdu Library, Khunti.
19. Subdivisional Birsa Library, Khunti.
20. Public Library, Gumla.
21. Janta Library, Jori, P. O. Banari.
22. Shikshak Sangh Library, Lohardaga.
23. Shri Janta Library, Bharno.
24. Shri Janta Library, Erki.
25. Shri Janta Library, Bandora.
26. Bishwanath Library, Kute, P. O. Jagannathpur.
27. Sursang Library, Sursang.
28. Adarsh Library, Lotwa.
29. Kishore Mohan Janta Library, Naurhi, P. O. Tamar.
30. Baruhatu Gram Panchayat Library, Baruhatu.
31. Sharda Library, Umedanda.
32. Gandhi Library, Makka, P. O. Burmu.

* SOURCE.—*Bihar Ke Pustakalaya*, published by Superintendent of Libraries, Bihar, Patna, pp. 255—60.

33. Janta Library, Nawadih.
34. Vaidik Library, Kutmu, P. O. Lohardaga.
35. Janta Library, Piskanagri.
36. Vikas Library, Pali.
37. Prabhat Club Library, Kumhari.
38. Public Urdu Library, Sissai.
39. Gandhi Jayanti Library, P. O. Chainpur.
40. Janta Library, Jaipur, P. O. Jamgai.
41. Saraswati Library, Kasir.
42. Veena Pani and Shree Saraswati Library, Kulmunda, P. O. Nawagarh, Patrotoli.
43. Janta Prakash Library, Jamtoli.
44. Kakdoro Library, P. O. Pithoria.
45. Janta Library, Kanchanpur, P. O. Mahugaon.
46. Yuwak Sangh Library, Jingi.
47. Public Library, Hejla, P. O. Kuru.
48. Idrisia Library, Hindpiri.
49. Circulating Library, Kolebira.
50. National Circulating Library, Thethaitangar.
51. Circulating Library, Basia.
52. Gram Panchayat Library, Taimara.
53. Public Urdu Library, Gumla.
54. Public Urdu Library, Simdega.
55. Public Urdu Library, Bano.
56. Adarsh Club Library, Tamar.
57. Janta Library, Nawagarh Patratoli.
58. Public Library, Simdega.
59. Pran Krishna Library, Khunti.
60. Anand Janta Navyuvak Library, P. O. Ormanjhi.
61. Bani Library, P. O. Ghaghra.
62. Narma Library, P. O. Banari.
63. Vikash Library, Lohardaga.
64. Rameshwar Singh Library, Ormanjhi.
65. Navjyoti Library, P. O. Rampur via Lohardaga.
66. Nehru Memorial Library, Lohardaga.
67. Gram Panchayat Library, Koronjo.
68. Khunti Association Library, Khunti.

APPENDIX III.

The table below shows the periodicals and magazines printed and published during 1963-64 in Ranchi district:—

Serial no.	Name of newspaper or periodical.	Language.	Periodicity.	Nature.	Place of publication or the Press where printed.	Circulation.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Gharbandhu	Hindi ..	Monthly	Magazine (Religious) ..	G. E. L. Church Press	1,800
2	The Sentinel	English ..	Weekly	Newspaper (Literary) ..	The Sentinel Press ..	1,500
3	Gram Guru	Hindi ..	Monthly	Magazine (Literary)	Education Press ..	930
4	Coal and Steel ..	English ..	Bi-weekly	News Bulletin (Literary)	Ditto ..	1,000
5	The Ranchi Rotarian ..	Ditto ..	Weekly	Magazine (Literary and Cultural).	Ditto ..	160
6	The Ranchi Lion ..	Ditto ..	Monthly	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	200
7	Nishkalanka	Hindi ..	Ditto	Religious ..	Catholic Press ..	5,754
8	Marsaltabon	Santali ..	Ditto	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	1,550
9	Eve	English ..	Ditto	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	3,911
10	Clergy Monthly ..	Ditto ..	Ditto	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	3,700
11	Upadesh Ruprekhaen ..	Hindi ..	Ditto	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	2,250
12	Industrial Ranchi (Vol. I)	English ..	Ditto	Literary and Industrial ..	Ditto ..	650
13	The Magazine of the students and Union, Ranchi Agricultural College, Kanke.	English, Hindi, Bengali and Urdu.	Yearly	Literary and Agricultural	Shree Radha Raman Press, Ranchi.	600
14	Archana	English, Hindi and Bengali.	Ditto	Literary Magazine ..	Ditto ..	150
15	Baitalik Patrika ..	English and Bengali.	Ditto	Musical and Literary ..	Ditto ..	650
16	Jagriti	English, Bengali, Urdu and Hindi.	Ditto	Literary Magazine ..	Ditto ..	500
17	Dwairath	Bengali ..	Bi-monthly	Literary and Cultural ..	The Prova Printers ..	1,200
18	Highlands view ..	English ..	Half-yearly	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	400
19	Hansorh	Hindi ..	Monthly	Ditto ..	Beni Madhav Press ..	5,000
20	Hamare Man ..	Hindi ..	Ditto	Psychological ..	Giriraj Prakashan ..	2,000
21	Man in India ..	English ..	Quarterly	Anthropological ..	Man in India Office, Ranchi.	Not known.

APPENDIX IV.

The periodicals and magazines printed at Ranchi.

Serial no.	Name of newspaper or periodical.	Language.	Periodicity.	Nature.	Place of publication or the Press where printed.	Circulation.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research.	English	Monthly ..	Scientific ..	Catholic Press	2,000
2	Research and Industry	Ditto	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	1,000
3	Indian Journal of Chemistry	Ditto	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	2,000
4	Indian Journal of Pure and Applied Physics.	Ditto	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	2,000
5	Indian Journal of Technology ..	Ditto	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	2,000
6	Indian Journal of Experimental Biology	Ditto	Quarterly ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	2,000
7	Power Engineer	Ditto	Ditto ..	Electrical ..	Ditto ..	1,500
8	I. S. I. Bulletin	Ditto	Bi-monthly ..	Standardization ..	Ditto ..	10,000
9	Phytomorphology	Ditto	Quarterly ..	Botany ..	Ditto ..	1,100
10	Palaeobotanist	Ditto	Half-yearly	Palaeobotany ..	Ditto ..	500
11	Journal of the Institution of Tele-communication Engineer.	Ditto	Monthly ..	Tele-communication	Ditto ..	1,250
12	FRI News	Ditto	Ditto ..	Fuel Research ..	Ditto ..	750

CHAPTER XVI.

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES.

Public Health and Medical Facilities in Early Times.

It appears that since early times people suffered from malaria, which affected the areas covered with jungles and led to considerable mortality among the population. In rural areas small tanks, *kachcha* wells, rivulets, springs or springlets (*danris*) were the sources of drinking water. In urban areas also there were but few *pucca* wells to provide drinking water. During the rains these sources got badly contaminated and gave rise to many types of bowel diseases and were also a medium of cholera. Dysentery and diarrhoea were common and caused considerable mortality during the hot and rainy seasons. Small-pox also appears to have visited this district in epidemic form several times in the 19th century. Plague was, however, practically unknown; only sporadic cases occurred in the 19th century. Tuberculous diseases were also noticed in the urban areas. Rabid jackals and dogs also took a toll of lives.

Prior to Government measures to safeguard public health, people had, by and large, to resign to fate in case of epidemics. The tribals also believed in witchcrafts and turned to *ojhas* for cure of their ailments. In rural areas, indigenous method of cure, i.e.. treatment by drugs prepared from roots, leaves and herbs was common. In the *laissez-faire* days the Zamindars and other classes of aristocracy had their own *kabiraj* or *vaidya* or patronised some eminent physicians who visited them on call. In some urban centres practitioners in Ayurvedic and Unani systems were also seen and it is not improbable that people from neighbouring rural areas might have come to them for treatment. The village barbers used to act traditionally as surgeons and their womenfolk also acted as midwives.

The allopathic system of medicine and scientific surgery were brought to the district by the British administration. The army doctors and surgeons looked after the health of civil and military officers and also other ranks at Ranchi. The missionaries, who came to this district about the middle of 19th century, took allopathic treatment to common man.

History of Common Diseases in the District.

Malaria.—It was a common cause of attendance at the dispensaries at all times of year, but particularly during August and September. Major Fry* made a special study of the subject and stated that all three varieties

* Of Indian Medical Service. His studies relate to pre-1915 decade.

were met with : malignant tertian, benign tertian and quartant, the latter being particularly common in the sub-plateau areas which were found to be associated with high spleen rates. His observations showed that Ranchi plateau was not an endemic area, though the edges of it were hyperendemic, perhaps because the residents descended frequently to the lower plateau. The largest number of cases and the worst type of fever occurred in the lower plateau, in Tamar and south-west of the district and though slight enlargement of the spleen was not uncommon throughout the district, the splenic index was only high in those areas. The resident population of the district had established relative immunity from the disease, but new settlers or casual visitors were very susceptible. A notable fact was that the police-stations were usually highly malarious, apparently because of the aggregation of visitors from infected areas. Every hollow near the houses was used as a receptacle for manure, with the result that the water-supply was polluted and the pools round the villages formed most favourable breeding grounds for anopheline mosquitoes. The mosquitoes most numerous were Myzomyia Rossi, Myzomyia Culcifacies, Nyssorhynchus Fuliginosus and Pyretophorus Jeyporensis. Of these, the second and fourth were common in the hyperendemic regions, and as they are well known to be the most prominent carriers in India, were most probably the cause of the distribution of the disease. For the decade ending 1902, the death-rate from fever was reported to be 14.13 per mille and for the decade ending 1910, 17.83, the total mortality during these periods being 25.56 and 28.06 respectively. In 1908, a famine year, there was abnormally high mortality, the death-rate for fever alone being as high as 25.06 per mille. In 1915, when the total mortality was 26.53, the mortality from fever was 18.93 per mille*.

During July, 1951-52 malaria surveys were conducted by the Anti-Malaria Organisation of the State Government to collect data on (1) Endemnicity of Malaria; (2) Victor species of mosquitoes and their bionomics; and (3) Malaria transmission period, so that an economicably feasible plan could be chalked out to control malaria in rural areas. The survey in 1951 related to the investigation at Bishunpur, Banari and Netarhat (Palamau district) area and neighbouring villages numbering 26, and that in 1952 to Kanke area including adjacent 10 villages. The survey revealed that Bishunpur, Banari and Netarhat were endemic for malaria, but there was a marked variation in incidence in different villages. While at Bishunpur and Banari, the spleen varied from 7.6 per cent to 38.4 per cent indicating the places as hyperendemic, at Netarhat and Kanke, which presented a low endeminity, the figures were only 13.2 per cent and 12 per cent respectively. The transmission season is spread from the months of July|August to November|December and a small transmission period during March-April. From entomological study of

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 103-104.

the mosquitoes, it was found out that a culicipacies was the victor species though its density ratio varied in different villages. The investigation also pointed to fuvialities, a cold-weather mosquito as being another victor species in the area.

Since March, 1953 a comprehensive Anti-Malaria Scheme, i.e., National Malaria Control Programme was started by Government after discontinuing the previous Anti-Malaria Units. After encouraging results, Government expanded the scheme and started the National Malaria Eradication Programme. The incidence of malaria progressively declined since then and may be said to be almost non-existent now.

Small-pox.—Serious epidemics of small-pox are not common, and as a rule the death-rate is low, the average mortality for 20 years being only 20 per mille. In the epidemics of 1892, 1908 and 1909, the mortality was 1.97, 1.28 and 1.14, respectively, but in no other year did the death-rate exceed 0.50*. The low incidence suggests the comparative immunity of tribal population.

It may be inferred that the mortality was more or less confined to people who brought the infection from outside and communicated it to those with whom they came in contact, mostly in the urban areas. In those days preventive measures were not popular. A party consisting of 8 to 12 Brahman *tikaits* or professional inoculators used to come from Manbhum district and tour through this district once every 3 or 4 years and inoculate people who volunteered, on such fees they could obtain. The lymph used by them was usually not effective due to becoming stale in long transit. The Compulsory Vaccination Act came into force in the district in 1887. The itinerant vaccinators were licensed to do the work and this system continued to be in vogue till 1950 when it was replaced by trained and paid vaccinators.

During the present century there has been no outbreak of small-pox in epidemic form. The incidence of this disease is comparatively higher in the Khunti subdivision, though sporadic cases occur all over the district. By the end of winter the disease generally makes its appearance and reaches its peak before the commencement of the monsoon and declines with the advent of rains. The introduction of intensive vaccination drive has rendered virulent epidemic quite uncommon and consequently the death-rate has also fallen. During the decade, 1942—52, the average annual mortality from small-pox in the district was 185. In rural areas during this period the average number of attack and death per year was 411.2 and 55.2 respectively while the average annual mortality within the Ranchi Municipality itself during 1942—52 was 33.6.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 105.

The statement below shows attacks and deaths from small-pox during 1952—1960*:—

	Years.								
	1952.	1953.	1954.	1955.	1956.	1957.	1958.	1959.	1960.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Attacks	175	95	Nil	N.A.	14	233	806	348	77
Deaths	15	9	Nil	N.A.	5	86	202	71	12

In rural areas during 1964, the annual death-rate from this disease was 467.

Cholera.—In normal years the number of deaths from cholera was small. The natural drainage of the district was excellent and it was only after a very weak monsoon that the wells and the *danris,* or springs in the terraced rice-lands, failed to give a supply of water, which with care is potable. During 1893—1902, the average mortality from cholera was only 0.80 per mille, while in the following period, 1901—10, it was slightly lower. In 1908 the disease broke out in epidemic form, both in the famine area to the west of the district and in the town of Ranchi, and the death in this area rose to 7.01 per mille. In 1911 only 17 deaths from cholera were reported in the whole district, but in 1912 there were 347 deaths in all or 0.25 per mille. There was a virulent outbreak in the village of Hatma Karamtoli, near Ranchi, which caused 27 deaths out of 40 cases in a period of three weeks. The infection was also conveyed through milk to Ranchi Bazar, where several deaths occurred. In the Khunti thana there was also a severe outbreak and in spite of the efforts of the Mission doctors at Murhu, the mortality was above 60 per cent of seizures. A similar outbreak occurred in 1915, when the death-rate rose to 0.56. These epidemics occurred at the close of the hot weather, and a copious rainfall in July and August stopped the further spread of the disease, by replenishing the water-supply and destroying flies and other germ-carriers†.

During 1942—52 the average mortality from the disease was 424.8. There were two major epidemics, one in 1942 and other in 1943 which took a toll of 863 and 1,204 lives respectively. In the rural areas during the years 1949—52, annual average number of attack and death was 480.5

* SOURCE.—Civil Surgeon's Office, Ranchi.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 104-105.

and 247.5 respectively. In the Ranchi Municipal area 156 deaths were recorded as yearly average during 1949–52, while in the Lohardaga Municipal area there was only one death during this period. The reason for the high incidence of mortality during 1949–52 is to be attributed to the epidemic of 1952 when the total number of attacks and deaths was 658 and 328 respectively. In 1953, the number of attack was 131 and death 68. During 1954—1957 and again 1959-1960, the district enjoyed complete immunity. In 1958, however, there were 68 attacks, 32 being fatal. In post-1960 period, industrialisation has caused an influx of people to this district from different parts of the country and this has affected the complexion of population in respect of its immunity to this disease. Repatriation of migrated labour from West Bengal, Assam and other industrial areas is also one of the main sources of infection. The failure or early cessation of monsoons over successive years, with concomitant shortage of food and drinking water are also conducive to cholera. The Sadar and Gumla subdivisions are comparatively more vulnerable to this due to larger concentration of population and its mobility due to easy communication. However, cholera is not endemic in this district. The incidence of mortality from this during the present decennium compares favourably with those of the past. The problem is not acute due to favourable drainage, good climatic condition and scattered areas of rural population.

Plague.—It is practically unknown; only 4 or 5 deaths occurred in the first decade of the present century, and those were of persons who were already infected with the disease, before they entered the district*. In 1949 there were two suspected cases. The infection was said to have been imported from the adjacent district to Silli thana. Inoculation and other anti-plague measures were promptly undertaken and the disease was checked.

Bowel Complaints.—Early in the present century dysentery and diarrhoea were common and caused considerable mortality during the hot and rainy seasons. Bad drinking water was a principal cause of these diseases and little care was taken to keep the tanks and *danris*, which formed the water-supply of rural areas, free from pollution. A contributory cause was the large extent to which the aboriginal population fed on jungle fruits and roots, and coarse grain, such as *gondli*, and it is for this reason that the mortality from bowel diseases was highest in, and after, years of scarcity. In such years the *gondli*, which ripens in August and is eaten unmixed with rice, creates the disease in constitutions already enfeebled by a sparse diet of jungle fruits and roots. In 1897 the mortality was exceptionally high 4.97 and in 1907 and in 1908 it was over 3 per mille, but these figures were certainly considerably

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 105.

underestimated. It is difficult to believe that in a normal year, such as 1912, there would be only 1,650 deaths from this cause*. Even after lapse of decades, the general pattern of living continues to be as before, though better health measures have somewhat countered the incidence of these diseases. Anti-cholera measures, enforcement of the Food Adulteration Act and the Epidemic Diseases Act are intended to reduce the incidence of bowel complaints. The table below shows the mortality caused by diarrhoea and dysentery during the Five-Year period ending 1960†:—

Year	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960
Mortality ..	578	328	312	450	835

Tuberculous Diseases.—In the early part of the present century, tubercle of the lungs, joints and abdominal viscera was becoming more common in Ranchi town. The overcrowding of buildings and the multiplication of schools and boarding-houses must be held responsible for this unfortunate development. Healthy boys from country villages were brought into close contact with phthisical town-children, and in many cases either became victims of the disease themselves or, on settling permanently in the town, raised up families, whose powers of resistance to the disease appeared to be very feeble‡. However, tuberculosis is not a common disease of this district. It is salubrious climate of Ranchi and its wooded environments that T.B. sanatoria have been established for the cure of patients who usually come from outside.

Other Diseases.—Throat affections, such as quinsy, are common, especially towards the end of the rains. Pneumonia is prevalent in the cold weather and rains. The aboriginals are generally supposed to be racially immune from goitre, but several cases have been known. The glare of the laterite soil and the dust of the uplands are contributory causes of diseases of the eye, especially conjunctivitis, but cataract is rare as compared with other parts of India. Rheumatic affections often cripple permanently the persons whom they attack, and skin-diseases and several species of intestinal worms are common. Cancer of the lips occurs among elderly males and is attributed to the habit of chewing tobacco mixed with lime. Venereal diseases are very rare in the district and are practically confined to the non-aboriginals of the towns**.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 105

† SOURCE.—Office of the Civil Surgeon, Ranchi.

‡ *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, pp. 105-106.

** *Ibid*, p. 106.

Fever.—Fever has caused a large number of mortality in the district as will appear from the table below*:—

Year	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960
Mortality ..	14,346	13,329	12,818	9,785	8,521

Leprosy.—Only 160 cases were recorded at the census of 1911†. There was an asylum for lepers at Lohardaga, founded by the Rev. F. Hahn of the Lutheran Mission as early as 1882. It remained in existence till 1927 when the patients were transferred to Purulia‡.

At present the incidence of leprosy is more or less confined to the Panchpargana regions, though in 1948 a number of cases were also reported from Lamdega and Latampani in Kolebira thana (Simdega). The district lies in a less affected zone and the incidence roughly works to 7.5 per mille.

Blindness.—Total blindness is also not very common, and at the census of 1911, only 1,454 persons were returned as suffering from this affliction**.

Vital Statistics.

The registration of deaths was introduced in 1869, the duty of reporting them being imposed on the village Chaukidar. In the Ranchi Municipality births were first registered in October, 1873 and Act IV (B.C.) of 1873 which made the registration of births and deaths compulsory, was extended to that area in 1887, and to the Lohardaga Municipality in 1890. The registration of births was begun in the rural areas in 1877 and the system then in vogue, whereby the Chaukidars reported deaths and births at the weekly parade at the thana was introduced in 1892. The agency for reporting births and deaths was not reliable as the Chaukidars as a class were illiterate, while the size of the areas within the jurisdiction of each police-station and the long distances from headquarters made it difficult for police and medical officers to check their reports. The statistics of births and deaths were, however, more accurate than in the plains, as the aboriginal population had no prejudice against reporting the deaths and births of females, but the causes of death were hopelessly confused. Cholera and small-pox were diagnosed but all other diseases were classified by the Chaukidar under the general head of 'fever'.§

* Source.—Office of the Civil Surgeon, Ranchi.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 106.

‡ Rev. Fr. C. Bulcke, S.J.: Monograph, 1967.

** *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 102.

In 1895 a Blind School was started at Ranchi by Mrs. O'Connor. The inmates, both men and women, were taught on the Braille system and men also to do cane and bamboo work, and women mat-making.

§ *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 102.

*Birth and Death.**—The decade ending in 1902 was generally considered an unhealthy one, probably because of the mortality in the famine year of 1897, but the average birth-rate was 37.14 per thousand and the death-rate only 25.56. In the famine year of 1897, the death-rate rose to 46.48, but in the following year it dropped to 18.51, being the lowest in the province. In the decade 1901—10, the birth-rate averaged 44.54, but the death rate 28 was slightly higher than in the preceding period. In 1908, a famine year, the death-rate rose to 46.05, but in the two years of good harvest which succeeded the famine, the birth-rate rose to 44 and 52, while the death-rate fell to 26 and 29. The average birth-rate for five years ending 1915 was 41.14 while the death-rate for this period was 24.93. The birth-rate was highest among the aboriginal population in the less developed parts of the district, particularly in Chainpur, Lohardaga and Gumla thanas. With this high birth-rate the population of the district rose by over half a million between 1872 and 1911 and that between 1901—11, from 11,87,433 to 13,87,079.†

From the records covering the period 1920—40 as compared to those of the later decennium, it appears that the general birth-rate was varying between 41.14 to 31.5 per 1,000 of mid-year population, falling to 27.76 during 1941 to 1945. The average birth-rate came down further after the quinquennial period from 1941—1945, falling to 24.24 in 1946; 17.7 in 1950; 12.57 in 1956; and 10.79 in 1961.

During the decade 1931—40, the death-rate on an average was 24.93 per thousand. This showed a steady downward trend and the average figure recorded in the quinquennial period, 1941—1945, was 17.42. Since 1946, there had been a further decline till it reached 13.3 in 1950; 9.46 in 1956: and 5.80 in 1961. The statistics of infant mortality also indicate a considerable decline, being 113.0 per thousand live births in 1941.

The following statement shows the number of births, deaths, infant mortality and also the rates of birth and death per thousand during the years 1956—1961‡:—

Year.	Total number of live births registered.	Total number of deaths registered.	Infant mortality.	Birth-rate per 1,000 of mid-year population.	Death-rate per 1,000 of mid-year population.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1956	22,647	17,060	1,765	12.57	9.46
1957	27,339	15,669	1,586	16.35	9.37
1958	21,658	19,816	1,621	12.47	9.11
1959	27,128	13,451	1,387	15.62	7.75
1960	26,469	12,150	1,985	11.06	5.08
1961	23,086	12,411	1,822	10.79	5.80

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917) pp. 102-103.

† *District Census Hand-Book, Ranchi*, 1956, p 8.

‡ Source.—*Bihar Statistical Hand-Book*, 1957 (pp. 87-88); 1958 (p. 91), 1959 (p. 93), 1960 (p. 79) and 1961 (p. 96).

General Standard of Health.

A review of the vital statistics shows a steady improvement in the general standard of health of the people. Both birth and death ratios show a downward tendency in recent years. The infant mortality has also been declining gradually except in the years 1956 and 1958 when it was comparatively higher. The principal causes for the gradual decline in death-rates are : (*i*) effective control of malaria and epidemics like cholera and small-pox; and (*ii*) improved public health measures. The malaria control measures under the National Malaria Eradication Programme of State Government have reduced its incidence to minimum. Public health measures have also checked the epidemic of cholera and Small-pox Eradication Programme has somewhat effectively countered the mortality due to small-pox, though the congestion of urban areas and continuous immigration of people from outside have not made it possible to eradicate it fully.

The normal diet of common man in rural areas is of poor caloric value. It usually consists of rice, cheaper vegetables and a little *dal*. The poorer classes usually live on *mahua* and other jungle produce during the months of March, April and May, and on cheap grain like *gondli* and *marua* during June, July and part of August and on *gora* (coarse paddy) till October. Rice is their staple food during the months from November to February with a little *sag* and *dal*. The middle classes generally consume more rice, some wheat, more *dal* and vegetables, a little fish, meat and eggs and local fruits, e.g., papaya and guava occasionally. The people in higher income-groups consume rice, wheat, lintels, green vegetables, fish, meat, egg, poultry, milk and fruits. The diet of the people in upper income-groups is getting more balanced than in the past and thus provides them better resistance against diseases.

Early Development of Medical Assistance.

Till 1902, the only public dispensaries in the district were those maintained by the municipalities of Ranchi and Lohardaga*.

Ranchi Dispensary (*Sadar Hospital*).—The Ranchi Dispensary was established in 1855, and was for a long time in charge of an Indian doctor, paid from local funds. A new building to accommodate eighteen in-patients was opened in 1872. and in that year the in-patients numbered 146 and the out-potients 1,789. In 1902 it consisted of one *kachcha* building, which contained both the in-patient and out-patient departments; but the same year from subscriptions raised for the Queen Victoria Memorial Fund, a new operation room and male surgical ward were erected, and in the following year the hospital was enlarged by the erection of a male medical ward and a new female ward. In 1913 two

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 107

wards for infectious diseases were constructed; in 1914, a new out-patient building was completed at a cost of Rs. 20,000, as a memorial to King Edward VII; and in 1916 four cottage wards were opened for patients willing to pay a small sum for their occupation. The hospital now contained 60 beds. It owes much to the liberality of late Rai Sahib Thakur Das of Ranchi, who bore the whole cost of the erection of the female ward, was a liberal subscriber to the King Edward Memorial Ward, and also met a considerable portion of the cost of an X'Ray installation to complete the equipment of the hospital. In 1915, 17,466 patients were treated in this hospital*.

Lohardaga Dispensary.—The Lohardaga Dispensary was opened in 1881 and later re-built and enlarged at a cost of Rs. 15,000. In 1915 the total number of patients was 6,751†.

District Board Dispensaries.—Since 1902, the District Board did much to bring medical relief within reach of the inhabitants; dispensaries were opened at Bundu and Chainpur in 1902, at Gumla in 1903, Silli in 1906, Khunti in 1907 and Simdega in 1916. The dispensary at Gumla had accommodation for twelve in-patients and was in charge of an Assistant Surgeon. The remainder were in charge of Sub-Assistant Surgeons. At the outlying dispensaries the bulk of the work was the treatment of out-patients, either at the hospitals, or at the *bazars* which were visited by the medical officers, and in 1915, 22,231 patients received treatment. The tribals were still somewhat shy of the dispensary, and preferred to trust to their own jungle drugs‡.

Doranda and Kanke State Dispensaries.—In April, 1912, Government opened a dispensary at Doranda and in August, 1926 at Kanke.

Government Nursing Home.—This was established by Government in July, 1915, in its own building near the Circuit House.

In August, 1927, the Bihar and Orissa European Nursing Association was started under the Lady Wheeler Trust Fund, having an Advisory Committee consisting of the Commissioner, Chota Nagpur Division as Chairman, the Civil Surgeon as Secretary and nine members from Ranchi and Patna. The Association has been maintaining a European sister for nursing the sick families.

St. Barnabas Hospital, Ranchi.—It was opened in 1903 by the S.P.G. Mission. The Dublin University Mission lent workers to start it.

St. Luke's Hospital, Murhu.—Rev. Dr. Kennedy opened a dispensary at Murhu, in Khunti subdivision, in 1905 with accommodation for 16 in-patients. This was maintained by the S.P.G. Mission and aided by the

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 107.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 108.

‡ *Ibid.*

District Board. As no medical facility existed in that area at that time, this hospital gained popularity and in the first nine months nearly 3,000 cases were treated and 50 major operations performed. This hospital was enlarged in 1911*.

Itki Mission Dispensary.—In 1910 a dispensary was started by the S.P.G. Mission at Itki in Bero thana, to carry on medical work among the Oraons. Buildings were erected in 1912, consisting of a dispensary, four small wards, and an operation theatre, and the staff consisted of a European Lady Doctor and a compounder†.

Modern Hospitals and Dispensaries.

The Sadar Hospital, Ranchi was taken over by Government on 1st October, 1944. The subdivisional hospitals at Khunti, Gumla and Simdega were also brought under the State management on 15th July 1955. Since 1957 Government have taken over 16 hospitals and dispensaries from local bodies including those at Lohardaga, Silli, Tamar, Ormanjhi, Karra and Basia and opened 14 new State dispensaries in rural areas. They have also established Maternity and Child Welfare Centres at Ranchi, Khunti, Gumla, Simdega and Ormanjhi. Four Family Planning Centres and 27 Block Health Centres have also been opened by the State, both in the urban and the rural areas. For the treatment of leprosy cases an asylum was established at Brombay in 1956. The Mental Hospital at Kanke and the T. B. Sanatorium at Itki which were in existence since before were considerably improved after Independence.

Sadar Hospital.—The total number of beds has since been increased to 237 (i.e. 122 for males and 115 for females) including 10 beds for T. B. Ward, 10 beds for V. D. Ward, four Cottage and 17 Cabin Paying beds. But the average number of indoor patients has now gone to about 300, resulting in overcrowding. On average about 2,000 labour cases have been admitted annually. The number of male and female outdoor patients has also been large in all departments, the daily average being nearly 400 including about 100 females‡. On average about 20,000 operations were done annually during 1958–1962.

The hospital staff consists of the Civil Surgeon as the Superintendent, a Deputy Superintendent, four Civil Assistant Surgeons including two Lady Doctors, two Specialised Doctors for the T. B. Clinic and Ward, 31 Nurses, six Compounders, one X'ray Technician, one X'ray Mechanic and other ancillary workers.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 108.

† *Ibid.*

‡ These figures relate to the quinquennial ending 1964-65.

The hospital has pathology, radiology, dental and optical departments. The operation theatre is equipped with modern surgical instruments. The hospital has also a Neuro-Surgical Unit under an experienced Neuro-Surgeon. Besides, the District Dental Treatment Centre and the District Health Laboratory have been opened in the hospital. The Radiology and Pathology units of the District T. B. Clinic are separate from those of the main hospital.

It is also a centre for training 130 Auxiliary Nurses and Midwives and is also recognised for the training of dressers and trained *dais*.

Inpectious Diseases Hospital, Ranchi.—This hospital forms part of the Sadar Hospital, but is situated on a separate site near the Ranchi Central Jail. It was opened in February, 1945. Diseases of infectious type only are treated here. It has a doctor and a staff of nurses, compounders, etc., under the direct control of the Civil Surgeon. There are 98 beds for indoor patients in this hospital, of which 70 are for males and 28 for females.

Subdivisional Hospitals.—The subdivisional hospitals at Gumla, Khunti and Simdega provide for general treatment only, each being in charge of a Civil Assistant Surgeon. Amongst other staff, Khunti has a lady doctor and a trained *dai*. Gumla one trained *dai* and Simdega two trained *dais*. There is also a family planning centre attached to Khunti Hospital. The number of indoor beds are: Gumla—20 beds (12 for males and 8 for females); Khunti—14 beds (8 for males and 6 for females); and Simdega—24 beds (14 for males and 10 for females).

Lohardaga Hospital.—The State Government took over its management on 15th February 1957. At present there are 12 indoor beds. This hospital provides for general treatment only. The staff consists of one Civil Assistant Surgeon, one lady doctor and a trained *dai*.

Bundu and Silli State Hospitals.—They were provincialised on 1st January 1960 and 15th February 1957 respectively and render only general treatment. Bundu has one Civil Assistant Surgeon, a lady doctor and a trained *dai;* Silli has a Civil Assistant Surgeon and a trained *dai*. The number of indoor beds at Bundu and Silli is 12 and 8 respectively.

Indoor and outdoor patients treated during 1958–1962.*

Serial no.	Name of hospital.	1958.		1959.		1960.		1961.		1962.	
		Indoor.	Outdoor.	Indoor.	Outdoor.	Indoor.	Outdoor.	Indoor.	Outdoor.	Indoor.	Outdoor.
1	2	3		4		5		6		7	
1	Sadar Hospital ..	9,655	71,612	11,563	75,713	12,324	74,887	13,324	76,352	14,323	87,632
2	T. B. Ward and Clinic attached to Sadar Hospital.	85	1,892	129	946	202	1,882	252	1,231	301	1,311
3	Infectious Diseases Hospital	1,315	7,449	1,404	4,230	1,784	2,580	1,776	2,482	Not available.	
4	Gumla Subdivisional Hospital.	835	16,128	827	13,399	771	15,936	968	16,766	874	11,384
5	Khunti Subdivisional Hospital.	376	8,654	383	7,322	451	8,513	479	7,438	374	6,853
6	Simdega Subdivisional Hospital.	552	8,974	620	9,300	1,000	12,125	1,213	14,772	1,158	14,143
7	Lohardaga Hospital ..	367	15,151	437	12,163	385	12,653	Not available		Not available.	
8	Bundu Hospital ..	94	18,602	63	14,211	70	10,712	142	11,025	154	11,154
9	Silli Hospital ..	189	31,708	195	29,514	132	27,834	155	22,950	188	19,811

*Source.—Civil Surgeon's Office, Ranchi.

Doranda and Kanke State Dispensaries.—These dispensaries have no indoor beds and give only general treatment to outdoor patients. The staff of the Doranda Dispensary consists of a Medical Officer, a lady doctor, a nurse and two compounders and that of the Kanke Dispensary, a Medical Officer, a trained *dai* and a compounder. The number of outdoor patients treated in these dispensaries during 1958–1962 is as follows*:—

	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962
1. Doranda Dispensary	31,056	27,073	19,709	15,048	13,925
2. Kanke Dispensary	8,735	6,634	5,678	7,292	13,091

Government Nursing Home.—It has five beds. The staff consists of one matron, two sisters and one trained *dai*. Patients are admitted under the direction of the Medical Officers of the Sadar Hospital on payment of the prescribed charges, which include the charges for diet, radiography, pathology and clinical investigation, but exclude the operation charges. The number of patients treated during 1958–1962 is as follows:—

1958	1959	1960	1961	1962
67	78	70	71	73

Police Hospitals.—There are two hospitals for the State Police personnel, viz., the Ranchi Police Hospital and the Doranda Bihar Military Police Hospital. The former is situated in the Police Lines at Ranchi, and the latter in the Bihar Military Police Campus at Doranda. Both are of Class II category and have 18 beds each.

State Dispensaries in Rural Areas.—In addition to said hospitals and dispensaries, State Government have taken over the management of 13 District Board dispensaries during 1957–1960 and also opened 13 new State dispensaries in rural areas. These are situated at Kuru, Ormanjhi, Angara, Basia, Chainpur, Bishunpur, Palkot, Ghaghra, Tamar, Karra, Kurdeg, Kolebira, Bano, McCluskiegunj, Lapung, Burmu, Mandar, Khijri, Sisai, Raidih, Katkahi, Torpa, Sonahatu, Murhu, Bolba and Thethaitangar.

Block Health Centres.—The State has provided for medical facilities in each block. Out of 40 blocks in the district, 27 have been provided with health centres, viz., Ratu, Kanke, Khijri, Mandar, Ormanjhi, Silli, Kuru, Angara, Senha, Kisko, Gumla, Raidih, Chainpur, Bishunpur, Ghaghra, Dumri, Palkot, Khunti, Murhu, Sonahatu, Bundu, Karra, Erki, Simdega, Thethaitangar, Kurdeg and Kolebira, each health centre having one Medical Officer of the rank of Civil Assistant Surgeon, one lady health visitor, one sanitary inspector, three midwives and three health

* Source.—Doranda and Kanke State Dispensaries, Ranchi.

workers. Besides, there are health sub-centres in each block with a health assistant and a *dai*. The Medical Officer of the block has been given transport facilities to enable him to move to different health sub-centres and also other parts of the block.

Maternity and Child Welfare Centres.—There are five Maternity and Child Welfare centres in the district. The oldest one is in the Ranchi town and was established in 1938. It is run by the Maternity and Child Welfare Society of Bihar. The other four are at Ormanjhi, Gumla, Khunti and Simdega run by Government. The medical staff at each of these centres consists of a lady health visitor, auxiliary nurse, midwife and trained *dais*. The lady doctors attached to Sadar and subdivisional hospitals attend the respective centres on specific days for holding anti-natal and post-natal clinics. Maternity and Child Welfare services are also available at Sadar, and subdivisional hospitals, State dispensaries and block health sub-centres.

Military Hospital at Namkum.—This was established as a combined military hospital for British and Indian troops in June, 1946 with 1,000 beds. It catered for all the troops stationed in this district at that time. It was temporarily removed to Ramgarh in November, 1947, but was brought back to Namkum in May, 1948. Consequent on the departure of the British troops from India the bed strength was brought down considerably by May, 1952. The hospital is a modern one, equipped with a Radiology Department, a Laboratory, an Operation Theatre, a modern Physiotherapy Department, a Skin and Venereal Diseases treatment centre and the usual Medical Surgical and Isolation wards.

Leprosy Institute, Brombay.—It is situated on 60.52 acres of land off the Ranchi-Lohardaga Road, 12 miles from Ranchi town. It started functioning from 7th May, 1956. At that time the capacity was limited to 75 beds. Later the State Government doubled the capacity and it has at present (1965) 150 beds. A rehabilitation centre (i.e., occupational therapy) is attached to it. It caters for the whole State of Bihar*. The staff consists of two Medical Officers, one Welfare Officer, one Social Worker, one Physiotherapist, one X'ray Technician, one Laboratory Assistant and one Agricultural Overseer. Besides the treatment of indoor patients, nearly two thousand outdoor patients also get the benefit from this Institute every year.

Municipal Dispensaries.—The Ranchi Municipality maintains an allopathic dispensary on the Ratu Road for free treatment of outdoor patients. The staff consists of one Chief Medical Officer, two Medical Officers, one nurse, two compounders and eight midwives. A Centrally-sponsored family planning centre staffed by a Medical Officer, a social worker and a trained *dai*, is also maintained by this dispensary.

* The main pockets of leprosy in Ranchi district are Tamar, Bundu and Silli thana.

District Board Dispensaries.—During the years 1902—1950 the Ranchi District Board opened 20 hospitals and dispensaries in rural and semi-urban areas. Of these, three hospitals at subdivisional headquarters were taken over by Government in 1955. Of the remaining 17, Government took over the management of 15 dispensaries during 1957—60. The District Board is at present (1965) maintaining two dispensaries only at Bharno and Tuko for the treatment of outdoor patients.

St. Barnabas Hospital, Ranchi.—Its development owes much to Dr. and Mrs. Dauncey who were in charge of it for some time after 1926. In 1930 it was made into a 50-bedded hospital and later raised to a 60-bedded one. All kinds of patients are treated here. The number of outdoor patients is large. In case of urgency and for specialised treatment patients are referred to the Sadar Hospital, Ranchi.

St. Luke's Hospital, Murhu.—At present (1967) it has 50 indoor beds.* Both indoor and outdoor patients are treated here. The District Board used to give grants to this hospital prior to 1958. There is a fairly well-equipped small operation theatre, a laboratory, a maternity ward and a leper clinic attached to this hospital.

Itki Mission Dispensary.—It is for general treatment, though a leper clinic is also attached to it. At present (1967) it has 45 beds†.

Noatoli Mission Hospital.—In 1926, the Ursuline Convent of the Roman Catholic Mission opened a dispensary at Noatoli near Basia. The mothers built a small hospital with 12 beds for the expectant mothers and other cases that needed sustained nursing. The mothers, who received general training in Belgium and a special course on tropical diseases at the University of Louvain, are in charge of it. The staff consists of the Superintendent, a fully trained Mother (nursing and maternity) and two trained nurses (with midwifery certificate). The nursing staff attends emergency cases, specially maternity even at distant places. The expenses of the hospital are mostly met by the Mother Superior, Ursuline Convent, Ranchi.

Rengari Mission Hospital.—Rengari, 11 miles south of Simdega, lies in jungly areas where formerly no medical help was available. A dispensary was opened by the Roman Catholic Mission in 1928. The Mothers added a ten-bedded hospital in 1929.

Tongo Mission Hospital.—At Tongo in Chainpur thana of the Gumla subdivision, the Mothers of the Roman Catholic Mission founded this well-equipped dispensary in 1930. Minor ailments, fevers, eye-cases are generally treated here in large numbers. Often the Mother-in-charge of

* Rev. Fr. C. Bulcke, S. J.: Monograph, 1967.

† *Ibid.*

the dispensary is called to see the patients in their homes. For malignant fevers, obstinate eye-cases, contagious cases, the Mothers started a small hospital in 1933 with four beds. At present (1965) there are eight beds.

Holy Family Hospital.—The Society of Catholic Medical Missionaries of Philadelphia, U. S. A. opened the Holy Family Hospital at Mandar, 16 miles west of Ranchi, on March 19, 1947, through the efforts of Rev. E. De. Meuldar, S.J., of the Ranchi Roman Catholic Mission. The original 60 beds have since increased to 160. This is a well-equipped hospital with a modern operation theatre. The staff consists of three doctors, 57 nurses (of whom 13 are graduate staff nurses), pharmacist, two laboratory technicians, etc. A Nurses' Training School has also been started since 1949. This hospital is open to all.

Seventh-Day Adventists' Mission Hospital.—This hospital was started in 1949 at Bariatu, Ranchi by the Seventh Day Adventists' Mission. It has a pharmacy, X'ray equipment, operation theatre and a pathological laboratory. Among its staff are two experienced Surgeons and a Nursing Supervisor from overseas. At present (1967) it has 56 beds. It is a general hospital with a well-known blood bank. A mobile unit attached to the hospital, visits the surrounding villages once a week.*

Other Mission Hospitals.—There are three other hospitals run by the Catholic Mission: Gumla (20 beds), Hulundu (10 beds) and Lohardaga (52 beds). Besides, they have 24 dispensaries. The mobile dispensary of the Missionaries of Charity (stationed at Ranchi) specialises in the treatment of leprosy†.

Shri Nagarmal Modi Seva Sadan.—It is a privately owned nursing home, opened on 31st August, 1958, in memory of late Shri Nagarmal Modi. It is primarily meant for rendering maternity services to public in general. The staff consists of two lady doctors, six nurses and other ancillary hands. It has 25 beds. Those able to pay are charged for treatment, but the indigent are treated free. A Centrally-sponsored family planning centre has also been opened in this *Seva Sadan*.

H. E. C. Hospital.—The Heavy Engineering Corporation has established a hospital at Dhurwa for its employees, which caters for both indoor and outdoor patients. It is expanding, with the growth of the township. The staff, equipments, etc., are being added according to requirements. There is a modern operation theatre with expert Surgeons.

Hindusthan Steel Hospital.—It is a small hospital at Doranda for the employees of the Hindusthan Steel, Ranchi. They have acquired lands at Doranda and will soon be building a large hospital.

* Rev. Fr. C. Bulcke, S. J.: Monograph, 1967.
† *Ibid.*

N. C. D. C. Hospital.—The National Coal Development Corporation have a small hospital for their employees at Ranchi.

Other dispensaries.—The *Yogoda Sat Sangh* and the Ranchi *Chikitsak Sangh* (Physicians' Association) maintain an allopathic dispensary each for the treatment of outdoor patients at Ranchi.

Mental Asylums.

Early in the present century there were small mental asylums at Calcutta, Barahampur, Patna and Dacca. They were abolished and two Mental Hospitals, viz., Indian Mental Hospital and the European Mental Hospital were established at Kanke, 5 miles north of Ranchi town, obviously due to its excellent climate.

Hospital for Mental Diseases, Kanke (Formerly European Mental Hospital).—This mental asylum was founded in 1918 to accommodate about 200 European and Anglo-Indian patients. Capt. Owen Berkeley Hill* joined the hospital soon after its inception. Besides being a famous psychiatrist, he was also a dominating personality and so, within a few years he could succeed in organising this hospital. It was staffed and equipped for intensive treatment of mental and neurological illness and soon acquired a sound reputation. The beds were, at that time, reserved to a large extent for Europeans and Anglo-Indians.

This hospital is a Central Government Institution. At present (1966) it has 340 beds allotted to the following States which contribute to the upkeep of beds in the hospital to the extent shown against each:—

(1) West Bengal	204
(2) Bihar	50
(3) Uttar Pradesh	35
(4) Madhya Pradesh	10
(5) Assam	6
(6) Delhi	5
(7) Orissa	4
(8) Other areas in the Indian Union ..	26

Besides, there is a provision for treating 20 independent patients, who pay the entire cost of their upkeep and treatment.

* D. M. (Oxford); Of Indian Medical Service.

STAFFING PATTERN.

Medical Superintendent.

Deputy Medical Superintendent.	Deputy Superintendent (Admn.).	Pathologist.	Psychologist.	Post-graduate Training Centre.
1. Assistant Surgeons, Grade I (5).	1. Occupational Therapists (2).	1. Path. Lab. Technician.	1. Assistant Psychologist.	1. Reader in Psychiatry.
2. Matron.	2. O. T. Technicians (28)	2. Laboratory Assistants.	2. Librarian.	2. Assistant Professor of Psychology.
3. Nursing Sisters (17).	3. Accounts Officer.			
4. Staff Nurses (4).	4. Steward.			
5. Psychiatric Social Worker.	5. Dietitian.			
6. Cultural Worker.	6. Store-keeper.			
7. Electronic Technician.	7. Head Pharmacist.			
8. Physical Culture Instructor.	8. Pharmacist.			
	9. Dresser.			
	10. Psychiatric Aids (2).			
	11. Ward Attendants (Male and Female) (150).			

The following scientific facilities have been provided :—

(*i*) An insulin coma treatment unit for the treatment of the most disabling of mental illness, schizophrenia;

(*ii*) An artificial fever treatment unit which is the most effective treatment under Indian conditions for general paresis, a mental disorder due to syphilis of the brain;

(*iii*) Re-equipment of the operation theatre for brain surgery. Patients are being treated by pre-frontal Leucotomy and Transorbital Leucotomy;

(*iv*) A Psychological Laboratory for a detailed and accurate investigation of the mental state of patients and also for a psychological evaluation of the effects of the various method of treatment*;

(*v*) A fully equipped Pathological Laboratory providing facilities for histological and bio-chemical investigations of mental disorders; and

(*vi*) Brief stimulus therapy and electro-narcosia apparatuses†.

Besides, treatment by means of psychodrama and with indigenous drugs have also been introduced. By means of psychodrama the patients enact their own problems on the stage and thereby provide material for psychotherapy. Certain Indian drugs, particularly rawalfia serpentine, are of great value for mental patients, specially to control excitement.

The basis of all psychiatric treament is of course, occupational therapy and psychotherapy. The department of occupational therapy has been expanded by addition of three new sections, viz., Typewriting, Journalism and Art. All recent cases receive psychotherapy of various types, but the use of intensive forms of psychotherapy is limited to those patients who can derive most benefit from this treatment.

There has been a steady increase in the number of patients. Psychotherapy, the most time-consuming of all psychiatric treatments, has been intensified, and the number of admission of psychoneurotic patients has also increased. Certain neurological cases which also suffer from psychological abnormalities are also admitted for treatment. To cope with some of this extra work and to meet a long felt need, the Government of Bihar have sanctioned the post of a Lady House Physician. The departments of Psychology, Clinical Pathology and

* The laboratory also possesses a 6-channel Electro Encephalograph.

† The former is an up-to-date and refined method of giving electro-shock treatment and the latter is a means of giving coma treatment without use of the insulin in cases of schizophrenia.

Electro-Encephalograph are functioning fully and also several major neuro-surgical procedures for brain operations are being done in the well-equipped operating theatre with encouraging results. Since 1950 various research projects have been undertaken, such as, a therapeutic trial of Glutamic Acid for cases of mental deficiency, discovery of a new technique of Transoribital Leucotomy Operations, a study of Electro-Encephalograph of mental patients under light penthothal anaesthesis, etc.

The following table shows the number of admissions and residents in the hospital:—

Year.	Admitted during the year.			Resident on March 31.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1963-64—						
V. B.*	144	71	215	106	50	156
Certified ..	95	32	127	185	117	302
Total ..	239	103	342	291	167	458
1964-65—						
V.B.	171	75	246	128	57	185
Certified ..	96	40	136	195	120	315
Total ..	267	115	382	323	177	500
1965-66—						
V.B.	193	104	297	123	78	201
Certified ..	64	50	114	191	136	327
Total ..	257	154	411	314	214	528

The following table shows the details of patients treated:—

Year.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1963-64	523	271	794
1964-65	558	282	840
1965-66	580	331	911

* Voluntary Boarders.

The daily average population of patients was 512 in 1965-66, as compared to 450 in 1963-64 and 482 in 1964-65.

The following table shows the Statewise distribution of the total population under treatment during 1963-64 to 1965-66 :—

State.	Number of patients.		
	1963-64.	1964-65.	1965-66.
1. Central Government	16	17	20
2. West Bengal	317	312	310
3. Bihar	94	85	87
4. Uttar Pradesh	35	35	42
5. Madhya Pradesh	4	4	4
6. Assam	10	10	10
7. Delhi	14	11	12
8. Tripura	30	28	23
9. Himachal Pradesh	9	12	10
10. Nagaland	7	10	12
11. Manipur	10	14	12
12. Other areas in India	4	5	4
13. Independent patients	244	297	365
Total	794	840	911

The following table shows the age-groups of patients admitted into the hospital during 1963-64 to 1965-66:—

	1963-64.	1964-65.	1965-66.
1. Under 20 years	32	36	43
2. Between 20 and 40 years ..	247	279	294
3. Between 41 and 60 years ..	58	64	70
4. Over 60 years	5	3	4
Total	342	382	411

The following table shows the details of departures with varying results and percentage of "recovered" and "recovered and improved" to total departures:—

	1963-64.	1964-65.	1965-66.
1. Total departures	336	340	383
2. Discharged—recovered	161	219	260
3. Discharged—markedly improved	35	11	11
4. Discharged—improved	107	86	87
5. Discharged—slightly improved	9	..	..
6. Discharged—unchanged	13	13	17
7. Death	11	11	8
8. Percentage of departures recovered (Col. 2) to total departures.	47.9%	64.4%	60.1%
9. Percentage of departures recovered plus improved (Cols. 2 to 5) to total departures.	92.8%	92.9%	93.5%

The following table shows the percentage of patients discharged as "recovered" and "improved" to direct admission:—

Patients.	1963-64.	1964-65.	1965-66.
Admission during the year	342	382	411
Ratio percentage of cases discharged to direct admissions—			
(a) Recovered	30.7%	57.3%	39.6%
(b) Improved	19.88%	25.4%	10.2%

The following table shows the percentage of patients "recovered" and "improved" to daily average strength:—

Patients.	1963-64.	1964-65.	1965-66.
1. Daily average number resident in the hospital ..	450	482	512
2. Ratio percentage of cases discharged to daily average—			
(a) Recovered	35.8%	45.4%	50.7%
(b) Improved	33.6%	20.1%	19.1%

The following table shows the number of new admission and re-admission and percentage of re-admission to total admission:—

Year.	New admission.			Re-admission.			Total admission.	Percentage of re-admission to total admission.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1963-64	205	83	288	34	20	54	342	18.7
1964-65	192	109	301	54	27	81	382	21.7
1965-66	212	121	333	45	33	78	411	18.9

The following table shows the number of patients discharged and the number and percentage of the same patients who were re-admitted later due to relapse :—

Year.	Discharged recovered.	Re-admitted later.		Discharged improved.	Re-admitted later.	
		Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1963-64	161	2	1.3	151	14	9.3
1964-65	219	9	4.1	97	10	10.3
1965-66	260	16	6.1	98	9	9.2

The details of treatment employed are : Insulin Coma Therapy was abandoned though Sub-Coma Insulin treatment continued to be employed. Electro-Convulsive Therapy, Psychopharmaeotherapy, Individual and Group Psychotherapy, Therapeutic Community Principles and Recreational Therapy were employed extensively. Leucotomy was performed on two cases. Behaviour Therapy techniques like Aversion Therapy for the treatment of alcoholism, Avoidance conditioning for phobic reactions, obsessive compulsive reactions and Writer's Cramp were also introduced during the year.

All patients, except those suffering from physical illness and those who were demented or greatly disturbing, attended the Occupational Therapy Department for five hours each working day. There were, in all, the following 30 different kinds of occupations one could be engaged on, according to one's aptitude and psychodynamic factors relevant to the individual cases : tailoring; fancy needle-work; embroidery; knitting and lace-making; weaving; mending; carpentry; mattress-making; cane-work; carpet-making; painting, varnishing and polishing; leather work; book-binding; blacksmithy; arts; Secretariat work; perspex work; envelope-manufacturing; French knitting loom; cement concrete; Fret saw and toy-making; coir foot-mat; paper pulp; paper flower-making; fraying; cooking; knitting; spool knitting, rug and bath-mat-making; clay modelling; umbrella repairing and gardening.

The following table shows details of new cases. with diagnosis treated during 1964-65 to 1965-66*:—

W.H.O. classification no.	Diagnosis.	1964-65.			1965-66.		
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
300	Schizophrenic Disorders—						
300.0	Simple Type	..	..	..	4	..	4
300.1	Hebephrenic Type ..	..	..	..	1	2	3
300.2	Catatonic Type ..	3	4	7	2	4	6
300.3	Paranoid Type ..	1	..	1	10	2	12
300.7	Others and unspecified ..	8	14	22	18	14	32
301	Manic Depressive Reaction—						
301.0	Manic and circular ..	4	..	4	9	1	10
301.1	Depressive	4	..	4	12	4	16
302	Involutional Melancholia ..	2	..	2	3	3	6
305	Presenile Psychosis ..	..	..	..	1	..	1
306	Psychosis due to cerebral arteriosclerosis.	3	2	5	4	..	4
308.0	Intracranial neoplasm ..	..	..	..	1	..	1
308.2	Psychosis secondary or due to any disease or injury.	..	..	..	3	..	3
309	Confusional Psychosis ..	..	..	..	3	..	3
310	Anxiety reaction without mention of somatic symptoms.	32	5	37	18	4	22
311	Hysterical reaction without mention of anxiety reaction.	1	..	1	..	3	3
312	Phobic Reaction ..	..	..	..		1	1
313	Obsessive-Compulsive Reaction.	..	2	2	..	1	1
314	Neurotic Depressive Reaction.	6	1	7	8	1	9
317.1	Psychogenic Reactions affecting genito-urinary system.	1	..	1	1	..	1
319.0	Hypochondriasis ..	1	..	1	..	..	..
322	Alcoholism	..	..	..	2	..	2
325	Mental Deficiency ..	2	2	4	5	2	7
326.1	Stammering	..	..	..	1	..	1
327	Diagnosis uncertain ..	..	..	..	6	6	12
328	No psychiatric abnormality	..	..	..	7	..	7
353	Epilepsy (without psychosis)	19	6	25	29	7	36
	Neurological Disorders—						
	Brachial Neuralgia ..	..	..	..	1	..	1
	Acromegaly	..	..	..	1	..	1
	Total ..	87	36	123	150	55	205

* Besides new cases, 69 old cases were also treated during the year.

Ranchi Manasik Arogyashala, Kanke.—This mental asylum, formerly known as Indian Mental Hospital was opened in 1925 at Kanke. At present (1966) total accommodation is for 1,380 (1,108 for males and 272 for females) patients which is distributed among the States of Bihar (32.7 per cent), West Bengal (48.4 per cent), Orissa (6. 1 per cent), Tripura (0.2 per cent), Manipur (0.2 per cent) and Displaced persons (12.4 per cent). The expenditure of the hospital is also borne proportionately.

All up-to-date methods of treatment are available in this hospital. The Operation Theatre is equipped for brain surgery by pre-frontal Leucotomy and Transorbital Leucotomy. Occupational Therapy is the basic treatment and majority of the patients are employed in various occupations, both outdoor and indoor, e.g., gardening, weaving, tailoring, cane-basket making, carpentry, smithy, duree-making, book-binding, etc. The female patients are also suitably employed in weaving, needle and embroidery works, lace-making and coir-works, and domestic and other miscellaneous jobs. A fairly big library consisting of suitable English, Bengali, Hindi, Urdu and Oriya books is maintained for the patients who are interested in reading. They also get magazines and newspapers and many of them take part in various indoor and outdoor games.

There are eight Medical Officers including the Superintendent*, one Matron and four nurses and nearly 100 female attendants for the women's section, one sister for the men's section and nearly 350 male attendants, besides other staff. Senior Medical College students from Patna, Darbhanga, Ranchi, Jamshedpur, Cuttack and Sambalpur visit this institution annually in two or three batches to undergo an intensive course of lectures and practical training and demonstration in mental diseases.

The table below shows the details of admission and discharge during 1957–66†:—

Year.	Admission.	Discharge.
1957	1,428	1,305
1958	2,085	1,992
1959	2,089	2,034
1960	2,543	2,430
1961	3,089	2,961
1962	3,459	3,281
1963	3,517	3,153
1964	3,436	3,290
1965	4,150	3,999
1966	4,408	4,036

* He is directly under the administrative control of the Director of Health Services, Bihar.

† Source.—Ranchi Mansik Arogyashala, Ranchi.

Kishore Nursing Home, Kanke.—This is a privately owned mental asylum, started in March, 1955. It has 120 beds (75 for males and 45 for females).

The medical staff consists of two doctors. The clinical laboratory is supervised by the medical staff with the assistance of an experienced part-time laboratory assistant. Consultants in general medicine, surgery, pathology, radiology and other specialities are available from Ranchi. All kinds of scientific psychiatric treatments are available, such as drug treatment, psychological treatment, electrical treatment, etc. Cinemas, games and other recreations and occupations are provided for the patients. Nearly 4,000 patients have been treated in the Nursing Home since its inception. Patients suffering from all kinds of mental illness (psychiatric) are admitted.

The following research projects have been taken up:—

(*i*) The nature of SCHIZOPHERNIC illness; (*ii*) methods to reduce the period of time required for the in-patient treatment of severe mental illness; (*iii*) improved methods of giving Electro-Convulsive treatment, conducive to greater comfort and safety for the patients; and (*iv*) results of serological tests of the blood and cerebro-spinal fluid in mental patients.

Tuberculosis Sanatoria.

Itki T. B. Sanatorium.—The Tuberculosis Sanatorium at Itki is situated in open country about 16 miles west of Ranchi town, some 2,300 feet above sea level, and spreads over an area of 287 acres. It is connected by narrow-gauge railway, the station being about half a mile from it. A black-topped *pucca* road connects it with Ranchi town.

The idea of establishing a T. B. Sanatorium at Itki was first mooted by the S. P. G. Mission as one of them, who became a victim of this disease was removed from Ranchi to the jungles of Itki, where he is said to have recovered without any treatment. The missionaries then approached the Government of Bihar, who on being satisfied as to the suitability of the site and its salubrious climate in wooded environments established this Sanatorium in 1928. Initially there were only 52 beds.

The sanatorium is provided with an operation theatre, fully equipped with all instruments and appliances for major therapic surgery, a well-equipped laboratory and two X'Ray plants, one being a powerful 275 milli-ampere D.X., 3 X-Ray apparatus and also an ultraviolet set for treatment.

The hospital belongs to the State of Bihar. Four beds are reserved for the State of Orissa. The accommodation is classified as: (*i*) Special Ward, (*ii*) 'A' Class Ward, (*iii*) 'B' Class Ward, (*iv*) 'C' Class Ward, (*v*) Integrated Wards and (*vi*) Free Ward. In the first four types of

wards there are altogether 141 beds which are meant for only paying patients at different rate for each class. The integrated wards are distributed in the following manner: (*a*) Paying Ward for Officers—4 beds, (*b*) Shri S. Lal Ward—15 beds, (*c*) Police Ward—16 beds, (*d*) Jail and Medical Wards—6 beds and (*e*) Public Servant Wards—7 beds. Thus, in all there are 48 beds in Integrated Wards, four paying and the rest free. In addition, the sanatorium maintains a free ward consisting of 44 beds. For recreation of patients, there is a recreation hall having varieties of musical instruments. There is a well-equipped library.

Almost all the beds remain occupied throughout the year. Nearly 200 patients are discharged annually. The sanatorium is staffed with experienced doctors. Every year, the final year students of Patna, Darbhanga, Ranchi and Cuttack Medical Colleges attend in batches for special training in tuberculosis.

Ramakrishna Mission Tuberculosis Sanatorium.—The Ramakrishna Mission Tuberculosis Sanatorium is situated at village Dungri, about 4 miles east of the Hatia Railway Station and 10 miles south of Ranchi town, spreading over 279 acres, greater part of which is covered with *sal* trees. The site is 2,100 feet above the sea level. The surroundings are quiet and peaceful and the climate is bracing. It is flanked on two sides by streamlets. A water reservoir constructed by building a dam over one of them is capable of supplying 50,000 gallons of water daily even in summer.

It was opened on 27th January 1951 with 32 beds. It is one of the branch centres of the Ramakrishna Mission, founded by Swami Vivekananda. Its Surgical Unit was inaugurated on the 10th November 1953. At present (1968) there are 240 beds. All facilities necessary for the diagnosis and treatment of tuberculosis are available. Major chest surgery, such as lobectomy, pneumonectomy, etc., are also performed here. Operation theatre and recovery room are air-conditioned and the pathological laboratory is well-equipped with arrangements for drug sensitivity tests, etc. There are four X-Ray machines, including one of 500 milli-ampere with tomograph attachment. The staff consists of specialist medical officers. There are two honorary anaesthetists; one honorary consulting surgeon; one honorary consulting physician; one honorary radiologist; one honorary ophthalmologist; one honorary dentist; 24 male nurses; and one laboratory technician attached to the sanatorium.

Out of the total capacity, 180 beds are free and of these 32 are maintained by the Ramakrishna Mission for the indigent patients and the rest by different organisations for their nominees. Besides, a few beds are also maintained by the Mission at concession rates. The remaining beds are paying*.

* During the quinquennium ending 1963, on average 290 patients were admitted annually and 275 discharged.

There is a Recreation Hall with a stage and auditorium with sitting accommodation for 300 people, where dramas are performed, films screened and musical soirees and other functions organised for the entertainment of the patients and other inmates. Radio news and music are relayed from this Hall through loud-speakers installed in the wards. There is a library for the patients, containing books in Hindi, Bengali, Telugu and English Periodicals and newspapers in various languages are also supplied to them. Annual Sports are held and prizes awarded to winners. There is also a medical library for the doctors and another for the members of the staff.

In the Rehabilitation Centre of the Aftercare Colony ex-patients are trained in tailoring and typewriting. They are also given training in X-ray and laboratory technique, nursing and office work. Sanatorium poultry is run by an ex-patient.

A good portion of the arid fallow land has been reclaimed and developed for growing rice, wheat, maize and other cereals as well as fruits, vegetables and flower and foliage plants. These agricultural and horticultural activities meet a portion of the requirements of the inmates. The Sanatorium has its own dairy and poultry farm, where milk and eggs required for the patients are produced.

There is a small ward where members of the staff and their families are treated for general diseases. There is an Out-patients' Department mainly for the treatment of patients suffering from tuberculosis*.

Mahadevi Birla T. B. Sanatorium.—It is situated at Ara, about 8 miles east of Ranchi town on Ranchi-Purulia Road, on an extensive site. Initially Dr. Muthu, a former Superintendent of the Itki T. B. Sanatorium, had opened this sanatorium as a private concern with 56 beds. Later, this was taken over by Birlas. The number of beds has now been increased to 100.

Indigenous Medicines.

Ayurvedic Dispensaries.—The District Board (*Zila Parishad*) maintains the following *Ayurvedic* dispensaries: Pithoria (Ranchi thana), Jaldega (Kolebira thana), Jamudag (Sonahatu thana), Katia (Bishunpur thana), Lohardaga and Gumla. The Ranchi Municipality maintains one *Ayurvedic* dispensary. The *Ayurvedic* medicines are popular among tribals as they essentially conform to the traditional pattern of medicines to which the latter have been accustomed.

Homoeopathic Dispensaries.—One of the oldest cheritable homoeopathic dispensaries in the district is maintained by the Ramakrishna Mission *Ashram* at Marabadi hills in Ranchi town since 1930. It treats about 10,000 patients annually. It depends entirely on public charity

* Courtesy: Swami Vedantanandaji, Secretary, Ramakrishna Mission T. B. Sanatorium, Ranchi.

and grants from local bodies and Government. The Ramakrishna Mission T. B. Sanatorium at Dungri also maintains a charitable homoeopathic dispensary since 1951 and nearly 12,000 patients including those from neighbouring villages are being benefited by this annually. The Ranchi Municipality maintains two homoeopathic charitable dispensaries in the town. The Brahmo Samaj of Ranchi also runs a charitable homoeo dispensary.

Organisation of Medical Department.

There are two distinct sections for administration of the Health Department. One, known as the Public Health Department, deals with the preventive side while the other known as Medical Department deals with the curative side. The preventive side is headed by the District Medical Officer of Health and the curative side by the Civil Surgeon, who, being the Senior Executive Medical Officer of the district has a co-ordinating role in respect of health measures*.

The Civil Surgeon, who is a senior member of the State Medical Service, is the Superintendent of all the hospitals and dispensaries in the district excluding Itki T. B. Sanatorium, Mental Asylum at Kanke and Rajendra Medical College Hospital, maintained either by Government or local bodies. He exercises professional control over the Government Medical Officers in the hospitals and dispensaries. He is also expected to guide the mission as well as other private hospitals within the district. He is a member both of the Advisory Committee and the Governing Body of the Rajendra Medical College. He is also responsible for the enforcement of Drug Control Measures, including issue of license for medical shops. He inspects the State dispensaries in the district and also the health centres located in blocks. He is under the administrative control of the Regional Deputy Director of Health Services, Ranchi.

Sanitation and Public Health.

Sanitation in Early Times.—Two factors combine to render the problem of sanitation less acute in Ranchi than in other districts. In the first place the natural drainage, owing to the configuration of the ground, is excellent, and in the second place, there are no very large villages and *bazars*. The main problem is the supply of good drinking water. The town of Ranchi has plenty of good wells, and the water-supply was sufficient for the population before the town became the temporary headquarters of the Local Government in 1912. The increase in the population made it necessary to consider the possibility of a water-supply scheme, but the schemes which had been prepared were too costly to be undertaken. Two small pumping stations were erected, one at Ranchi to supply water to Government House and the quarters occupied by officers, and the

* *See*, Government Circular no. 1I-A3-43 of 1958-59, dated 3rd January, 1959.

other at Hinoo to supply water to the quarters occupied by clerks. The villages relied for their water-supply on rivers, tanks, and *danris,* or springs which are found in the low-lying paddy fields while at the more important *bazars* and villages the District Board constructed masonry wells. Many more such wells were needed, and an increase in their number would have improved greatly the health of the district, by removing one of the chief causes of dysentery and other bowel complaints. In the town of Ranchi considerable improvements were made in the scavenging and conservancy arrangements, but the arrangements were still far from satisfactory and a proper drainage system was urgently needed in the more congested parts. At Bundu and Gumla, Union Committees, financed by the District Board, had been instituted to look after the sanitation of these large *bazars**.

Public Health Organisation.—The Public Health Department was started in this district towards the end of 1940 with the District Health Officer as its head. Till then rural public health administration had been looked after by the Civil Surgeon, who in addition to his own duties, had functioned as the Medical Officer of Health and Superintendent of Vaccination. But until 1943, there was no staff to assist him except an untrained hand, who acted both in office and field. All over this district armed forces were camping at that time. With a view to ensure better health and sanitation for them the strength of the staff was increased to 18, but most of them were untrained. In February, 1943 the Vaccination Department of the State Government was transferred to the District Board and placed under the administrative control of the District Health Officer. The function of this department at that time was mainly confined to control of epidemics, particularly small-pox and cholera. But till the partial implementation of the Interim Rural and Urban Public Health Organisation Scheme by the District Board in 1950, the staff position of the Health Department remained inadequate to cope with the various problems of health. At present (1968) the District Medical Officer of Health is assisted by four Assistant Health Officers, 11 Sanitary Inspectors, 32 Health Inspectors, 65 Vaccinators and 65 Disinfectors.

The *gram panchayats* and health centres in blocks also take active part in educating the masses on sanitation and preventive measures against epidemics, such as, malaria, cholera, small-pox, etc., and also render voluntary service for improving the sanitation and for eradicating epidemics in rural areas.

In the urban areas, the Ranchi Municipality, Doranda Notified Area Committee and the Lohardaga Municipality maintain their services for the upkeep of sanitation and general health of the people within their respective jurisdiction. The health and the sanitary measures of the Ranchi Municipality are in charge of its Medical Officer who is assisted

**Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, pp. 109-110.

by one Chief Sanitary Inspector, four Sanitary Inspectors, one Inoculator, four Conservancy Sub-overseers, 27 Jamadars, eight Vaccinators and six Disinfectors*. The Notified Area Committee, Doranda has a Sanitary Inspector to look after the sanitary arrangements in its area, under the guidance of the Medical Officer of Health of the Ranchi Municipality. The sanitary arrangements of the Lohardaga Municipality are in charge of a Sanitary Inspector who works under the guidance of the District Medical Officer of Health, Ranchi.

In rural areas each thana has a Public Health Centre with one Health Inspector, two Vaccinators and two Disinfectors. There are Sanitary Inspectors to supervise their work, one being in charge of three Health Centres. A number of such centres constitute the Subdivisional Health Centres, each in charge of an Assistant Health Officer.

Public Health Activities.

Anti-Cholera Measures.—The local bodies chalk out programmes for anti-cholera measures just before the onset of epidemic season and follow the same throughout its duration under the supervision of the Medical Officers and the Regional Deputy Director of Health Services, Chota Nagpur. The following table shows the work done by the District Board to control cholera during the period 1958–1962:—

Year.	Inoculation.	Disinfection of wells.
1958	5,33,085	2,69,388
1959	4,37,162	2,40,719
1960	6,06,592	3,11,927
1961	6,26,393	3,28,559
1962	3,57,149	2,04,916

The *Rathayatra* festival at Jagarnathpur and the Murma *mela* at Ratu are held annually in the months of June-July and October-November respectively. There are large gatherings on both the occasions. The Public Health Department of the District Board in collaboration with the Khijri and Ratu Blocks organise and supervise the sanitary arrangements in those *melas.* These include anti-cholera measures in the shape of inoculation, disinfection of water sources in the *mela* area and adjacent villages, supply of pure drinking water, provisions of temporary latrines, proper disposal of refuses, opening of first aid treatment centre, control of foodstuff exhibited for sale and terminal disinfection of water sources in the *mela* area after the *melas* are over. These measures help in preventing outbreak of epidemics during the *mela* period. The health staff also remains alert for prevention of epidemics in the weekly *hats* and *bazars* held in rural areas.

* Source.—Office of the Civil Surgeon, Ranchi.

The anti-cholera campaign also includes other measures, viz., anti-fly measures, control of food-stuff, arrangements for supply of pure water, proper disposal of night soil, isolation and treatment of suspected cases in important fairs and *melas* in the district.

The Food Adulteration Act, 1954 is in force all over the district. Under this Act the Assistant Health Officers and Sanitary and Health Inspectors also function as Food Inspectors for checking food adulteration. Samples of edible articles of food, e.g., *ghee,* mustard oil, *haldi, atta,* etc., are collected and sent for analysis. The percentage of adulteration varies from 30 to 40.

Anti Small-Pox Measures.—Vaccination on mass scale is carried out regularly by local bodies. The following statement shows the work done in this context during 1958–1962*:—

Year.	Primary vaccination.	Re-vaccination.	Total.	Attack.	Death.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1958	51,554	5,80,720	6,32,274	806	202
1959	41,616	3,73,471	4,15,087	348	7
1960	51,838	4,58,407	5,10,245	77	12
1961	37,383	1,20,752	1,58,135	N.A.†	N.A.
1962	44,456	1,31,975	1,76,431	N.A.	N.A.

Water-Supply.—In the areas of Ranchi Municipality and Doranda Notified Area Committee, in addition to supply of drinking water from several *kutcha* and *pucca* wells, piped water is available since 1956-57, both for domestic and non-domestic purposes. The Heavy Engineering Corporation have constructed a reservoir by damming the river Subarnarekha to meet the requirement of drinking water for their township. Otherwise wells, tanks, *danris* and rivers continue to be usual sources of water-supply throughout the district including the municipal areas of Lohardaga. Most of the public wells are *kutcha.* During the last decade a number of *pucca* wells have been constructed for the supply of drinking water in semi-urban and rural areas through the agency of Local Bodies,

* SOURCE.—Civil Surgeon's Office, Ranchi.

† N. A.—Not available.

Revenue, Welfare and Community Development Departments. This has shown some tangible result, but the problem of pure drinking water for public still remains.

Slums.—In the highly congested urban areas, such as Hindpiri. Upper Bazar and Tharpakhana of the Ranchi Municipality, the main *bazar* areas of the Doranda Notified Area Committee and the Lohardaga Municipality, drains are usually *kutcha* and thus fail to work satisfactorily. The existence of old type latrines all over the urban areas and the absence of sufficient number of public urinals and latrines in congested parts of the towns lowers considerably the standard of conservancy arrangements, and thus gives birth to slums which lower the standard of sanitation in Ranchi town. However, sanitary and flush latrines, although small in number, have come into existence during the last decade and their number has been increasing since the introduction of piped water-supply system in the Ranchi town including Doranda, Hinoo and Kanke. Some *pucca* drains have been constructed in certain congested areas, but they are too few in number and lack proper maintenance. A number of drains, soakage pits, dug-well latrines and compost pits have also been constructed in many villages in recent years.

Anti-Malaria Measures.—In 1944 some anti-malaria units came into existence in certain highly affected pockets. These units served both as preventive and curative centres. They were provided with essential equipments for spraying D. D. T. and also with anti-malaria drugs. The result was encouraging and no epidemic of serious consequence occurred thereafter. These units worked with occasional breaks till 1953 when a comprehensive National Malaria Control Programme was inaugurated in the district. It covered the whole district and also a portion of Palamau. As a result of widespread spraying with D. D. T. there has been a tremendous change and malaria has now become rather uncommon in the district. The result stimulated the launching of a more ambitious plan recently and the National Malaria Eradication Programme has been started in the district with more elaborate arrangements*.

Another important activity of this department is health education. The department has got a special section which is provided with models, posters, leaflets and magic lantern, etc. Health weeks are observed and health exhibitions are held regularly on important occasions and in suitable places. The campaign appears to have made some impact in rural areas, particularly on younger generations for better health.

* The incidence of malaria is comparatively less in plain lands of the district than in the forested plateau areas, having marshy river valleys. The endemic and hyperendemic areas include Bishunpur, Thethaitangar, Kolebira, Kurdeg, Chainpur, Tamar and Bundu thanas.

Expenditure.

The following statement shows the expenditure over the maintenance of Government medical institutions and prevention and control of major sources of afflictions*:—

	1965-66. (In Rs.)	1966-67. (In Rs.)
1. Ranchi Medical College Hospital	12,44,367	15,19,500
2. Itki Sanatorium	2,62,300	2,70,500
3. State Dispensaries	10,45,541	13,64,786
4. Malaria	1,10,08,664	1,17,93,900
5. Small-Pox	40,27,379	30,87,660
6. Cholera	14,90,101	14,20,422
7. Emergency Cholera Hospital ..	5,334	3,164
Total ..	1,90,83,686	1,94,59,932

Red Cross.

The Red Cross, as elsewhere, plays an important role in the relief of suffering of the people. Among its activities health exhibitions, baby show, blood donation and milk feeding programme for children may specially be mentioned.

Family Planning.

It is a scheme sponsored by Government with a view to achieve balance between birth and death rates so that population may be kept within reasonable bounds. The Church, however, is averse to artificial methods of birth-control. As already mentioned, Government have been running four Family Planning Centres. The Ranchi Municipality also runs one such centre in its hospital at Ratu Road. There is a family planning centre, sponsored by Central Government at Shri Nagarmal Modi Seva Sadan, Ranchi.

Private Hospitals and Nursing Homes.

Formerly this district had little attraction for private practitioners in modern medicines and surgery, as people, by and large, were not medical-minded and believed in primitive methods of cure. On the creation of the province of Bihar and Orissa in 1912 when the capital was temporarily located at Ranchi, it attracted people other than Government employees to settle in this town, and this appears to have inspired some private

* Source.—Office of the Director of Health Services, Bihar, Patna.

medical practitioners, mostly from Bengal, to establish their practice here. As the town of Ranchi and Doranda kept on growing, more of them settled here and in post-1960 era it has given great incentive to specialists from all over the country to start their private clinics and nursing homes in this town and its suburbs. At present a fair number of them in various branches of medicines and surgery are to be found at Ranchi and a few also in smaller urban centres such as Lohardaga, Khunti, Gumla, etc. Among the most outstanding private nursing homes, one for mental patients has already been referred to above. There are a number of specialist maternity homes located in various parts of the town where modern treatment is available. After the establishment of Rajendra Medical College private clinics have multiplied. There is a Nature Cure Home (*Arogya Bhavan*), located at Bariatu, Ranchi where cure of ailment is attempted through regulated diet, rest, fresh air, sun-bath, etc. The practitioners in indigenous medicines, namely, Ayurvedic and Unani are not much in evidence.

Indian Medical Association.

There is a branch of Indian Medical Association at Ranchi. Due to the opening of the Rajendra Medical College and some other important medical institutions in Ranchi town, there is a large number of physicians and Surgeons; most of whom are members of this organisation. Besides, the town has a number of private practitioners, who are also its members. The main objective of the Association is to encourage medical research and ethics and ventilate professional grievances of the practitioners. The branch takes interest in organising health weeks, popular lectures and medical exhibitions. It also renders free medical services in times of emergency.

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES.

Labour Welfare.

The welfare measures generally include : (1) housing, (2) medical and educational facilities, (3) nutrition including provision of canteens, (4) facilities for rest and recreation, (5) Co-operative Societies, (6) day nurseries and creches, (7) provision for sanitary accommodation, (8) paid holidays and (9) social insurance measures, undertaken voluntarily by employers, alone or jointly with workers, including sickness and maternity benefit, provident fund, gratuities and pensions, etc.

These measures may be divided into three categories : (1) statutory, i.e., measures which must be compulsorily provided for as the legal minimum; (2) voluntary, i.e., activities which are undertaken by employers on their own initiative; and (3) mutual, i.e., activities which the workers themselves sponsor and promote for their own benefit.

The labour force of the Ranchi district may be classified as (*a*) agricultural, (*b*) industrial, and (*c*) commercial. However, except the technical labour employed in industries, other categories are not well-defined.

Females and children also help in agricultural operations. Their wages are usually paid in cash and some doles. Their habitations are not fixed and their employment also is not assured. They are usually employed for particular agricultural operation and on the average get employment for 6 to 8 months in a year. Their wages are usually less than that of the industrial labour.

Conciliation.—The conciliation machinery of the State Government looks into the labour problems of the district and in recent years it has successfully intervened in the disputes raised by different organisations of workers. As a result, the industrial labour has secured benefits in respect of (1) bonus, (2) payment of retrenched reliefs, (3) reinstatement and re-employment of discharged workers, (4) holidays, (5) revision of scales of pay and (6) welfare amenities, etc.

Welfare Legislation.—The Minimum Wages Act, 1948 has been enforced in the district since 1955. It regulates the payment of wages to certain classes of persons employed in industry and provides for the fixation of wages. The Factories Act, 1948 provides for health, safety and welfare of the workers. The Bihar Shops and Establishments Act, 1951 regulates the conditions of work in shops, commercial establishments, theatres, restaurants, etc. The Maternity Benefit Act, 1948 provides for the grant

of benefits to female workers for specified period before and after confinement. The Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 provides for the investigation and settlement of industrial disputes.

Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923.—The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923 provides for compensation for death, partial or total disablement, whether permanent or temporary caused either by accident or by occupational diseases in course of and arising out of employment. The compensation for temporary disablement is given in the form of fortnightly payments commencing from the eighth day of disablement. A lump sum is payable in case of permanent, total or partial disablement or death at a rate fixed in proportion to the monthly wages of a worker. The employees, whose wages come to Rs. 400 or more are not covered by the Act. Besides, any person who is covered by the Employees State Insurance Act of 1948 and is entitled to disablement or dependent's benefits from the State Insurance Corporation is not entitled to any compensation under this Act. The compensation is to be paid by the employers.

The table below shows the number of adults in each wage class to whom or in respect of whose death compensation was awarded or disbursed in this district*:—

Monthly wages of the workers.		For temporary disablement.		For permanent disablement.		For fatal accident.		Total.	
More than	But not more than	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
				Year 1965					
Rs.	Rs.								
70	80	..	..	2	..	20	..	22	..
				Year 1966					
30	35	..	..	..	..	2	..	2	..
35	40	..	..	..	..	7	..	7	..
40	45	..	...	..	..	1	..	1	..
60	70	3	1	1	..	..	..	4	1
70	80	1	3	1	4	..	..	2	7
80	100	1	1	6	1	2	1	9	3
100	200	..	..	4	5	2	..	6	5

* Source.—Labour Department, Government of Bihar, Patna.

The following table gives details regarding the rates of compensation payable in certain cases:—

Monthly wages of the workmen injured.		Amount of compensation for—		Half-monthly payment as compensation for temporary disablement.
More than	But not more than	Death.	Permanent total disablement.	
1	2	3	4	5
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
0	10	1,000	1,400	Half his monthly wage.
10	13	1,100	1,540	Ditto.
13	18	1,200	1,680	6.50
18	21	1,260	1,764	7.00
21	24	1,440	2,016	8.00
24	27	1,620	2,268	8.50
27	30	1,800	2,520	9.50
30	35	2,100	2,940	9.50
35	40	2,400	3,360	10.00
40	45	2,700	3,780	15.00
45	50	3,000	4,200	13.00
50	60	3,800	5,840	18.50
60	70	4,200	5,880	18.50
70	80	4,800	6,720	20.00
80	100	6,000	8,400	26.00
100	150	7,000	9,800	37.50
150	200	7,000	9,800	52,50
200	300	8,000	11,200	60.00
300	400	9,000	12,600	75.00
400	..	10,000	14,000	87.50

The Employees State Insurance Act, 1948 provides for benefits in respect of sickness, maternity disablement and medical facilities. The labour welfare work thus covers a wide range of activities and in its present form is widely recognised and is regarded as an integral part of the industrial systems and management.

Factory Labour.—There are about 421 registered factories in 1966-67 excluding the collieries in the district, employing about 19,211 workers*. A number of unregistered establishments employing a large number of workers have also sprung up in the district.

Labour in Shops and Establishment.—The labourers in shops and establishments are roughly calculated to be about 75,000. They are engaged in cloth shops, hotels, cinema houses, *pan. biri,* sweetmeat shops, etc. According to the Bihar Shops and Establishment Act, 1953, shops have to be registered. This Act has been enforced in Ranchi, Lohardaga, Gumla and Doranda. Up to July 1967, 6,068 shops were registered. These labourers are mostly residents at Ranchi, Doranda, Lohardaga, Gumla, Simdega, Khunti, etc. They have one holiday a week and work for a fixed period of time.

Agency of Administration.—The labour laws in the State are administered by the Department of Labour headed by the Labour Commissioner. The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948 and the Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, are, however, administered under the direction of the Employees' State Insurance Corporation and the Regional Provident Fund Commissioner respectively. The Labour Commissioner is assisted by the Chief Inspector of Factories and in the districts by Labour Officers and Inspectors. In the Ranchi district, the Inspectors of Factories at Ranchi enforce the provisions for the safety, health and welfare of labour under the Factories Act, 1948, and allied enactments. One Labour Superintendent and two Labour Officers are posted in Ranchi. The Labour Officer looks after the welfare of workmen in different industrial establishments in the district. Housing, recreation, education and sanitary facilities for workers are his main charge. The Labour Officers are assisted by 13 Labour Inspectors.

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948.—The aim of this Act is to fix minimum wages in certain employments. Agricultural workers are covered by part II of the Schedule of the Act and it was enforced in Ranchi district in 1955. The Labour Officer posted at Ranchi has been appointed Inspecting Officer under the Act for proper implementation of its provisions in the agricultural sector. He is assisted by five Labour Inspectors. The following minimum rates of wages have been fixed for agricultural labourers engaged in different agricultural operations:—

(1) Three *seers* 4 *chhataks* of paddy and 4 *chhataks of murhi* or *sattu* per day to adult employees for plantation of paddy and also for ploughing.

(2) Two *seers* 4 *chhataks* of paddy and 4 *chhataks* of *murhi* or *sattu* per day to child employees for plantation of paddy and also for ploughing.

* Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Ranchi, 1966-67.

During 1964, 1965, 1966 and 1967 (up to July) 4, 7, 3 and 5 claim petitions were filed respectively. The Labour Inspectors are making the agricultural labourers conscious of their rights through publicity. However, as the agricultural labour is largely illiterate and disorganised, it cannot bargain successfully to enforce the prescribed minimum rates. Only the comparative scarcity of labour in view of the urgency of agricultural operations (e.g., transplantation) may be an effective check to secure the best terms for it.

The population of labour force exclusively devoted to agricultural pursuits in the district is roughly calculated to be about 10,000*. Out of this about 2,000 are regular labourers and the rest casual. Usually they are drawn from the villages in the neighbourhood and go back home in the evening after work.

Welfare Measures in Industrial Undertakings

Heavy Engineering Corporation Ltd.—In accordance with the principle that a healthy, educated and contented labour force is capable of greater production over longer periods, the corporation has organised welfare measures on modern scientific lines, as prevalent in advanced industrial countries of the world, for their labour force as also managerial services. A 200-bedded hospital has been built, which is equipped with a modern X'ray Plant, Electro-Cardiograph, Air-conditioned operation theatre, Maternity centre, Dental, Eye, Ear, Nose, Throat and Physio-Theraphy Departments, a Pathological Laboratory and out-patient departments with dispensing facilities at various centres. A family planning unit has also been organised. In addition, an Industrial Health Department including Public Health has been set up to look after the sanitary and hygienic measures.

Adequate facilities for the education of the children of the employees have been provided. At present the Corporation is running one higher secondary school, four Hindi medium middle schools, besides two montessory schools. It is proposed to start more schools in different sectors synchronising with the programme of construction of the township.

Two creches have been provided in the factory area for the benefit of the children of the woman labourers employed by the Corporation and the contractors. The children are looked after in healthy and pleasant surroundings under the care of experienced Labour Inspectors and staff. They are given free meals, milk, biscuits, rice, *dal*, etc., and toys to play with.

* Source.—Labour Office, Ranchi.

This works roughly to less than 0,2 per cent of the population and may perhaps be an underestimate.

Canteen facilities have been provided both at the office and within the factory premises. A co-operative society has been formed to run consumer co-operative stores for the benefit of the employees. The Corporation has set up a number of Fair Price Shops, which sell food-grains to the employees at controlled rates.

While regular *Kalyan Kendras* and clubs are being planned, the employees with grants-in-aid from the Corporation, have established social centres in the residential areas which provide indoor and outdoor recreational facilities. A sports committee has been constituted to promote games and sports, e.g., football, hockey and volley-ball. The employees are encouraged to organise and stage entertainment programmes. About 7,500 quarters have been provided by the Corporation to house the employees of various categories.

Muri Aluminium Works.—Its canteen is adequately equipped with all modern facilities and is run on non-profit basis. A cup of tea is served free to each employee every day. The canteen also supplies tiffin (costing 6 annas per head per day) to all the employees. The company runs a well-equipped dispensary with one doctor for the employees and provides them free treatment. It also runs a higher secondary school for the employees' children. There is a children's park. Games such as football, hockey, volley-ball and annual athletic meet are financed by the company. Tennis, badminton and other indoor activities are also encouraged with substantial monetary help. The company also provides free open air cinema shows twice a month. There is a well planned colony. Nearly 90 per cent of the employees have been housed and get electricity and water free of cost.

The statement below shows the welfare facilities in certain other factories in the district:—

Name of the factory	Welfare facilities
1. Cement Factory, Khelari ..	Canteen, two creches, dispensary, one middle school, recreation club, housing facility to 700 employees.
2. Bharat Ball Bearing Company, Ltd., Ratu.	Canteen, a small dispensary, one upper primary school, one recreation club.
3. M/s. Usha Martin Wire Rope, Ltd., Tatisilwai.	Canteen, recreation club, one lower primary school for girls, housing facility for 50 employees.
4. Indian Aluminium Company, Bagru.	Canteen, a small dispensary, a middle school, housing facility for about 200 employees.

For the welfare of the workers, a Welfare Officer has been appointed by each of these factories as also Muri Aluminium Works and the Heavy Engineering Corporation.

Welfare Centres.—There are two welfare centres, one in Dhurwa and the other at Palandu, maintained by the State Labour Department. The Labour Welfare Officer in Ranchi town is in charge of these centres which provide social, cultural and physical amenities to the workers. No welfare centre is run by private employers.

The welfare centre at Dhurwa has a daily attendance of about 100 visitors. There is a library, a recreation centre with arrangement for indoor and outdoor games. There is also a handicraft centre for the females.

The welfare centre at Palandu has a recreation club and a small dispensary.

Tribal Welfare.

There are 29 different tribes in Ranchi district, and their total population, according to 1961 census, is 1,317,513. They are in different stages of development, majority being backward and poor.

The State of Bihar has a Minister exclusively for the welfare of tribals and the members of the Scheduled Castes. A Tribal Advisory Council has been set up in Bihar to advise on matters concerning the development of Scheduled Tribes. A Central Advisory Board has also been set up to associate members of Parliament and public workers with matters pertaining to the development of tribal areas and the well-being of the Scheduled Tribes, as also to advise the Government of India on all matters concerning the welfare of the Scheduled Tribes. For the welfare of the Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and other Backward Communities, one District Welfare Officer, one Assistant Welfare Officer and 39 Welfare Inspectors have been appointed in this district. Besides, the Central Government has also appointed an Assistant Commissioner for Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes with headquarters at Ranchi.

A number of tribal welfare schemes have been completed and some are under execution in the district for which the Union Government gives grants-in-aid to the State. The educational concession given to tribal boys and girls include free tuition, stipends, scholarships and grants for books, stationery and other equipments. Special hostels have been constructed at a number of places and facilities for their admission in schools, colleges and university have been provided. Emphasis is being laid on vocational and technical training. The Tribal Research Institute and Tribal Orientation Centre for intensive studies of tribal arts, culture and customs, have been set up at Ranchi.

To a very large extent their economic improvement is linked to the raising of the level of agriculture and freeing them from indebtedness to usurious *mahajans*. Some measures have been adopted in both these directions. Wherever settled cultivation exists, stress is laid on providing better facilities for irrigation, supply of fertilizer and improved seeds, better agricultural implements and credit on easy terms for the adoption of improved methods of agriculture. The shifting cultivation is also on decline due to rehabilitation of the nomadic tribes, such as Birhors, Birjias, etc.

Steps have also been taken to encourage the development of cottage industries through loans and subsidies. A number of multi-purpose co-operative societies have been started to provide credit in cash and kind to the members of the Scheduled Tribes*. A number of grain *golas* have been opened to advance loans of grains to tribal cultivators to free them from the clutches of village *mahajans*.

Specific quotas are reserved for the Scheduled Castes and Tribes in legislature and in Government services, both State and Union. Minimum age-limit for competitive examinations has also been raised in their favour and examination or application fee chargeable is half of the usual fee or even less.

Prohibition.

There is no prohibition in Ranchi district, as indeed anywhere else in Bihar. Drinking at religious rituals and also as a matter of habit is universal among the tribals.

The Adivasis are traditionally accustomed to brew *handia* (rice-beer) in their homes, which is popularly regarded as a kind of food and also a mark of courtesy when offered to guests. Distillery liquor has, however, become common and its increasing incidence is detrimental to the slender economy of the tribals.

The Government has tried indirectly to curtail the consumption of liquor and drugs by increasing their price. But the increase in prices has not proved a deterrent. The revenue from excise has gone up progressively†. More and more liquor shops have been opened in the interior and vendors take liquor on ponies even to distant villages to cater it to tribals and others.

The consumption of opium has been restricted through medical certificate. Only the old addicts can get it.

* Co-operative Societies are also being run by Christian Mission in the village. They exclusively benefit the Christian tribals.

† *See*, the Chapter on 'Revenue Administration'

Industrialisation has brought many foreigners to Ranchi, who are used to foreign liquors. The industrial population in higher income-groups, by and large, are also gradually becoming addict to them. The consumption of foreign liquor has been increasing since 1960.

Grain Golas.—To provide cheap credit for the tribals and Scheduled Castes, grain *golas* have been established by Welfare Department to supply seeds at 10 per cent interest. There were 159 such grain *golas* spread all over the district in 1967.

The number of the grain golas (blockwise) in 1965 was as follows*:—

Lohardaga (4), Kisko (3), Senha (3), Kuru (4), Burmu (3), Mandar (5), Bero (3), Lapung (3), Ratu (3), Kanke (3), Khijri (4), Ormanjhi (3), Silli (3), Angara (4), Chanho (3), Khunti (4), Torpa (3), Murhu (4), Karra (6), Tamar (5), Erki (5), Sonahatu (5), Bundu (5), Gumla (4), Raidih (3), Basia (4), Konbir (3), Sisai (6), Ghaghra (8), Palkot (4), Chainpur (3), Dumri (3), Bishunpur (6), Simdega (7), Kolebira (5), Thethaitangar (2), Kurdeg (4), Bolba (4), Bano (3), and Jaldega (3).

Agricultural Subsidy.—During 1966-67 agricultural subsidy worth Rs. 4,21,525 was granted to Scheduled Tribes and Rs. 51,000 to Scheduled Castes. These subsidies are meant for the purchase of bullocks, manures and seeds.

Housing Scheme.—Construction of houses is sanctioned at an estimated cost of Rs. 1,250 per house out of which the Government contributes Rs. 937.50 per house.

During the years 1957-58 to 1963-64 the number of houses taken up for construction for Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes in Ranchi district was 1,250 of which 450 were under the State Plan and 800 under the Central Plan. During this period the Central Government spent Rs. 7,60,000 and the State Government Rs. 4,20,000 for the construction of the houses of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes. Since 1964 this scheme has been stopped.

Education.—Arrangement has been made to encourage education among Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and other Backward Communities by giving them free tuition, stipends, book grants, free hostel accommodation, etc.

Thirty-six schools have been opened in the district for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes to impart free education. They are located in Ranchi, Gumla, Simdega, Khunti, Kolebira, Murhu, Kurdeg, Sonahatu, Dumri, Jobhipat, Sakhuapani, Jogahatu, Govindpur, Tamar, Simdega. Patratoli, Ormanjhi, Ratu, Bero, Irba, Joran, Macca, Senha etc.

* Source.—District Welfare Office, Ranchi.

The Welfare Department gave Rs. 1,47,000, Rs. 94,000 and Rs. 1,23,099 respectively as stipend to the school students of the Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and Backward Classes till 1966-67 in this district.

An amount of Rs. 24,000, Rs. 72,373, Rs. 87,603 respectively had been given to the students of Secondary classes of the Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and the Backward Classes in 1966-67. Besides, in 1966-67 an amount of Rs. 14,000, Rs. 1,900 and Rs. 2,000 respectively was given to college students of the above categories.

Hostels.—The State Government have also constructed some hostels for them. At present (1967) there are 36 hostels in the district.

Communication.—A scheme of hill paths has been executed linking the inaccessible interior to the developed areas.

Charitable Endowments

In order to provide for better administration of Hindu Religious Trusts and for protection and preservation of properties of such trusts in Bihar, 'The Bihar Hindu Religious Trusts Act, 1950' was passed and it came into force in 1952 in Ranchi district. All public trusts and endowments made by Hindus in the district are now administered by the Bihar State Board of Religious Trusts. 98 trusts of Ranchi district have been registered up to May, 1965 and notices under section 59 of the Act have been issued to 27 trustees for submitting the statement of income and expenditure. Besides, the Board is also making efforts to discover new trusts for taking them under its control. Some of important trusts in the district are as follows:—

(1) *Shri Saligram Ram Janki Radha Krishna Panch Deva Garja Thakurbari Trust, Simdega.*—One Shri Sheo Shankar Sahu of Simdega executed a deed of trust of his property to Ram, Janki and Radha Krishan Thakur Bari. He erected a temple at village Garja in Simdega subdivision and spent Rs. 18,000. In 1950s the gross income of the Thakur Bari was about Rs. 35,000 per annum. There was a title suit filed by Raja of Biru against Ramautar Sahu, a relative of late Sheo Shankar Sahu, but there was a compromise.

The income of the trust for the temple has been as follows: 1959 (Rs. 1,783), 1960 (Rs. 2,373), 1961 (Rs. 3,403), 1962 (Rs. 2,532), 1963 (Rs. 23,950), 1964 (Rs. 7,821) and 1965 (Rs. 3,700).

(2) *Kharia Trust Estate.*—It was sponsored by Banwari Lal Sahu at Lohardaga in 1961 for supplying funds to the hospitals, schools, etc., in Lohardaga town for the benefit of the females only. The trust also helps the poor Hindu females for their maintenance, education, marriage, etc.

The income of the trust was as follows : 1952 (Rs. 401), 1953 (Rs. 523), 1954 (Rs. 3,360), 1955 (Rs. 7,710).

(3) *Shri Ram Sati Trust.*—It was started in 1957 at Pahari Tola, in Ranchi town by Govind Ram Mandaliya, who executed a deed of trust of his property worth Rs. 11,000 for erecting a Sati Mandir at the same place for religious performance.

(4) *Old Shivalaya.*—It was sponsored in 1963 by Mahanth Gaya Prakash Naga Babaji who donated about 4 acres of land in Ranchi town out of which 2 acres have been donated to the State Sanskrit College, Ranchi. Its income in 1963-64 was Rs. 1,875 only.

In addition to the trusts mentioned above there are Devi Mandap Trust at Lohardaga, Shiva Mandir and Ram Mandir Trusts at village Sonse, Thakur Radha Mohan Mandir Trust at village Lauakerai (Gumla subdivision), Phul Bawa Trust in Ranchi town, Sri Shivji Hissapuri Trust at village Luanagawi in Lohardaga police-station, Palur Toli Trust in Ranchi town, Jagarnath Mandir Trust at village Targa in Kolebira police-station, Jagdish Thakur Bari Trust in Lohardaga, Radha Krishna Thakur-bari in Burmu police-station, Durga Mandir Trust in Ranchi town. Radha Krishna Mandir Trust in Ranchi town and Basudeo Rai Mandir Trust at Lohardaga. They are contributing towards the running of schools and some religious institutions.

The public trusts and endowments made by Muslims are governed by Bihar Waqfs Act, 1947 which came into force in 1948. It appears that no waqf has so far been registered in the district.

CHAPTER XVIII.

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS.

Public Life.

Representation in Local Bodies.—The beginning of representative public life in the district may be traced to the Local Self-Government Act, 1885 which provided for elections to the local bodies, namely, Municipality and District Board. The first election to the Ranchi Municipality was held in 1913 and that to the Ranchi District Board in 1923-24. The Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi continued to be *ex-officio* Chairman of the District Board till 1939 when the first non-official Chairman, late P. K. Banerji, Advocate, was elected. It may be noted that franchise was then based on property qualification and therefore, only a small percentage of people could participate in the election to the District Board and those who contested, were usually well-to-do persons of feudal aristocracy. The Government used to nominate a number of members to these local bodies and so these organisations could not be said to be fully elective. The Second World War (1939—45) and later the problems in post-Independence era delayed elections to these bodies. Ultimately, in 1964 the Zila Parishad replaced the District Board, with an elective head called *Adhyaksha,* who is elected by the *Pramukhs* of the *Panchayat Samities,* co-extensive with the corresponding Extension Blocks. The *Pramukhs* are elected from amongst *Mukhiyas* of the *Panchayats,* in respective blocks. The *Mukhiyas* in turn are elected on the basis of universal franchise, open to all adult persons, both males and females, who are of 21 years of age and above and residents in the *Panchayat* concerned

Representation in Legislature.—Representative Government was partially introduced under the Government of India Act, 1919 which created a Central Legislature consisting of a Council of State and a Legislative Assembly for three years from its inception. The Act also created a Legislative Council in every Governor's Province including Bihar and Orissa (as the Province was then constituted). Normally the duration of this Council was for 3 years.

The Government of India Act, 1919 was replaced by the Government of India Act, 1935. The Central Legislature continued as before, but the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council was abolished. Orissa was created a new province and bi-cameral legislature for Bihar was introduced, consisting of a Legislative Assembly and a Legislative Council, the normal duration for the former being 5 years. The Bihar Legislative Council was a permanent body, one-third of its members retiring

every third year. The franchise was broadened and special representation was provided for Commerce, Industry, Mining, Planting, Labour, Land-holders, University, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. As a result the constituencies were of diverse nature and qualification for membership varied except in respect of age.

The first general elections under the Government of India Act, 1935 were held in January 1937, both for the Central and the Provincial Assemblies. The following table shows the names of contesting parties, constituencies and successful candidates from Ranchi district constituencies to Bihar Legislative Assembly:—*

Names of Parties.	Name of Constituency.	Names of members returned.
Coalition Party ..	Ranchi-*cum*-Singhbhum Mohammedan Rural. ..	Shri Shaik Ramzan Ali.
Ditto ..	Gumla-*cum*-Simdega General Rural. ..	Shri Bara Lal Kandarp Nath Shah Deo.
Ditto ..	Chota Nagpur Division Landlords.	Maharaj Kumar Brajkishore Nath Shah Deo.
Ditto ..	Gumla-*cum*-Simdega General Rural (Reserved Seat).	Shri Boniface Lakra.
Ditto ..	Chota Nagpur European. ..	Shri B. Wilson Haigh.
Ditto ..	Chota Nagpur Division Mohammedan Urban. ..	Shri S. Mohiuddin Ahmad.
Congress ..	Ranchi Sadar General Rural. ..	Shri Deoki Nandan Prasad.
Ditto ..	Ranchi Sadar General Rural (Reserved Seat).	Shri Ram Bhagat.
Ditto ..	Chota Nagpur Division General Urban ..	Shri Jimut Bahan Sen.

The following members resident of Ranchi district were elected to the Legislative Council†:—

Name of Party.	Name of Constituency.	Names of Members elected.
No Party ..	Ranchi and Palamau-*cum*-Singhbhum General.	Rai Sahib Nalini Kumar Sen
Ditto ..	Khunti General.	Shri Purna Chandra Mitra.
Muslim Independent Party.	Gaya-*cum*-Chota Nagpur Division Mohammedan. ..	Shri Syed Naqui Imam.

The following were elected to the Central Assembly‡:—

Name of Party.	Name of Constituency.	Names of Members elected.
Party not mentioned.	Chota Nagpur Division Non-Mohammedan	Shri Ram Narain Singh.
Ditto ..	Patna Chota Nagpur-*cum*-Orissa (Mohammedan).	Shri Nauman Mohammad.

* SOURCE.—*Bihar in* 1937-38, published by the Director of Publicity, Bihar, 1947, pp. Appendix—i—ix.

† *Ibid.*

On the conclusion of the Second World War, the next general elections were held in March 1946. The following table shows the names of the constituencies and successful candidates returned to the Bihar Legislative Assembly:—*

Ranchi Sadar General (Rural)—Shri Deoki Nandan Prasad.

Ranchi Sadar General (Rural) (Reserved)—Shri Soma Bhagat.

Gumla-*cum*-Simdega General (Rural)—Shri Jagat Mal Modi.

Gumla-*cum*-Simdega General (Rural) (Reserved)—Rai Sahib Bundi Ram Oraon.

Khunti General (Rural)—Dr. Purna Chandra Mitra.

Chota Nagpur Mohammedan (Urban)—Khan Sahib Saiyid Mazhar Imam.

Ranchi-*cum*-Singhbhum Mohammedan (Rural)—Shri Abdul Qaiyum Ansari.

Chota Nagpur (European)—Shri G. W. Hogg.

Chota Nagpur Division (Land-holders)—Raja Bahadur Kamakhya Narain Singh.

General Elections, 1952.

After India became Republic on 26th January 1950, the first general elections, both for the House of People and the State Assembly were held between the period 15th November 1951 and 24th January 1952†.

Vidhan Sabha (*Legislative Assembly*).—The district was divided into 14 constituencies for the election to the *Vidhan Sabha.* Of these, Ranchi was a double-member constituency and the other 13 constituencies, namely, Mandar, Silli, Sonahatu, Tamar, Bero, Gumla, Basia, Khunti, Kolebira, Simdega, Chainpur, Sissai and Lohardaga were single-member constituency. In the Ranchi double-member constituency, one seat was general and the other was reserved for the Scheduled Castes. The political parties that participated in the election were Congress, Jharkhand, Socialist, Janata, Forward Block (Marxist), Communist and Praja Socialist Party. In all 59 candidates including Independents contested for the 15 seats.

The total electorate in the Ranchi district in 1952 Assembly election was 8,84,194 and the total number of votes cast was 4,37,246, i.e., about 49.4 per cent of the total votes in the district.

* *Proceedings of the Second Bihar Legislative Assembly,* Vol. I, pp. 1—7.

† *See, Report on the First General Election under the Constitution of India in* Bihar, 1951-52, pp. 1, 3 and 7.

The number of candidates set up by the different parties and the seats won are given below*:—

Names of parties.	No. of candidates set up.	No. of seats won.
1. Congress	15	3
2. Jharkhand	15	11
3. Socialist .. .	4	Nil.
4. Janata	10	1
5. Forward Block (Marxist) ..	1	Nil.
6. Communist	1	Nil.
7. Praja Socialist ..	1	Nil.
8. Independent	12	Nil.
	59	15

Lok Sabha (*Parliament*)—In 1952 there were two reserved Parliamentary constituencies, namely, Ranchi North-East and Ranchi West for the Scheduled Tribes. Besides, there was one double-member constituency, namely Palamau-*cum*-Hazaribagh-*cum*-Ranchi which included some areas of the Ranchi district. The political parties which contested the Parliamentary seats were Congress, Socialist, Janata, Forward Block (Marxist) and Jharkhand.

The total electorate was 13,61,555 and the number of votes cast was 5,94,064, i.e., about 43.6 per cent of the total votes.

The number of candidates set up by the different parties for the four seats in the *Lok Sabha* and the number of seats won are as follows†:—

Names of parties.	No. of candidates set up.	No. of seats won.
1. Congress	4	3
2. Socialist	3	Nil.
3. Janata	3	Nil.
4. Forward Block (Marxist) ..	1	Nil.
5. Jharkhand	3	1
6. Independent	4	Nil.
	18	4

* *Report on the First General Elections under the Constitution of India in Bihar* (1951-52), pp. 62-63.

† *Ibid*, pp. 38-39.

General Elections, 1957.

Vidhan Sabha (*Legislative Assembly*).—The district was divided into 13 constituencies for the election to *Vidhan Sabha*. Out of them Ranchi and Mandar were double-member constituencies and the rest, namely, Tamar, Silli, Ranchi Sadar, Khunti, Torpa, Kolebira, Simdega, Chainpur, Gumla, Sissai and Lohardaga were single-member constituencies. The political parties which contested for the seats were Congress, Jharkhand and Janata. In all 60 candidates including Independents contested for the 15 seats.

The total electorate for the Assembly elections in the district was 9,03,315 and the total number of votes cast was 4,04,745, i.e., about 44.8 per cent of the total votes.

The number of candidates set up by the different parties, the number of the Independent candidates and the number of seats won by them are given below*:—

Names of parties.	No. of candidates set up.	No. of seats won.
Congress	15	2
Jharkhand	15	12
Janata	3	Nil.
Independent	27	1
	60	15

Lok Sabha (*Parliament*).—During the General Elections of 1957 there were three *Lok Sabha* or Parliamentary constituencies, i.e., Ranchi East, Ranchi West and Lohardaga. In the General Elections of 1952, as mentioned earlier, there were only two Parliamentary constituencies, namely, Ranchi North-East and Ranchi West while there was one common constituency for the districts of Ranchi, Palamau and Hazaribagh. But in 1957 there was a Lohardaga Parliamentary constituency. Thus in 1957 there were three parliamentary seats within the district itself.

The political parties which contested the Parliamentary seats were Congress and Jharkhand. The two seats, i.e., Ranchi East and Lohardaga were won by Independent candidates and the third, i.e., Ranchi West, by Jharkhand Party. The total number of voters was 10,53,405 and the total votes cast was 4,58,316, i.e., about 43.5 per cent of the electorate.

* *Report on the Second General Elections in Bihar* (1956-57), pp. 185—187.

The number of candidates set up by the different parties for the three seats in the *Lok Sabha* (Parliament) and the number of seats won by them are as follows:—

Names of parties.	No. of candidates set up.	No. of seats won.
1. Congress	3	Nil.
2. Jharkhand	1	1
3. Independent	12	2
	16	3

The results of the 1957 election showed some different trends. The Jharkhand Party secured 12 seats out of 15 in the *Vidhan Sabha* as against 11 in 1952 while the Congress could take only 2 seats as against 3 in 1952 and the Independent candidates only one. Of the two seats secured by the Congress, one was Silli and the other one out of the Ranchi double-member constituency. The Congress lost its Mandar seat, won in 1952, to the Jharkhand Party.

The Congress could not secure any Parliamentary seat in 1957 although in the previous election it had won three seats. The Jharkhand Party got one seat as in the election of 1952 and the Independents won two seats in the Parliament, though in the previous election no seats had gone to them.

General Elections, 1962.

Vidhan Sabna (*Legislative Assembly*).—As before, this district had 15 constituencies for election to the *Vidhan Sabha.* Of these Tamar, Khunti, Torpa, Kolebira, Simdega, Chainpur, Gumla, Sissai, Lohardaga and Bero were reserved constituencies for the Scheduled Tribes and Sonahatu for the Scheduled Castes. The other constituencies, namely, Ranchi, Silli, Ranchi Sadar and Mandar were general constituencies. The political parties which participated in the election were Congress, Jharkhan, Swatantra, Jansangh and Communist. In all 73 candidates including Independents contested these seats.

The total electorate was 10,05,770 and the total votes cast were 4,13,366, i.e., about 39.1 per cent of the total votes.

The number of candidates set up in the district by the different parties and the number of seats won by them are given below*:—

Names of parties.	No. of candidates set up.	No. of seats won.
Congress	15	2
Jharkhand	15	7
Swatantra†	15	6
Jansangh	1	Nil.
Communist	1	Nil.
Independent	26	Nil.
	73	15

Lok Sabha (*Parliament*).—In 1962 there were three Parliamentary constituencies, i.e., Ranchi East, Ranchi West and Lohardaga. Ranchi West and Lohardaga Parliamentary constituencies were reserved for the Scheduled Tribes. The parties which contested the Parliamentary seats were Congress, Jharkhand and Swatantra. Two seats, i.e., Ranchi East and Lohardaga (reserved for the Scheduled Tribes) were won by the Swatantra party while the third seat, i.e., Ranchi West (Reserved for the Scheduled Tribes) went to Jharkhand party.

The total electorate was 11,62,928 and the total votes cast were 4,62,251. i.e., about 46 per cent of the electorate.

The number of candidates set up by different parties for the three seats in the *Lok Sabha* and seats won by them are as follows‡:—

Names of parties.	No. of candidates set up.	No. of seats won.
Congress	3	Nil.
Jharkhand	3	1
Swatantra	3	2
Independent	5	Nil.
..	14	3

* *Report on the Third General Elections in Bihar* (1962), pp. 276—279.

† Formerly Janata Party.

‡ *Report on the Third General Elections in Bihar* (1962), pp. 197-198.

General Elections, 1967.*

Vidhan Sabha (*Legislative Assembly*).—The district was divided into 15 constituencies for the election to the *Vidhan Sabha.* Of these Tamar, Torpa, Khunti, Khijri, Kolebira, Simdega, Chainpur, Gumla, Sissai, Bero, Mandar and Lohardaga were reserved for the Scheduled Tribes, Silli for the Scheduled Castes and Ranchi and Kanke were general constituencies.

The political parties that contested the election were Congress, Swatantra, Jansangh, Samyukta Socialist Party, Praja Socialist Party, Communist Party and C. P. I. (Marxist). In all 119 candidates including Independents contested for the 15 seats.

The total electorate was 11,67,836 and the total number of votes cast was 4,61,037, i.e., 39.7 per cent of the electorate.

The number of candidates set up by the different parties as also the Independents and seats won by them are given below:—

Names of parties.	No. of candidates set up.	No. of seats won.
Congress†	15	9
Jansangh	15	2
Swatantra	15	Nil.
P. S. P.	1	Nil.
S. S. P.	4	Nil.
C. P. I.	2	Nil.
C. P. I. (Marxist) ..	1	Nil.
Independent	66	4
	119	15

Lok Sabha (*Parliament*).—In 1967 there were three Parliamentary constituencies, namely, Ranchi (it included two Assembly constituencies of the Singhbhum district also), Khunti and Lohardaga (it included two Assembly constituencies of the Palamau district also). Lohardaga and Khunti were reserved for the Scheduled Tribes.

The political parties which contested the election were Congress, Swatantra, Jansangh and S. S. P. In all, there were 25 candidates including Independents.

* Source.—District Election Office, Ranchi.

† The merger of the Jharkhand party in the Congress is reflected in this.

The total electorate was 13,92,416, the total number of votes cast was 5,43,433, i.e., about 39.02 per cent of the electorate.

The number of candidates set up by the different parties and the seats won are as follows:—

Names of parties.	No. of candidates set up.	No. of seats won.
Congress*	3	3
Jansangh	3	Nil.
Swatantra	3	Nil.
S. S. P.	1	Nil.
Independent	15	Nil.
	25	3

In the general election of 1962, the votes polled show that the main political parties in this election were Congress (1,01,537 votes), Jharkhand (1,15,851 votes) and Swatantra, i.e., erstwhile Janata party (1,25,562 votes). The Jansangh, Communists and Independents could get very small percentage of votes. In the election for the *Vidhan Sabha*, Congress won only two seats, viz., Ranchi and Mandar out of the 15 seats as compared with three seats in 1952 and two seats in 1957. The Jharkhand party got seven seats as compared with 11 seats in 1952 and 12 in 1957. In the Parliamentary election 1962, Congress lost all the three seats though in 1952 it had won all of them though none in 1957. The Jharkhand party secured one seat in 1962, one in 1952 and one in 1957. The Swatantra party got two seats in 1962 while its fore-runner, the Janata party had failed to get any in 1952 and had not set up any candidate in 1957 election. This shows that the Congress had been losing ground in the Ranchi district. The Jharkhand party also lost heavily to the Swatantra party in 1962 election. But the Swatantra party was much weakened in 1965 due to the dissociation of the former Janata party.

Political Parties.

On the eve of Independence, the Indian National Congress was the main political party in the district. It contested the elections of 1946 and its candidates were elected to the Legislature by an overwhelming majority. The Muslim League ceased to exist in Bihar after Independence (15 August 1947) and its local leaders and other ranks joined the Congress. As democratic process unfolded itself, some local parties came into being and one such party was the Janata party which has its main fields of operation in the districts of Hazaribagh and Ranchi. It contested general elections of 1952 and 1957; but later joined the All-India Swatantra

* The merger of the Jharkhand party in the Congress is reflected in this.

Party and fought the general elections of 1962 under their banner. Later it joined the Indian National Congress in 1965; but on the eve of the general elections of 1967, it left the Congress and joined a newly sponsored party, namely, Janakranti Dal. In March, 1968, it broke off from them and has revived its original status. Another local party in Bihar was the Jharkhand party. It made its debut first in the general elections of 1952. It professed to serve the interests of the tribals and fight for 'Jharkhand', a separate State for them. In early days it used to be an active party in Chota Nagpur and Santal Parganas with headquarters at Ranchi. In 1963 it merged with the Indian National Congress and its leaders accepted political offices under the contemporary Congress Government of Bihar.

The results of the 1952 elections showed some definite trends. The votes polled by the main political parties were: Congress (2,39,393 votes); Jharkhand (2,15,770 votes) and Janata (57,359 votes). But despite the largest number of votes, the Congress could win only three seats in the Assembly while the Jharkhand secured 11 seats. The Janata party could get only one seat. The three seats secured by the Congress were from Mandar, Silli and one out of the Ranchi double-member constituency. The tribal votes are small in Ranchi and Silli constituencies. There are substantial Muslim votes in Mandar area and the Scheduled Castes are numerous in Silli. The Muslim voters after the partition of the country had, by and large, thrown their lot with the Congress. The Congress lost heavily in the Adivasi areas where great bulk of votes went to Jhankhand party. The success of the Jharkhand party may greatly be attributed to its election symbol, i.e., cock, which is symbolic of Adivasi life and had a magic spell on tribal mind. The Janata party by running 10 candidates, out of whom only one could succeed, divided the votes and thus weakened the prospects of the Congress candidates. This party had grown out of the nucleus provided by the ex-landlords who despite the abolition of Zamindari had still much influence over their former tenants. There were also 12 Independent candidates who polled about twenty thousand votes, but without any success. This analysis shows that the Jharkhand party was most popular in 1952 in the district, and the Congress in spite of its leading role in the Freedom Movement had started to wane. The Congress party, however, fared better in respect of the Parliamentary seats and won all the three seats, including one from Ranchi North-East single-member constituency). This success, however, may largely be due to the indifference of the other parties to contest them vigorously.

The results of the 1957 election showed some different trends. The Jharkhand party appeared to have consolidated its previous gains and acquired greater popularity in the district. It secured 12 seats out of 15. The Independent candidates could get only one seat. The Congress retained the remaining two seats, i.e., Silli and one out of the Ranchi double-member constituency; but they lost the Mandar seat secured in

1952 which went to the Jharkhand party. They could not secure a single Parliamentary seat in 1957 election although in the previous general election all the three seats had gone to them. The Jharkhand party got one Parliamentary seat just as they had done in the previous election. This time the Independents secured two seats in the Parliament, though in the previous election they had no success.

NEWSPAPERS.

No daily newspaper is being published at present (1968) in Ranchi district either in English or any of the vernaculars.

The first enterprise in English journalism was the 'Sentinel', an English weekly which made its debut in 1935 and is continuing. Among the later ventures are the 'New Republic' an English bi-weekly, published every Wednesday and Saturday from the New Republic Press, Ranchi*.

Among the Hindi news weeklies the 'Subarnarekha' started publication in 1952, but was short-lived. It was followed by a Hindi daily 'Rashtra Bhasa', which also did not last long. At present (1968) Ranchi has four Hindi weeklies, namely, 'Adivasi', 'Awaz' 'Ranchi Express' (Express Printing Works, Ranchi) and 'Ranchi Times' (Haladhar Press, Ranchi). 'Adivasi' is sponsored by Government and is mainly devoted to tribal matters.

The 'Dwairath', a Bengali bi-monthly appeared in 1959, but has since ceased publication.

Both English and Hindi newspapers are of local interest and have modest circulation, limited mostly to Ranchi town. It may be observed that journalism is still in experimental stage in this district and local press plays little role in shaping public opinion. On account of industrial importance of Ranchi, the daily newspapers of national or provincial standing have their own resident correspondents at Ranchi to cover all news of importance and serve the same to this district only next day. Lack of capital, limited readership and fierce competition from outside deter local enterprise in daily newspapers†.

Of the English newspapers circulating in this district, the 'Indian Nation' and the 'Searchlight' of Patna; the 'Statesman', the 'Amrita Bazar Patrika' and the 'Hindusthan Standard' of Calcutta and the 'Times of India' of Delhi may specially be mentioned. Among the English periodicals, the 'Blitz' and the 'Illustrated Weekly' of Bombay and the

*The 'Sunday Express' and the 'Democrat', both English weeklies, have since ceased publication.

† Also *see*, Chapter on "Education and Culture" for magazines and periodicals.

'Shanker's Weekly' of Delhi also circulate. On account of industrialisation of the district and cosmopolitan nature of its population, the circulation of English newspapers and periodicals has been increasing in post-1960 era.

Among the Hindi daily newspapers, the 'Aryavarta' and the 'Pradeep' of Patna may be mentioned. The Hindi weekly 'Dharmyug' is also popular.

The Bengali dailies, namely, the 'Ananda Bazar Patrika' and the 'Yugantar' of Calcutta circulate among Bengali readers.

Among the Urdu dailies 'Seyasat-e-Jadid' of Kanpur, 'Pratap' of Delhi and 'Sada-e-Am', 'Sangam' and 'Sathi' of Patna have some circulation.

The 'Mithila Mihir', a Maithili weekly of Patna, is popular among Maithili-speaking people.

Some Oriya papers as well as those of the South Indian languages are also seen in the district.

Many British newspapers and magazines are received in the British Council Library and read by a large section of the intelligentsia.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

Chota Nagpur Charitable Association.—The post-Birsa period was marked by spread of education and growing consciousness among the tribal people in Chota Nagpur. There were manifestations of the urge for socio-economic betterment of their conditions. A suggestion for the establishment of an annual conference for all Nagpuria brethren including the Biharis, Bengalis and Hindusthanis was made in the *Gharbandhu* in 1912. A Chota Nagpur Charitable Association was organised on the 7th April 1912 with Samuel Purti, Sub-Registrar of Khunti as President. It included all the Adivasis, Christians and non-Christians and sought to function on behalf of all the Adivasis in Chota Nagpur; to raise funds and subscriptions; to set up a club house at Ranchi as a symbol of unity; to provide for scholarships for four students to study for the Matriculation examination; and to spend money on welfare activities as suggested by its Executive Committee. Sentiments for unity of the people of Chota Nagpur, abolition of differences among Christians and others and between Mundas, Oraons, Tamarias, Mahalis, Loharas and Pans were voiced. The objectives of the Charitable Association were elaborated: all Adivasis were one; Loharas, Pans, Bhuinyas and Tamarias should not be looked down upon; there should be interdining between them, even with the people of mixed blood; there should be inter-marriages and untouchability should be abolished.

Educational Foundations.—At a meeting of the members of the German Mission held on 7th April, 1912 at the instance of Rev. Nottrott, it was decided to set up a self-supporting fund to promote education. Patras Lakra was elected its President and Anand Masih as Secretary. A Munda and Oraon Educational Association had been established about three years earlier. A boarding house at Ranchi was also started by the educated *Sansari* Oraon and Munda organisations.

Christian Association.—There were also smaller groups, essentially philanthropic, but they had started with a narrow denominational base. However, they slowly merged with one another to form a viable organisation which cut across the differences of race, caste and religion. In 1898, one Shri Ekka founded the Christian Association consisting of Lutheran Mission graduates. In 1919 the Catholics joined it and it was christened Christian College Union.

Unnati Samaj.—One J. Bartholmen of the Anglican Mission from Chaibasa after attending a students' conference at Dacca in 1911-12, founded a branch of the Dacca Students Union with the objective of raising funds for poor Christian students. At the suggestion of Bishop Kennedy of the Anglican Mission, this grew into the *Unnati Samaj* of Chota Nagpur Improvement Society, in 1915. It aimed at social, political and moral advancement of the tribals. The *Samaj* ventilated its grievances before the Simon Commission when it visited India. In 1931 on the initiative of the dissidents of the *Unnati Samaj*, the *Kisan Sabha* came into existence. Laurentias Barla of Nano and Theble Oraon were its President and Secretary respectively. It aimed at improving the condition of peasantry. Meanwhile, the Chota Nagpur Roman Catholic Sabha was formed at the suggestion of Rev. Sevrin, with Boniface Lakra as President and Ignes Beck as Secretary; it was also actuated by ideas of socio-economic uplift. All the three organisations set up their candidates for the general elections in 1935. In 1938-39 the Chota Nagpur *Unnati Samaj Kisan Sabha* and the Catholic Sabha merged together to form *Chota Nagpur Adivasi Mahasabha*, which in 1949-50 grew into the Jharkhand party with a broader political base, its membership being extended to all the inhabitants of the Jharkhand region.

Arya Samaj.—The *Arya Samaj* was established at Ranchi in 1894, primarily with a view to propagate the Vedic Philosophy as propounded by Dayanand Saraswati. It started publishing a weekly, named the *Aryavarta* in 1897 and opened a school named, "Ved Vidyalaya" in 1900. Both these functioned till 1908-09. To carry out its programme, it has been arranging lectures and discourses by scholars. It also holds a weekly meeting every Sunday in its Mandir on the Shraddhanand Road. It keeps paid preachers to carry out its mission. Persons of other faiths are admitted into the folds of the *Arya Samaj* through *"Suddhi"* (i.e., purification). In respect of social activities, the *Samaj* has been working for the

uplift of the aboriginals, depressed and backward classes by initiating them into temperance and clean habits and discouraging untouchability and cow-killing. Protection of women and girls against abduction and up-bringing of orphans are also part of its active programme.

Ramkrishna Mission.—After the passing away of Shri Ramkrishna Deva, in 1886, a monastic order bearing his name was organised by his Sanyasin disciples headed by Swami Vivekananda, which set up a two-fold ideal before it : (*i*) to create a band of Sanyasin teachers of *Vedanta*; and (*ii*) in conjunction with the lay public to carry on missionary and philanthropic work irrespective of caste, creed or colour. With this dual ideal of renunciation and service the Ramkrishna Mission has started two centres in Ranchi, viz., (1) the Mission *Ashrama* at Morabadi, situated at the foot of the Morabadi hill and (2) a Tuberculosis Sanatorium at Dungri, 10 miles south of Ranchi town.

The chief object of the *Morabadi Ashrama* is to help its inmates to do spiritual practice for themselves and propagate its necessity for the moral and spiritual rearmament of society. Special stress is laid on the harmony of all religions. Since 1917 the *Ashrama* conducts a chapel in which the devotees perform their daily worship, observe important festivals, and celebrate the birthdays of their prophets. Occasionally it holds public meetings to emphasise on religion and culture and also sponsors regular classes on scriptures in different parts of Ranchi town and in the *Ashrama* itself. It also operates a public library, a reading room and an outdoor charitable homoeopathic dispensary*.

The Ramakrishna Mission Tuberculosis Sanatorium, Ranchi, has rendered valuable services to society†.

Harijan Sevak Sangh.—It was started in Ranchi in 1951 for the welfare of Harijans.

Bharat Sevak Samaj.—A branch of this organisation was opened at Ranchi in 1960. In the urban areas the *Samaj* has shown some interest in sanitation and public health work.

Adimjati Seva Mandal.—It was initially started at Gumla in 1942 for the welfare of the tribals and removed its headquarters to Ranchi in 1946. Its activities mainly concern education in rural areas**.

Marwari Relief Society.—A branch of the Marwari Relief Society was established in Ranchi in 1940. Among its achievements are Marwari Arogya Bhavan at Bariatu in Ranchi town with 30 quarters for married health-seekers. The organisation also provides a library with 1,200 books, a small Ayurvedic dispensary and a recreation club for the inmates.

* *See*, the Chapter on 'Medical and Public Health Services'.

† *Ibid.*

** *See*, the Chapter on 'Education and Culture'.

Shraddhanand Hindu Anathalaya.—This orphanage was opened in Ranchi town in 1937 to provide shelter to Hindu orphan boys and girls up to 18 years of age. It is registered and receives grants from State Government. It has established two high schools, one for boys and the other for girls in Ranchi town, which in 1967 had about 800 students and 20 teachers including 40 orphan boys and 7 girls. The students are trained in appropriate crafts. It also runs a library with about 500 books.

Shri Sharada Sangh.—The Ranchi Branch of Shri Sharada Sangh was inaugurated in March, 1963. In 1967 it had about 150 members. It aims to fulfil certain social programme through meeting, study groups, relief of the needy, the diseased and the poor, nursery schools for children and hostels for the working women of low income-group. During 1964 it distributed clothing among indigent patients in the local hospitals on the *Sarvodaya* Day and also collected warm clothing and some money for the refugees from East Pakistan. It has started a sewing class in Ranchi town with about 20 women trainees and pays tuition fee for some deserving girl students studying at the *Balika Siksha-Bhavan.*

Mahila Samiti.—The ladies of Ranchi town including Doranda and Hinoo have their social organisations. From time to time they have raised funds through charity shows and fancy fairs, particularly for the welfare of troops on battle fronts and the widows and children of the deceased army personnel.

CHAPTER XIX.

PLACES OF INTEREST.

Anjan.—A village in sylvan surroundings about 4 miles north-west of village Toto on Gumla-Ranchi road. Tradition ascribes it as the birth place of Anjani, mother of Hanuman. About a mile away is a cave known as 'Anjani Cave'. The remains of Shiva *linga* indicate the existence of several Shiva temples in the past. According to local legends, in ancient times a king, a devotee of Lord Shiva, had constructed 300 temples and 300 tanks and used to worship Shiva *linga* in each temple with water from a separate tank everyday. However, there is no trace of any tank or temple except a new one founded in December, 1953.

Bagru.—A village situated among wooded hills about 10 miles from Lohardaga and 56 miles from Ranchi. Mean altitude 3,468 feet. Area 2,598 acres. Population (1951) 1,295 (648 males and 647 females). A fair-weather morum road traversing about 5 miles in the hills with sharp ingredients connects it with Lohardaga. The Indian Aluminium Company works its bauxite-deposits here with about 300 workers and has a colony with modern amenities.

Bagru has potentiality as a health resort and also a centre for tourist attraction. The present monocable ropeway carrying bauxite ores from Bagru to Lohardaga, when converted into a bicable ropeway system may help develop tourism as it would then take only about 33 minutes to travel about 6¼ miles of aerial distance to Bagru. Further with the development of 10 miles of morum road into an all-weather *pucca* road and construction of a two-storeyed rest house, two cottages on the slopes with electricity and the modern conveniences, Bagru may attract motorists from Eastern India, particularly Ranchi and Hatia. The place may also be suitable for the study of the tribals, hiking, climbing and *shikar.*

Bahar Kundi.—A small village near Tamar in Khunti subdivision associated with the 19th century poet Buddhu Babu, who composed *Ramayanpala* and the *Pritipala,* the latter depicting the love lore of Radha and Krishna which are recited on ceremonial occasions in the locality. He also composed a number of *Nirgun* songs which show the impact of Vaishnavism. It is said that he was illiterate and two school teachers, Hari Ghasi and Kali Charan Das, recorded the poems as the poet recited.

*Belwadag**.—A village of old antiquities about 4 miles to the south-west of Khunti. Uplands strewn over with brickbats are believed to represent the *garh,* i.e., fort of an Asura king. Trial excavations were

* Dr. D. R. Patil: Antiquarian Remains in Bihar, 1968, pp. 87-88.

carried on here in 1915 leading to the discovery of foundations of brick-walls of a building, bricks measuring 17″ × 10″ × 3″. Copper ornaments and three gold coins were also found here earlier, one of the gold coins being of Huvishka type*. Stone implements and beads were also reported to have been discovered here before. Another Asura monument here is a tank called Asura *Pokhra,* which is now silted up.

Bichna†.—A village about six miles from Khunti. In the fork between the two streams near the village there is a *garh* or fort attributed locally to the Asuras. It is covered with brickbats and potsherds and was explored in about 1915‡. There have been reports of occasional discoveries of stone celts, beads, wornaway iron arrow-heads, polished stone slabs with rounded tops, four-legged stone stools, a small copper celt, iron slags, etc., in large quantities and some pieces of gold. Some of the potsherds found here were observed to have been glazed with some substance like enamel while some pieces were seen ornamented with concentric circles rising tier above tier. The other pottery is much thicker than the pottery in use in these parts. Coggin Brown who examined the pottery from this and other similar Asura sites says that tentatively the pottery may belong to the early iron period. It is generally wheel-made and the glazed pieces, according to him, give the light red of the earthenware a decidedly darker tint and higher polish. The unglazed pieces are also beautifully smoothed**.

Binda.—A village of old antiquities in Khunti police station. A chisel of sclistose stone, a polished but broken celt of gneiss, a broad flat bladed axe-head of gneissose rock, large elongated cell of schist, a small triangular polished celt of quartzite and a small hatchet of quartz were discovered here.

Bundu.—An old townlet in Khunti subdivision about 18 miles north-east of Khunti and 27 miles south-east of Ranchi on Ranchi-Jamshedpur National Highway. Population (1961) 9,285. Block headquarters.

Col. Dalton, who visited Bundu in 1871, found a burial site with a section of an under-stratum at places where the soil had been cut away by water and the cinerary urns were exposed. Further on the right bank of the Kanchi river, on the road to Chokahatu he came unexpectedly on some very old looking ruins of stone temples, eight in number, apparently dedicated to Shiva. He noticed several *lingas.* The temples were mere ruins, built of cut stone, square and put together without any cement or

* S. C. Roy: JBORS, I, pp. 230—34.

† Dr. D. R. Patil: *Antiquarian Remains in Bihar,* pp. 43-44.

‡ S. C. Roy: JBORS, I, pp. 240—42; and Coggin Brown, *op. cit.,* pp. 129-30.

** For the finds of a copper axe-head and of a thick and heavy grinder and a polished and well-finished chisel of gneiss cf. JBORS, VI, p. 481 and JBORS, II, pp. 76-77, respectively.

clamps. There are still several Shiva *lingas* scattered among these ruins. Only one stone temple is now standing in which a deity of the Astbhuji Durga is installed.

Some are of the opinion that the Asurs had settlements here before they were driven away by the Mundas. The mythological Asurs were the devotees of Shiva. The Asurs worship *Mahadania* who is said to be the same as Shiva. Besides the ruins of the Shiva temples, there is at village Heth Burhadih an idol of the Sun-God riding on a chariot driven by seven horses.

An annual fair is held here on the *Sankranti* day (14th January). Formerly an important seat of the lac industry, but now decaying due to synthetic substitute of lac in market. A spring, Ranichua, is noted for fine water.

Chainpur.—A beauty spot in Gumla subdivision. Known to have deposits of iron-ores, limestone and bauxite in its vicinity.

Chanho.—Situated on Ranchi-Lohardaga road, about 26 miles west of Ranchi. Block headquarters. Noted for the manufacture of glass bangles, cloth weaving, mat-making, shoe-making, blacksmithy, carpentry and pottery in the vicinity.

Chenegutu.—A village in Khunti police-station having pre-historic site. A broad chisel of dark-grey siticious schist, a broken broad-bladed axe of schist, a rectangular polished chisel of basalt, crude chisel of schist, a chisel celt of gneiss, and other chisels were found here.

Chokahatu.—A village about 10 miles south-east of Sonahatu having the largest burial ground of its kind in the Munda country. It was first noticed by Col. Dalton in about 1873, who counted 7,360 tombs close to each other, covering an area of more than seven acres. He found many of the slabs level with, some even below, the surface. Their sunken condition proclaimed their age, inasmuch as originally they were like the others above ground, supported on vertical stones*. The horizontal slabs are irregular in forms and are quite huge and massive, one of them being as big as 15′ 3″ in length and 4′ 6″ in breadth, and supported on five pillars, 18″ above ground. One is elliptical in form, 12′ 9″ × 9′ 10″; a second, a circular one, 33′ in circumference; a third, 18′ in length placed on seven legs; while a fourth looks like a tripod, 13′ 14″×6′ 8″, placed on six legs. According to Dalton, the age of many of the graves may vary between 200 to 1,000 years. Amongst the Mundas, it may be noted, the word "*Chokahatu*" means "a place of mourning" or a burial ground.

* Dalton :JASB, 1873, p. 116.

Chutia.—A village in the eastern outskirt of Ranchi. Traditionally ascribed as the seat of the Nagbanshi Rajas of Chota Nagpur from the time of Raja Partap Rai, the fourth in descent from Phani Rai Mukuta, the founder of the family.

Inside the village is an old temple, which, according to Bloch, may be 300 to 400 years old. It is a double-storeyed building of rubble and plaster and is situated within a walled compound. Porches or verandahs have been added on two sides at a later date, perhaps, some 200 years ago. They consist of projecting caves supported on columns and are in appearance somewhat similar to the Hemadpenthi temples in Berar*. On its northern wall is an inscription of V.S. 1784 (i.e., A.D. 1727) recording its construction by Hari Brahmachari, the *guru* of the then Raja, Raghu Nath.

Chutupalu.—A village in Ormanjhi police-station about 22 miles from Ranchi on Ranchi-Patna road. A suitable base for hiking and exploration. Has a post office and a small inspection bungalow. A *hat* is held every Monday.

Daladali Tea Estate.—About 7 miles south-west of Ranchi. A tea manufacturing centre. A flourishing tea garden was raised here by late Major Ramackers in about 1936. Exports green tea to Nepal, Afghanistan, Iran, etc. Draws water from well with power generated by wind-mill. Has scientific irrigation schemes and appropriate methods of soil conservation.

Dangadi.—A beauty spot in Simdega subdivision, 4 miles south-west of Rengari where the river passes through a gorge. A fair-weather road (13 miles) connects Rengari with Simdega.

Dasomghagh.—Also known as Dasom falls. A beauty spot 27 miles from Khunti and 22 miles from Ranchi. The way to the water-fall branches off from the 18th mile of Ranchi-Bundu Road. Country suitable for hiking and exploration.

Digri.—A village of old antiquities in Khunti police-station. In about 1915 in a burial ground under the grave stones large earthen jars were discovered containing bones and in some cases, copper ornaments or stone-beads. Some of the copper pieces may represent unstamped copper coins†.

Doisa.—A village of historical antiquities, about 40 miles south-west of Ranchi. According to Major Depree, as mentioned in one of the inscriptions in the ruins, Raja Raghunath Sahi of Chota Nagpur built the local fort and the palace some time early in 18th century. Another

* Bloch: *An. Rep.*, ASI, E-C., 1913-14, p. 38; BDG, *Ranchi*, 244.

† S. C. Roy: JBORS, I, p. 243.

tradition says that they were built in the time of Raja Durjan Sal. Both the traditions, however, say that the Raja stayed here only for a few years and deserted the place at the instance of a Brahman, who declared the site inauspicious and removed to Palkot.

The palace was known as Nawratan. It was built of bricks and had five storeys, each containing nine rooms. The main object of interest in it was the so-called treasure-house, full of quaint niches and arches, in which the children of the family, and also it is said, the Raja and Rani, used to play at hide and seek. Around the palace are numerous temples, one of which contains curious underground chambers, said to have been used either as dungeons or as hiding places in times of trouble. The temples and buildings are of carved granite, but the carvings are not of any great artistic merit and consist of conventionally designed friezes in slight relief and presentations of birds, animals, elephants and horsemen*.

There is weird strangeness in the buildings situated as they are in a purely tribal area; and though they belong to a late historical period, the place deserves to be fully explored.

Doranda.—A township situated 4 miles south of Ranchi proper on way to Dhurwa and Khunti and within a mile from the Ranchi railway station. Formerly a military cantonment and headquarters of the Ramgarh Battalion, raised at Chatra in 1778 and later transferred here. Population (1961) 17,837. Has a Notified Area Committee.

Doranda possesses an old Secretariat building, staff quarters, a tank and a European military cemetery on its bank, which remind one of its former importance. There was a large parade ground and a *maidan* round which a short golf course had been laid out. The space has been enclosed and some structures have come up. The ceremonial parades are, however, still held inside this enclosure, but the cemetery has still many old monuments recalling past and interesting history. Doranda and the portion known as Hinoo had a number of European settlers, merchants and well-placed retired officials. The Hinoo *tanr* (upland) which is now full of houses and extends up to the aerodrome was formerly known as Charlie-Sahib Ka Tanr. In the first decade of the 20th century Charles Smith, a leading European planter had his commodious house here with numerous dogs and horses which used to be taken for exercise in the expansive *maidans*. Earlier in 1857 days Doranda used to be a great place for military sports, trade in lac and the Chutia *mela* nearby used to attract numerous visitors from all over the province. At one time the Chutia *mela* vied in importance with the Sonepur *mela*.

* *See*, Chapter on 'Education and Culture' for details of inscriptions on these temples.

Many offices of Central and State Governments are located at Doranda, including those of the Accountant-General, Bihar, Hindusthan Steel Limited and the Chief Conservator of Forests, Bihar.

The Hindusthan Steel Limited has developed a colony with modern housing and community hall and provided about 500 quarters for its staff. The employees of the Accountant-General's Office have completed a Co-operative Housing Scheme. Besides, they have their own official colony.

Doranda has one P.W.D. Rest House and Inspection Bungalows maintained by the Electricity and Irrigation Departments and also one Guest House of the Hindusthan Steel Limited.

It has three post offices, one each located at Doranda, Hinoo and in the Accountant-General's office premises. There is a telephone exchange here with 299 installations. It has a branch of the State Bank of India since 1963. It is well served by buses, both private and of Bihar Road Transport Corporation.

Consequent upon the development of works under the Heavy Engineering Corporation, Hatia and Hindusthan Steel Ltd., Dhurwa, there has been an influx of population from all over India to Doranda, which is now fast acquiring the character of a cosmopolitan town.

Dhurwa.—A modern industrial township of Heavy Engineering Corporation. Possesses industrial complex to manufacture heavy machines and tools in collaboration with Russia and Czechoslovakia. A broad-gauge railway line connects it to Ranchi and Rourkella (Orissa).

Dumri.—Situated in extreme west of the district amidst hills and jungles and girdled by streams and rivulets. Suitable for *shikar*. Block headquarters.

Erki.—Situated in wooded and hilly area in Khunti subdivision. Noted for wild animals, such as tigers, leopards, bears and elephants. Block headquarters. Has a *gitiora*, i.e., a community hall at village Katni where unmarried young persons of either sex sleep during nights in the months from *Magh* to *Baisakh*.

Erkia.—A village of old antiquities, situated on the bank of the river Kanchi 5 miles south-east of Bundu. An ancient site from which grey pottery and a small iron chisel were recovered.

Etre.—A village in Khunti police-station. Early in this century excavations yielded one stone bull, a broken pedestal of *linga* and other blocks of stones including a sculptured slab of stone representing a human figure holding perhaps a bow or a club in one hand and a small human figure below each of its two hands. Other carved pieces were also found*.

* S. C. Roy: JBORS, I, pp. 248-49.

Gajgaon.—A village of old antiquities, ¾ mile to its west, on the left bank of the river Banai, a very extensive site exists where ruins may be seen on the east, south and west of a dried up tank now represented by a depression*.

Gumla.—Situated about 78 miles from Ranchi on Ranchi-Lohardaga-Simdega road. The nearest railway station is Lohardaga on narrow gauge, about 32 miles north. Area 6.60 square miles. Population (1961) 10,710. A suitable base for the study of tribal anthropology.

It has subdivisional, block and *anchal* offices, sub-registry, sub-jail, hospital and a small landing ground. It is also the headquarters of a Forest Division. It has a Circuit House, a Dak Bungalow of the Zila Parishad and an Inspection Bungalow of the Public Works Department. There is also a *Dharmashala* in the town.

There are two Christian Missions, viz., the Roman Catholic Mission and the Lutheran Mission in the town.

It has 4 high schools, a Government Teachers' Training School since 1906, a degree college and an Adivasi Hostel to accommodate 100 boarders.

The economy of the town is linked to courts and offices. The sub-divisional courts at Gumla started in 1902. In 1965 the local bar had 21 members. The main produce of its interior is *mahua,* rice and *biri* leaves which are exported from here. It has been a focal point for the traditional flow of surplus labour to the tea gardens of Assam and Duars. The industrial belts of Birmitrapur and Rourkella in Orissa are also now attracting some labour.

Hansa.—A village of old antiquities about 28 miles south of Ranchi. Traces of an ancient site to the south-east of the village showing ruins of the tops of brick-walls are visible. Close to the south of a hamlet called Bagicha *toli* there is a large burial ground, marked by about a hundred horizontal slabs and vertical pillars.

Horhap.—A beauty spot situated in sylvan surroundings about ten miles south-east of Ranchi. Has a forest bungalow.

Hundru Fall.—Hundru is about 24 miles from Ranchi town, 13 miles of which are *kutcha,* branching off from Ranchi-Purulia road. It is a beauty spot. From the edge of the plateau over a cliff here the river Subarnarekha makes a drop of about 320 feet in two cascades, into a deep rocky basin and thus forms this waterfall. Then it takes a serpentine course eastward through a picturesque valley.

* S. C. Roy: JBORS, I, pp. 248-49.

There is a Rest House of the Zila Parishad at the edge of the fall and also a youth hostel.

Hutwar.—Situated about 4 miles north-east of Ranchi town. Baxters, an Irish family of engineers, started cattle breeding here on their ranch in the early twenties of the present century. They also raised a garden of flowering trees from various parts of the world. Their estate is now in the possession of Roman Catholic Mission, Ranchi.

There is also a Government dairy and poultry farm in the vicinity.

Indpiri.—A village of old antiquities, about 37 miles south of Ranchi on the east of the road to Chaibasa. An ancient site is locally ascribed to the Asurs. A copper ornament, a bracelet and a partly chipped and partly polished chisel of gneiss were discovered here*.

Ite.—A village 6 miles south-west of Khunti. A thin elongated but mostly chipped and slightly polished celt of schist was discovered herein about 1916. A site extensive with tops of brick-walls peeping out here and there on the surface is visible.

Jagarnathpur.—A village 6 miles south-west of Ranchi having the Heavy Engineering Works in its vicinity. On a hillock commanding a panoramic view is located the temple of Lord Jagannath, in the tradition of one at Puri. It was built in 1791 by Thakur Aini Shahi, a *Khorposdar* of the Nagbanshi Raja of Chota Nagpur and the village was endowed to Lord Jagannath as *debottar.*

As regards the origin of this temple there is a legend among the aboriginals that an Oraon servant had accompanied the Thakur of Barka-garh to Puri. The servant became an ardent devotee of Lord Jagannath and fasted continuously for seven days and nights. After a week's fast he felt hungry at about mid-night and asked for food when everyone was asleep. He uttered a few words that he was hungry and suddenly he saw a man bringing him food and water in a gold vessel. Next morning the temple authorities found that the gold vessel, which was the property of the temple, was missing from the locked room. Everyone understood that Lord Jagannath himself had brought food to him. The following night Thakur had a dream that he must construct a temple of Lord Jagannath and enshrine His image at Jagarnathpur. On his return home the Thakur did accordingly.

Another legend has it that the Thakur was a devotee of Lord Jagannath and used to go to Puri frequently for audience of the Lord. He was being harassed by the *Bargis* (mounted brigands) and he prayed to Lord Jagannath for help. By the grace of the Lord the enemies were routed and after this the Thakur built the temple at Jagarnathpur.

* S. C. Roy: JBORS, II, p. 75.

There is a *Mousi Bari* (Aunt's house) corresponding to the *Gundichaghar* at Puri. The car festival is held here with great pomp and ceremony. The ceremonials follow the pattern at Puri. On the *Rathayatra* day thousands of people congregate and the idols are placed with due ceremony on the *Ratha* (chariot). As the Raja of Puri ceremoniously sweeps the platforms of the chariots, so does the family of the ex-Raja of Barkagarh and sprinkles scented water. After this the chariot is drawn by the congregation. The chariots with the deities of Lord Jagannath, Balaram and Subhadra are taken to the *Mousi Bari* where they remain for a week and on the *Ultaratha* day the chariots are pulled back with the same festivities.

Jonha Falls.—Situated about 22 miles east of Ranchi on Ranchi-Muri railway. Also approachable by metalled road. The falls are in the river Rarhu about 150 feet in height forming four to six contour cascades in the midst of thick jungles and present a panoramic view. Also known as *Gautamdhara.* There is a temple of Lord Buddha and a *dharmashala* here. The country round about is suitable for hiking and exploration.

Kanke.—About 7 miles north of Ranchi, it has two mental asylums, agricultural and veterinary colleges, poultry farms and a large tank. A picnic spot.

Kanthar-toli.—A village of old antiquities, about 29 miles south of Ranchi on Chaibasa road. A copper bracelet was discovered in about 1920 from an ancient "Asura" site, near the east of the village, which is now in Patna Museum*. The site is littered with brickbats and potsherds, though no traces of masonry work could be seen on surface.

Khelari.—An industrial township situated about 34 miles north-west of Ranchi on Gomoh-Dehri-on-Sone line of the Eastern Railway, with a railway station of the same name. Located in a saucer-shaped depression rimmed by wooded hills.

Area 5.09 square miles; occupied houses 1,245; population (1961) 5,779.

It derives its economic strength from the cement factory, started in 1936 by M|s. Associated Cement Company Limited due to abundant local supply of limestone. Gypsum, fireclay, clinker and gunny bags are generally imported. Cement is exported from here to different parts of India.

The factory area is well planned with concrete roads, good residential buildings, parks and lawns, drainage and sewerage, power and water-supply, telephone system, an eight-bedded hospital, a club with a library, a post office, a middle school and a multi-purpose co-operative society including a Consumers' Co-operative Store and two rest houses.

* S. C. Roy: JBORS, VI, p. 414.

There is a six-acre Agricultural Demonstration Farm under the Village Improvement Scheme on which vegetables, maize and sugarcane are grown.

Khunti.—Headquarters of Khunti subdivision. Situated 23 miles south of Ranchi, on highway to Chaibasa but without rail link. Population (1961) 8,156.

The Roman Catholic Mission maintains a convent here since 1904 and imparts education from kindergarten to secondary school stage. It also maintains a middle school for boys.

Khunti has a higher secondary school, a middle school for boys, a Government Girls' Middle School and a degree college in Arts started in 1961 named Birsa College. It has also an inspection bungalow maintained by the Public Works Department, a hospital, a sub-jail, a post office and a *dharmashala.*

Besides the offices of the Subdivisional Officer and the Block Office, there are other State Government offices of the subdivisional rank in the town.

Khunti is still rural in character. Its economy is mainly based on courts and Government offices. About 2,000 maunds of lac used to be exported from here annually, but now its market has become dull. Weekly *hats* are held on Fridays and Mondays. Agricultural and forest products are the main turnover. Sites for small industries are coming up along the roadside between Hatia and Khunti.

Khuntitola.—A village of old antiquities, about 2 miles south-west of Khunti, on the bank of the stream Kotri. Cinerary urns or earthen jars containing bones of the dead were discovered here in about 1915. Inside each larger jar a small *chuka* (i.e., a jug, with a narrow mouth) and an earthen lamp were found. Some of the jars also contained copper ornaments and beads of stone or copper. Later excavations yielded finds like copper and bronze bracelets, bronze bell, copper anklet, iron ring, iron bracelet, iron implements, etc.*

Of the four characteristic potsherds collected from the site one was a lid of a vessel, another a fragment of a jar, while the remaining two pieces were decorated with a double line of concentric circles, a feature commonly found in the pottery from the so-called Asur sites in this region. In type, fabric and decorative features there is much resemblance between the pottery from this site and that from Kunjla, a similar site in the area†.

* S. C. Roy: JBORS, I, pp. 234—36; VI, 393 ff.

† A. Ghosh: *Notes on the Exploration in Ranchi District (unpublished).*

Kulukera.—A village about 20 miles south-west of Simdega. The river Garima flowing by its western side is said to be the river of snakes. A legend has it that by stratagem a maiden of the village was married to a smart young man in disguise who was really a snake. Both the bride and the bridegroom turned into snakes as they stepped into the river.

Luchragarh.—A village about 30 miles north-east of Simdega on Simdega-Bano road, in Kolebira police-station. Population (1961) 1,584. An old trade centre of the Simdega subdivision, ranking now only next to Simdega in commercial importance, the trade being in foodgrains, forest products and cloth. A few Oriya Brahman families had settled here about a century ago as priests on invitation from the former Raja of Ratu for worship of goddess Durga, installed in a temple here.

Lohardaga.—Situated on Ranchi-Simdega-Rourkella road, 46 miles from Ranchi. Terminus of Ranchi-Lohardaga narrow gauge railway. An old municipal town. Area 2.21 square miles; population (1961) 13,203; salubrious climate. Formerly administrative headquarters of Ranchi district.

A trade centre. The main items of export are bauxite ores to Muri; China-clay to Calcutta; timber to various destinations in Bihar and Bengal; grains and pulses, *mahua* flowers and country spirit all over Ranchi; vegetables to Ranchi, Jamshedpur, Calcutta, Dhanbad, Hazaribagh and Rourkella. In cauliflower season about 30 to 40 truck loads of cauliflowers are exported daily. It has also labour recruiting depots for tea-gardens of Assam and Duars.

There are several beauty spots within 10 miles of its radius.

Lupungdi.—A village of old antiquities in Khunti police-station. In about 1915 an ancient burial site yielded large earthen jars, containing bones and some also copper ornaments and stone beads*.

Majhgaon.—A village of old antiquities, situated in the western portion of Chainpur police-station.

Among the ruins are two roofless temples on hillock, built of stone and consisting of a small shrine chamber, $6' - 1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 5' - 1\frac{1}{2}''$ and a smaller antechamber in front. The door frames of both the temples and the antechamber are exquisitely carved with sculptures, floral and other patterns. Similar carvings are also to be seen on the exterior of the walls of the temple, though they are much weather-worn now. On the dedicatory blocks of the lintels of the two doorways figures of Ganesa are found carved and from the two *lingas,* lying inside, it is obvious that the temple was originally dedicated to Shiva.

* S. C. Roy: JBORS, I, p. 248.

Stone images, *lingas,* carved pieces and pillars, obviously representing remains of other temples in the locality were discovered. The images represent deities like Vishnu, Surya, Mahishasuramardini Durga, Lakshmi, etc. One of the *lingas* is carved with human face.

In a sacred grove, about half a mile east of the hillock, are found similar carvings; probably of medieval times and images, one of which is worshipped as Radha Krishna. No inscription has been noticed among the ruins.

Of the ruins the most interesting is a broken iron *trisula* (trident), unusually disproportionate with the size of ancient temples. The broken blades of its three prongs were found lying at site. Its main rod is octagonal, 11″ in perimeter and more than 6 feet of it is said to be imbedded underground. Its total height with the blades is estimated to be about 17 feet. There are indications that the pieces were welded together. Its history and antiquity is uncertain*.

There is also a comparatively late brick temple built by an ancestor of the Raja of Majhgaon some time in the 19th century. It is dedicated to god Tanginath (another name of Shiva) from whom the hillock is known as Tanginath Pahar. A few old sculptures from an earlier temple seem to have been used in its construction.

Mandar.—Sixteen miles west of Ranchi on Ranchi-Lohardaga road. A modern hospital run by the Roman Catholic Mission, specially for treatment of females is located here. It exports vegetables to Ranchi, Jamshedpur and Calcutta. Has a police-station and an inspection bungalow. Block headquarters.

McCluskiegunj.—A modern colony by village Lapra, in Khelari police-station, about 38 miles north-west of Ranchi, on Barkakana-Dehri-on-Sone line of the Eastern Railway.

In 1934 one E. T. McCluskie after whom the colony is named, started it over 10,000 acres of land to settle his fellow Anglo-Indians. The land was then full of forests and infested with wild animals. He died in 1937 and was succeeded by Sir Henry Gidney, who took Sir Maurice Hallett, the then Governor of Bihar, on a visit to the colony and this resulted in construction of a District Board road, 36 miles in length connecting the colony with Ranchi. By 1939 about 300 Anglo-Indian families had settled in the colony. Each of them owned magnificent villas with extensive farm land attached. They brought here all the modern amenities, such as sports like hockey, football, cricket, tennis, a co-operative departmental store, club, dispensary, nursing home, school and church of different denominations. Soon the World War II broke out and the able-bodied settlers joined the armed forces. However, by the end of the

* Chuni Lal Ray: JBORS, I, 117 ff.

War when country was on the threshold of independence, many of them chose to avail of the free passages overseas and decided to settle in foreign countries, mainly Australia. Some went to Pakistan also. Thus the original scheme of the rehabilitation of the Anglo-Indian community virtually came to an end.

Prior to 1946 the colony was a preserve of Anglo-Indians only and the lands in the colony could be sold only to Anglo-Indians, but subsequently this restriction was removed with the result that the settlers sold their lands to anyone and usually at a very cheap rate. Now one medium size refractory industry, started in 1959, and a few small-scale cottage industries such as pottery, tailoring, blacksmithy, carpentry and bakery are located here. The colony is ideally suited for modern farming and ancillary industries.

Mesra.—Situated 9 miles north-east of Ranchi on Ranchi-Hazaribagh road. A modern public school, Vikas Vidyalaya, is located here. About a mile to the east is the Birla Institute of Technology.

Murhu.—About 32 miles south of Ranchi on Ranchi-Chaibasa road. Formerly an important lac manufacturing centre, but decaying now due to synthetic substitute in market, though there are still 4 lac seed factories. Has two saw mills. Block headquarters.

Muri.—An industrial township, situated 42 miles east of Ranchi off Ranchi-Purulia highway, on the river Subarnarekha. Area 1.57 square miles. Population (1961) 4,654. Occupied houses 986.

An important railway junction connecting (*i*) Barkakana-Ranchi Road-Gomoh; (*ii*) Chandrapura-Gomoh-Gaya-Patna; (*iii*) Chandil-Tatanagar-Calcutta; and (*iv*) Ranchi-Rourkella. The first railway line to connect Muri with Ranchi was Purulia-Ranchi narrow gauge line opened in 1905. The section between Chandrapura and Muri was opened in 1959 followed by replacement of Muri-Ranchi narrow gauge by broad gauge in 1960, which now extends to Rourkella via Hatia. Connected by highway to Calcutta via Dhanbad and also Jamshedpur via Purulia. About 20 buses touch it daily.

An aluminium factory is located here. It manufactures alumina from bauxite ores received from quarries at Bagru hills and exports it to Alwaye in Kerala for its reduction into aluminium with cheap hydro electricity available there. The factory area is well planned with concrete roads, modern residential houses, drainage and sewerage, power and water-supply, park and lawns, club with library and two rest houses. It has 311 residential houses for its employees, runs one middle school and one higher secondary school and maintains a hospital, also open to non-employees. It opened a multipurpose co-operative society for its employees in 1956.

Nagpheni.—A small village in Sissai police-station, 10 miles from Gumla. A beauty spot above rocky falls of the river Koel. On a hill near the village lie many roughly carved stones, one bearing the date 1961 Samvat, (i.e., 1705 A.D.). It is said that a Raja intended to erect a palace on this, but died before the work could be completed. On a tomb in the village is a crude carving representing Raja, his seven Ranis and his dog. The name Nagpheni means a Cobra's hood, and owes its origin to a stone, somewhat of the shape of Cobra's hood, which is visible on the hills-side*.

Nagri.—A village, 10 miles south-west of Ranchi, situated in the centre of an intensive vegetable growing belt, exporting vegetables to Hatia, Calcutta, etc.

Namkum.—Situated about 6 miles south-east of Ranchi on Ranchi-Tamar-Jamshedpur highway. Lac Research Institute and Agricultural Experiment Farm are located here.

Netarhat.—Situated 96 miles west of Ranchi on a plateau about 3,750 ft. above sea-level. Technically in the Palamau district, but integrated to Ranchi for all practical purposes. Netarhat Vidyalaya run by State Government and an Agricultural Farm specialising in sugarcane, apples, peaches and plums are located here. It was initially developed as a hill station (1915—20) under the inspiration of Sir Edward A. Gait, then Governor of Bihar and Orissa. Has a number of Inspection Bungalows and Rest Houses, with electricity and running water, most important being the Forest Bungalow for sylvan excellence and the Palamau Bungalow to view the sunrise. The sunset can be seen with a picturesque horizon expanding over a vast tract of forests from Magnolia point in the extreme west of the plateau. It has a hospital and co-operative store, open to visitors. The best visiting season is October to February. An ideal spot for trekking and exploration.

Oskea.—A hamlet of village Bawni in Khunti police-station. A burial site, locally attributed to the Asurs and called Asur *Smasan* (i.e., cemetery of the Asurs) was discovered here. The stone slabs usually placed over the cinerary urns had mostly been taken away by the Munda villagers of the locality. The cinerary urns were also ransacked by them. Copper ornaments and stone heads are occasionally found in the urns. The village also contains an ancient smelting kiln attributed to the Asurs and known as Hasur Kutti†.

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* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917) pp. 251-52.

† JBORS, Vol. I, pp. 244-45.

Palkot.—The name 'Palkot' is said to be derived from an Oraon word *Pal,* a tooth, or a Mundari word *Pahal,* a plough-share, and to owe its origin to a curious natural pillar which stands about a mile to the north of the village*. Population (1961) 3,399. Has a dispensary, a veterinary dispensary, a high school and a post office. Former headquarters of the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur. Doisa having been declared to be of ill-omen, the Maharaja settled here because of the availability of cool and fresh spring water issuing from the hill. The family, according to its own records, established itself here about 1667 A.D., but more probably in the first half of the 18th century. The extensive buildings of the place, built on the side of the hill, are of little architectural interest. The village has numerous tanks and gardens, one of which is known as the *sati bagicha,* in memory of a lady of the Chief's household who became *sati* on the site of it. Owing to differences with his nephew, Bara Lal Upendra Nath Sahi Deo, Maharaja Jagannath Sahi forsook Palkot for Bharno in 1867. The old palace of the Maharaja has fallen down. The Maharaja's family has constructed a new house at a distance of half a mile from the old place.

Panch Ghagh.—Nine miles from Khunti. A beauty spot well worth a visit during rains. According to local legends five sisters fell in love with one man. A tragedy overtook them and the five girls perished and are said to have assumed the form of five streams.

Pandu.—A village of old antiquities in Khunti police-station, with an Asura site known, as 'Ita Daur's'. On occasional diggings at this site foundations of brick walls, earthen jars with bones and copper ornaments are reported to have been found. At a depth of about 4 feet a stone slab with a rounded top of a tyle usually placed on "Asura" grave was also discovered once. A four-legged stone stall obtained from the site is now in Patna Museum. Later an elongated axehead of schist was also discovered from the same site†.

Paroa Ghagh (Paroa Fall).—A waterfall on the river Karo at village Derang in Torpa block in Khunti subdivision, situated at a distance of 29 miles from Khunti. The way to the fall lies through Khunti, Torpa and Tapakara which is motorable except the last 5 miles which have to be done on foot. The height of the fall is about 75 feet.

Pesrar.—A typical tribal village in natural surroundings, 2,800 feet above sea-level, situated 65 miles from Ranchi town and 19 miles from Lohardaga the latter portion being a fair-weather morum road. There is a Forest Inspection Bungalow here Ideally located for the study of tribals, *shikar* and cross-country trek to bauxite quarries at Pakhar, Marupat and Bagru.

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), p. 252.

† S. C. Roy : JBORS, I, pp. 241-42; and II, p. 72.

With the development of 19 miles morum stretch into an all-weather road and construction of a Tourist Bungalow with 3 to 4 rooms with electricity and modern conveniences, Pesrar has potentiality to attract the tourists who visit Ranchi.

Pokla.—A village of old antiquities, situated six miles south-west of Khunti. The ruins consist of a graveyard marked by 17 slabs of stone and a sepulchral stone pillar. The slabs are of irregular shape, but the pillar is regular in shape and has something like a roundish head on top and is 6′ 9″ in height above ground. Besides, it has symmetrical sides, the width at bottom being 1′ 9″ of the slabs the largest one is $9\frac{1}{2}' \times 8'$ while the smallest $3' 3\frac{1}{2}'' \times 2' 6\frac{1}{2}''$, thickness on average being one foot. The excavations of the site of the smaller slab yielded two earthen urns, placed one above the other. The upper urn contained bones while the lower one yielded fragments of a copper ornament*.

Raidih.—Situated in sylvan surroundings in Gumla subdivision on the border of Bihar and Madhya Pradesh. Suitable for study of tribal life. It has a cave near village Kundra, one waterfall at village Teralwa, a lake at Hiradih and some old statues at Basudeo Kara. Block headquarters.

Rajadera.—A beauty spot in the valley of the river Sankh in Chainpur police-station about 50 miles north-west of Gumla. So named because the Maharajas of Chota Nagpur and high officials used to camp here while on their hunting excursions in the locality, which was at one time full of wild animals. In its vicinity is a waterfall known as Udni-Sadni Ghagh. The river Sankh takes its source from Besnapat which is also very close to Rajadera. The Raj Bungalow situated on the hills is about 3 miles from the Netarhat Bungalows.

Ramrekha Pahar.—Situated in sylvan surroundings about 25 miles west of Simdega, it is a place of pilgrimage as well as a beauty spot. A local legend says that Ram with his consort Sita and his brother Lakshman spent here a part of their exile. Ramrekha is so called because it is said to possess the footprints of Ram. There is a cave associated with the sojourn of Ram during his period of exile. This has the idols of Ram, Sita and Lakshman; Krishna and Radha; Lord Jagannath; and a Shiva *Linga.* A *sankh* (conch) and a Shiva *Linga* are said to be the old remains found in the cave. The *sankh* when blown is said to sound "Ram". Near the cave is a *Jalkund* (waterpit) called Ram Ganga, said to have been excavated by Ram through the stroke of his mighty arrow for bathing. This *kund* resembles a bow. It is deep and has a perennial flow of water. Its water is credited with properties to cure leprosy.

* S. C. Roy : JBORS, I, pp. 237-38.

In the north-west of the cave there is a place called *Agni-kund* (firepit). It is believed that the sages of yore had their abodes here and made firepit for oblation. A place is called Janki *chulha* or oven of Sita. Pilgrims still cook food on this site during the *mela.*

Ramrekha is locally called a *dham.* The Raja of Biru, Shri Gajraj Singh Deo donated about 60 acres of land for the maintenance of the temple. He also made a gift of the idols.

A *mela* is held on the *Kartik Purnima* (full moon day of *Kartik*) every year. About five to six thousand pilgrims congregate here for offering oblation to Lord Ram. The fair lasts for three days. The *mela* clears a lot of commodities for consumption of the people.

A *kutcha* feeder road from Kochedega connects Ramrekha. During fair weather a jeep could go up to the top of the hill where the cave temple is situated. But the pedestrians have to ascend about one and a half miles to reach the top of the hill.

Ranchi.—Situated in latitude 23°23′ N. and longitude 85°23′ E. on the central plateau at a height of 2,128 feet above the sea-level, it is served by Muri-Rourkella Branch of the South Eastern Railway, Calcutta and Patna being 411 kilometres and 412 kilometres respectively. The highways radiate from here to Patna, Dhanbad, Calcutta, Purulia, Jamshedpur, Chaibasa, Daltonganj and Lohardaga. It has also a modern aerodrome.

Administrative headquarters of the Ranchi district and of the Chota Nagpur Division. Population (1961) 1,40,253*.

The early administrative history of Ranchi is linked to the creation of the South-West Frontier Agency by the British in 1834 when the first Agent, Captain Wilkinson, selected the hamlet of Kishanpur as his headquarters, his court being on the site where the office of the Executive Engineer, P.W.D. stands at present, opposite Circuit House on Lalpur road. The station was later designated Ranchi. Captain Wilkinson built a house, which was till recently occupied by the Commissioner, Chota Nagpur Division, on a site leased from the Jagirdar of the village Chadri. It is known as the Commissioner's compound. He also excavated a tank with jail labour, now popularly known as *Bhutaha Talab.* Lieutenant-Colonel Ousely (1939—48) extended the compound of the house erected by his predecessor to include a coffee garden and the Ranchi hill, and excavated the Sahib Bandh, i.e., Ranchi Lake, some fifty acres in extent, fringed by trees, with picturesque islands in the midst, and a pillared bathing ghat and two small temples on one side. On the summit of the pyramid-shaped Ranchi hill, he erected a summer house, as a place of rest during his morning walks. Subsequently the inhabitants of Ranchi erected a temple at this site and dedicated it to Mahadeva.

* *Census of India*, 1961, Vol. IV, Bihar, Part II-A, p. 57.

It is now a Hindu shrine. In 1843 the headquarters of the Principal Assistant to the Agent were transferred to Ranchi from Lohardaga, and the first incumbent, Captain R. Ousely (1842—49) acquired from the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur a site in village Chadri with a circumference of nearly three miles, and set about building an imposing residence. To carry out this work, he embezzled Rs. 12,000 from the Government treasury, and, on the crime being detected, his brother, the Agent, committed suicide and he himself went mad, but was subsequently extradited from England and tried by court martial. The house which he built was taken over by Government and now forms the Court and office of the Commissioner of Chota Nagpur Division. Before the construction of the Civil Court buildings in 1952, the Judicial Commissioner, Chota Nagpur also held his Court in this house. In early days it had a very big compound, its western gate being on the west side of the Deputy Commissioner's office, and the other about a quarter of a mile south of the jail. Among the other old houses in Ranchi are Audrey House, formerly occupied by the Judicial Commissioner, which was built by Captain Hannyington, the first Deputy Commissioner of Chota Nagpur (1850—56), and the Deputy Commissioner's house built by Captain Birch who was Deputy Commissioner in 1862. The bungalow to the north of the office of the Deputy Commissioner was built by Mr. Stainforth, a Civilian, who retired to Ranchi and played a remarkable part in the economic development of the district, by starting tea cultivation at Hotwar in 1862, and by giving considerable impetus to the lac industry by the establishment of a lac factory at Doranda. The present office of the Deputy Commissioner, a long low red-brick building, was built in 1882, and since then numerous other offices have been erected in its neighbourhood, while houses for Government officers have been built on the open high ground to the north. The selection of Ranchi as the summer headquarters of the Government of Bihar and Orissa as the province was constituted till 1936, made it necessary to build houses for the Lieutenant-Governor and the officers of Government.

The Government House was first located in the Audrey House, adjacent to the present Government House. The construction of the present one was begun in 1930 and completed in March, 1931 at an approximate cost of Rs. 7 lacs. It was designed by Mr. Sadlow Ballerd, architect, and constructed by an English firm of builders and contractors of Calcutta under the supervision of British Engineers. About 400 labourers and 100 masons, mostly from the district of Muzaffarpur, were employed on this work. The wood work was done by Chinese carpenters who were brought from Calcutta. Portland cement was used as mortar. The roof had double Raniganj tiles to keep off heat. The floor, lounge and dance hall were lined with teak wood. The card-playing room was lined with marble and verandah was silver grey. The floor of the remaining portion was of iron slag. The compound had an Italian garden

designed by Mr. W. G. Came and it contained plants imported from Italy. It was the only building at Ranchi at that time which was electrified. A well of 25 feet diameter and about 50 feet in depth was constructed for water-supply. The first occupant of the Government House was Sir Hugh Stephenson.*

Among the old public buildings, the Sadar hospital, the Zila school, the Training school for teachers (now Ranchi College) on the Main Road, District Jail on Circular Road and the residential quarters near the Government House for the Secretaries may be mentioned. Of the old private buildings, the former Darbhanga Raj House, adjacent east to the Government House, now the headquarters of the National Coal Development Corporation, may also be noted.

The Lutheran Mission occupies a fine site in the centre of the town, and a cross in the compound marks the spot where the first missionaries pitched their tents in 1845. Six years later the foundation-stone of the first Christian Church in Chota Nagpur was laid, and the substantial Gothic edifice of Christ Church, which was built by the pioneers of the German Mission, mainly with their own hands, was consecrated in 1885.†

In the compound of the English Mission stands the stately brick church known as St. Paul's Cathedral. The church was designed by General Rowlatt, the Judicial Commissioner and consists of a lofty nave, the roof of which is supported on strong stone pillars, connected by Gothic arches, and two side aisles. The Chancel is separated from the nave by a high arch and terminates in a capacious apse. At the west end is a tall well-proportioned spire, which is conspicuous landmark. The foundation-stone was laid by Colonel Dalton in September, 1870 and the building constructed at a cost of only Rs. 26,000, mainly through public subscription, was consecrated in March, 1873‡.

The Roman Catholic Mission, which settled in Ranchi in 1887, has acquired a large site on the Purulia Road. The Catholic Church, with its two steeples 107 feet high, is a large and conspicuous building. It was begun in 1906 and completed in 1909. The plans were prepared, and the work executed with the local trained workmen under the supervision

* This is based on the recollection of Shri Baidyanath Sahay, one of the oldest living engineers, who was then inchargé as overseer of the construction works of the Government House. We understand on his authority that a mason used to get ten to twelve annas a day as wages while a male labourer got six annas and a female labourer four annas a day for 8 hours of work, which proceeded in two shifts. In those days rice was selling @ Rs. 2 per maund and vegetables @ 9 pies per seer.

Architecturally the Government House is at present as it was when originally constructed.

† *Ranchi District Gazetteer*, 1917, p. 255.

‡ *Ibid.*

of the lay-brothers of the Mission. The church is in the simple but effective Roman style. It is 206 feet long and 76 feet broad. The body of the church 125 feet long, with its central nave, 40 feet broad, and two side aisles, each 15 feet broad, can accommodate a large congregation. while the spacious sanctuary lends itself well to the solemn ceremonies of the Catholic church. Besides the church and Manresa House, the residence of the Jesuit Fathers, there is a Convent.* Handsome and spacious buildings have since been erected for the St. Joan's High School and the St. Xavier's College in the same campus.

The salubrious climate of Ranchi also induced many Europeans to settle in this district, e.g., at Hotwar, Mesra, Hatia, Doranda, Daladali. Some of them had residence even in the heart of the town, Mr. Peppy, a former Manager of Chota Nagpur Raj settled near Gossner Church, the locality now known as Peppy's Compound. Some of them took to tea and lac plantation while others took up jobs under the Tea Garden Labour Supply Organisation. Some sections of Indian aristocracy from Calcutta were also drawn to Ranchi and they constructed their houses mainly to the east of the Morabadi Maidan extending up to the Tagore Hill on its north and Bariatu to the east. But they were mostly seasonal visitors to Ranchi.

The good climate as well as opportunities due to the opening of Courts, offices and educational institutions induced professional classes, such as lawyers, doctors and teachers from Bengal to come to Ranchi in the last quarter of the 19th and the early part of the present century and they mostly settled near the Court, in the locality now known as Deputy Para, Burdwan Compound and Lalpur. The merchant classes mostly from South Bihar set up their shops in the area known as Upper Bazar. The area on either side of the main road was developed mostly by traders from up-country.

The pace of growth of Ranchi was accelerated when on creation of the province of Bihar and Orissa, Ranchi became the temporary capital of this new province in 1912 and remained as such till 1916. Later it continued to be the summer capital of the province till 1956 when on account of great demand on housing accommodation due to the industrialisation of the suburbs of Ranchi and also for the sake of economy, the Government Secretariat ceased to move to Ranchi, except that the Governor, as usual, has had his summer camp here.

Early during the second World War (1939–45) Ranchi became the headquarters of the Eastern Command of Indian Army and continued as such till 1954, when it removed to Lucknow, leaving only a skeleton staff

* *Ranchi District Gazetteer* (1917), pp. 255-56.

at Ranchi. They constructed a colony for their officers and staff, north-west of the Government House off Kanke Road. A large reserve of army was also stationed all over this district. This bolstered up its economy for some years though it also affected its idyllic, peaceful character.

A number of Government buildings have come up after 1950, notable among them being two wings added to the Ranchi Collectorate, Civil Court Building, Commercial Tax Building, New Circuit House, Administrative Training School, Ranchi College at Morabadi, Medical College at Bariatu and other Government buildings and quarters meant for officers, both in the northern as well as southern part of the town.

In post-1950 era, some impressive buildings were constructed at Ranchi. Among them those of the Ranchi College in Morabadi and St. Xavier's College on Purulia Road may specially be mentioned. The decade following saw the development of the colony of the National Coal Development Corporation on either side of Kanke Road, north of Morabadi and that of the Hindusthan Steel Ltd. at Doranda as experiments in modern town planning. Among the individual buildings of this period the Administrative Block of the Hindusthan Steel Ltd., the Accountant-General's Office (both in Doranda) and the premises of the Rajendra Medical College are noteworthy.

Prior to 1940 Ranchi used to be a sort of hill station. It was also noted as a seat of learning and culture, having a large number of well-run high schools including the Government Zila School where Art subjects were taught up to the intermediate standard of University. It used to draw literateurs, artists and holiday-makers from Calcutta, particularly during the Puja holidays; but otherwise its placid life, in spite of the summer camp of Government continued undisturbed. The policy of the British was to keep it a peaceful resort and accordingly they encouraged, if at all, only such industries near about it as were related to natural environment, e.g., tea and lac. The Second World War brought prosperity to this town, but at the cost of its serenity. In post-Independence era, a most modern industrial complex at Hatia, in the vicinity of Ranchi, has come up. Besides, Ranchi has become the headquarters of big industrial organisations like Hindusthan Steel Limited and National Coal Development Corporation. They have drawn large number of people not only from all parts of India, but also from foreign countries. The Government offices, both central and provincial, have also multiplied. This has reflected in the enormous growth in the number of public employees. New habitations have come up on either side of the roads leading to Ratu, Kanke, Bariatu, Hazaribagh, Purulia and Chaibasa. Some colonies of Government servants have also sprung up off Ratu Road and west of the Ranchi Railway station. The traffic jam on the main road during peak hours has become a problem. Ranchi is now transformed into an industrial town. Its traditional peaceful image is fast disappearing.

Ratu.—Seven miles west of Ranchi on Ranchi-Lohardaga road. A picnic spot. Seat of the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur. A Company manufacturing ball-bearings is located here. Noted for handloom industry. Block headquarters.

Saridkhel.—A village about 6 miles to the east of Khunti on Khunti-Tajna is a site associated with the Asurs. A local tradition ascribes the ruins to Dit Raja and according to S. C. Roy this may be *Daitya* which is another name for Asur in Indian Pauranic traditions. He also suggests another possible interpretation of the name 'Dit' as having been derived from Vikramaditya, the legendary hero of popular and literary traditions of Northern India.

Serka Fall.—About a mile to the east of Bishunpur, formed in the course of river Serka. A beauty spot.

Simdega.—Situated 126 miles south-west of Ranchi. Headquarters of a subdivision of the same name since its formation in 1915.

The origin of the name of Simdega is not definite. Some say that it consists of two words, namely, *sim* meaning hen and *dega* meaning step. Others suggest that it means watershed of the hills which girdle it. None appears to be convincing.

According to some old Marwaris who settled here from Tamar after the subdivisional headquarters had been set up the local habitation consisted of only 50 to 60 scattered households with about 250 persons. In 1951 the population of Simdega village was 2,151*. It rose to 10,438 in 1961†. This rise is due to regrouping of the part of the neighbouring villages of Gotra, Khijri and Saldega which are now included in the Union Board of Simdega.

The subdivisional buildings consist of courts and offices of the Subdivisional Magistrate including Sub-Registry office opened in 1924 and a sub-jail. Besides, there are subdivisional offices of other departments such as Education, Public Works, Unified Minor Irrigation, Animal Husbandry, Agriculture and Co-operative. The Forest Department has two range offices, Simdega East and West. There are post and telegraph offices including a public telephone call office. It has also a District Board Dak Bungalow, a Public Works Department Inspection Bungalow, a subdivisional hospital and a private dispensary of the Roman Catholic mission. There is also a veterinary hospital.

* *District Census Hand-book, Ranchi*, published in 1956, p. 336.

† *Census of India* (1961), Paper no. I of 1962, p. 177.

Simdega has no rail link. The Ranchi-Lohardaga-Gumla-Simdega *Pucca* road connects it with Ranchi. This road also links it with Birmitrapur and Steel Town of Rourkella in Orissa. Another road of lesser specification also joins it with Ranchi via Khunti. In the past lac provided the backbone of its economy, but its market, which depended on foreign export, has vanished on account of synthetic substitutes of lac. It is now a collecting centre of rice, *mahua,* tamarind and *chiranjidana** and exports about sixty thousand maunds of rice and one lakh maunds *mahua* annually, bulk of them going to Ranchi.

Hats are held every Monday and Thursday, there being much larger transaction on Thursday. The mode of transport from villages to collecting centre continues to be bullock-carts while they have been replaced by trucks on the metalled roads. The transport business has been multiplying on account of carriage of steel and iron goods and also timber from Rourkella to Ranchi and Simdega is a halting place for hauliers. This has helped ordinary hotels to develop.

The local population being rather indifferent to good breed of cattle milk, *ghee* and curd are scarce and, therefore, good sweetmeats are also not available. But a German Mission runs a farm at Khuntitoli, about two miles from Simdega and prepares cream cheese which is exported to Rourkella and Ranchi.

Remunerative markets at Rourkella and Hatia have given impetus to local poultry and piggery farms. There is a small steel factory employing about 15 workers. It manufactures steel box, almirah, godrej iron safe, round chair, etc. Some workers are employed on *biri* making also.

Simdega is electrified now. It was constituted into a Union Board in 1950. The only Bank operating here is a branch of the Central Co-operative Bank. Among the social institutions, mention may be made of the Simdega Club, the Adivasi Club including library and one Urdu and one general library. Simdega is changing its primitive rural character on account of its proximity to the industrialised belt of Orissa with Rourkella as its centre.

Sringarlata Cave.—It is on the top of a hill at village Orga in Kolebira police-station, having many pictures in relief. According to a local tradition, in olden days Munda chiefs had their abode here.

Sugakata Ghagh.—Situated about 15 miles from Simdega. It is a fall in the river Sankh where it passes between villages Hardibera and Purnapani. A fair-weather road exists up to Pakardanr only which is about four miles from the Ghagh.

* A fruit of piar tree.

Sutiambe.—Situated about 10 miles north of Ranchi, it is believed to be the original home of the Nagbanshi Rajas of Chota Nagpur. A *mela* known as *Indrayatra* is held here annually in the month of *Bhado.*

Tamar.—An ancient village on Ranchi-Jamshedpur-Bahragora national highway, 37 miles south-east of Ranchi and 41 miles north-west of Jamshedpur. The Raja of Tamar, in the eighteenth and early nineteenth century was practically an independent ruler, only paying some tribute to the Feudatory State of Mayurbhanj in Orissa.

Tamar appears to derive its name from Mundari word *Tarmara* which denotes a flat type large mushroom once found in abundance in the local forests. The land is flat in configuration, surrounded by hills. Some believe that the name is after the legendary king Tamardhwaj.

The original settlers were the Mundas. The Manjhi *Sravakas* followed them. They were Jains, but it seems, they have now fully adopted traditional Hindu culture. The numerous tanks found in the locality are said to have been dug by them. Legends trace their migration to this place from Rajasthan due to religious persecution. They developed agriculture in this area. The Adhikaris, followers of Mahaprabhu Shri Chaitanya settled here about four centuries ago and built a temple of Radha-Krishan. The bricks and iconography on the walls of the temple testify to the artistic skill of the builders who are said to have come from Puri. It is said that Shri Chaitanya passed through this part of the country on his way to Jagannath Puri. The Vaishnava cult has made deep impact in this area. The other castes like Gosain, Dhobi, Roniyar, Surhi, Lohar, Dom, Ghasi and Marwari settled here later.*

There is a temple of unknown date at Deori, about 2 miles away from Tamar, built of cut stones and squares put together without any clamps. The Deity of *Solahbhuja Devi* is installed here†.

It is interesting to note that two different cults, namely, Vaishnavism and Shakti-worship have flourished here side by side in this locality.

* Our investigations reveal that the trading communities, i.e., Rauniyar, Surhi, etc., are mostly settlers from Patna and Gaya districts. Their ancestors used to carry on trade in salt from the markets on the Orissa sea coast to South Bihar on pack bullocks and apparently attracted by the fertility of soil in the region of Tamar and also the prospect in lac trade, made their homes here.

† *See*, Chapter on 'Education and Culture' for details.

Tamar is one of the oldest thanas in the Ranchi district*. The Forest Department has its Range Office and a forest rest house here. The Public Works Department has also an inspection bungalow. A Community Development Block was opened in 1962. It has a post office, a State dispensary, a high school and a *gram panchayat*.

Tatisilwai.—About 10 miles east of Ranchi on Ranchi-Purulia Road and on railway line having a station of the same name. An industrial centre manufacturing wire ropes.

Tupudana.—A village in Hatia police-station, 10 miles from Ranchi, situated on the junction of the roads leading to Ranchi, Khunti, Namkum and Khijri. Population (1961) 1,212.

The local Bhogtas hold fire-walking ceremony after observing fast and doing *puja*. It has been observed that even after walking on glowing embers or throwing them about they are not hurt.

A poultry breeding centre. The proximity of Ranchi and Hatia ensures a ready market.

* W. W. Hunter: *A Statistical Account of Bengal*, Vol. XVI, p. 478.

APPENDIX I.

MOUNTAINEERING IN RANCHI.

In the wake of industrialisation in post-1960 period Ranchi is fast turning into a cosmopolitan city. It has few parks and play-grounds and the sprawling population is a potential threat to them. Clubs and cinemas may not provide sufficient recreational facilities to the coming generations. In this context hill trekking and rock climbing as a mode of sport hold a good prospect to them. The places suitable in this context are described below:—*

Physical Configuration.

The highest point in Ranchi district is about 4,000 feet above sea-level. Thus it is possible to pursue only some elementary aspects of mountaineering in this part of Bihar. But the district is very suitable as a basic training ground for aspiring mountaineers.

A considerable amount of hill trekking and rock climbing is a pre-requisite of a full-scale mountaineering expedition. Training in both of these can be given in Ranchi district and these activities fostered and encouraged by a number of educational institutions.

Only the hilly and rocky areas are not yet under plough. These are either covered with forests or are completely useless and barren outcrops of rock. This terrain can be used for basic training in trekking and rock climbing. The boundary of Ranchi district runs haphazardly over the Chota Nagpur plateau. In the north-west the land about 2,000 feet in height, covers about two-third areas of the district. The lower part representing the extreme east and south is about 1,000 feet high. The north-west have lofty ranges, called *pats*, the highest point being Saro Hill (3,615 feet), 20 miles west of Lohardaga. Further north-west is the plateau of Netarhat, where the hills level off to form a further plateau just under 4,000 feet. Except for these ranges, Ranchi district is mainly flat, occasionally small hills rising up 700 feet from the plateau floor. All these hills and ranges provide suitable areas for hill trekking.

Hill Walking.

A suitable place for hill walking is all around the Netarhat plateau where there are a number of bungalows where a trekking party can stay comfortably. The sides of Netarhat plateau are steep and forest-clad including considerable areas of bamboo, but the plateau itself is ideal for easier trekking, having both forest and grassland on its gentle slopes.

The forest area around Horhap near Tatisilwai is also suitable for a day's trekking, though the operation is rough and slow going.

For easier working the areas near Ratu, 10 miles from Ranchi, and Tikratoli on Ranchi-Itki road are also suitable.

* Monograph (1967): A. B. Hawley, Cambridge University; sometime lecturer, St. Xavier's School, Doranda, Ranchi.

Rock Climbing.

The basic essentials of rock climbing can be taught without equipment, but sooner or later keener climbers must require rope and guidance. The rocks of Ranchi consist entirely of igneous upthrusts or granite gneiss, which have weathered into rounded slabs in many places. Cracks do occur in the rocks, but the weathering is usually in the shape of a coarse grit. The rock underlying the Chota Nagpur plateau is much softer and entirely unsuitable for rock climbing, but this does not appear above the surface in any mass in Ranchi district.

Above 10 miles from Netarhat Vidyalaya exists an excellent chimney, a part of a waterfall, which is good for beginners in climbing, but can be used only outside the rainy season. At Bariatu, near Ranchi there is a series of rock outcrops, all of which are highly suitable for elementary training in rock climbing.*

The Gorkha Hill (3,800 feet high) in the valley of Chutupalu is within easy approach both from Ranchi and Hazaribagh, particularly from Vikas Vidyalaya.

Ranchi is known for its waterfalls and one with the highest and most spectacular drop is at Hundru. about 24 miles north-east of Ranchi where the river Subarnarekha plunges about 320 feet down into a series of pools rapids. Though it offers the change of abseiling and fixed rope ascents for the more advanced climbers, it is only practicable when the weather has been fine for some time. Rock climbing here in the rainy season is dangerous. At Gautamdhara, there is Jonha fall with little to offer in climbing line apart from rock scrambling foothold practice.

Trekking and Climbing.

Hill walking and trekking are best attempted from November to March. Climate is quite agreeable. The rock climbing, however, can easily be continued right up until May in early hours of the day. A careful planning and reconnaissance are required before a trek should be attempted.

Conclusion.

As a potential centre for the elementary training of Himalayan climbers, Ranchi district can play an important part in rock training for those who aspire to reach greater heights. Netarhat in particular can be developed into a place for a summer school for training in mountaineering with its ideal site for trekking and camping and advantages of rock pitches fairly close at hand. But whatever may be the final objective, the basic ground work of trekking and "getting used to the rock" must start from small beginnings with the encouragement of the local school and colleges.

* Currently there is a danger from bees in one of these, but the others are free from this hazard.

GLOSSARY.

(A list of technical words used in this volume or otherwise current in the Ranchi district.)

A

Abkari	..	Excise duty.
Abwabs	..	Charges levied from *raiyats* other than rent.
Adhbatai	..	Half-produce rent.
Agahani	..	That (crop) which is harvested in the month of *Agahan*.
Akhara	..	A piece of land belonging to the village community on which the aborigines dance.
Amlas	..	Members of the ministerial staff.

B

Bakasht	..	Land in the cultivating possession of the landlords.
Bakra Salami	..	Present of he-goats to landlords. (A kind of praedial condition.)
Barahil	..	A landlord's servant.
Bardoch	..	An *abwab* payable by tenants for purchase of bullocks by their landlords.
Bari	..	First class upland.
Belagan	..	Rent-free.
Beth-Begari	..	Exaction of forced labour.
Bhadai	..	That (crop) which is harvested in the month of *Bhado*.
Bhugut Bandha	..	A kind of mortgage under which the mortgagee cultivates the land until the expiration of the period of the mortgage.
Bhut Kheta	..	Lands dedicated to the worship of the village spirits.

Birit .. A grant or a gift.

Birit-pujai .. A grant or gift made to a person on the condition that he carries on worship of any particular deity. Also indicates holdings in possession of the recognised *Pahan* of the village.

Brahmottar .. *Jagir* to a Brahman in lieu of his services as a priest

C

Chanda .. Contribution towards rent payable by *Mundari khuntkattidars* to their headman.

Chhatisa .. A tenancy consisting of *don* land with a quantity of complementary upland.

Chhapar-bandi .. House-tax.

D

Dakhalkar .. Occupancy *raiyat's* status.

Dak-moshahra .. A cess originally levied by landlords to meet Government cess (a kind of *abwab*).

Dasain-Salami .. Present to landlords on eve of *Dasahara* festival (A kind of *abwab*).

Debottar-Jagir .. A *jagir* tenure held in trust for the benefit of a deity.

Diku .. Non-aboriginal.

Doami .. Permanently settled.

E

Elakadari .. A kind of tenure.

Elaka Maurusi .. Ditto

F

Fardhawala .. Agricultural stock list.

G

Gair-dakhalkar .. Non-occupancy *raiyats* status.

Gairahi .. A kind of communal land from the produce of which the expense of ghost worship is met.

Gairmazrua-am .. Uncultivated communal lands.

Ghatwals .. Guards of mountain passes; hence *Ghatwali* tenures for such services.

H

Hargari .. Burial ground.

Hawalgi lagan .. Joint rents of two or more tenancies.

Hinheyat .. A life grant generally granted to ladies.

J

Jagir .. Land or tenure held rent-free or on quit rent on condition of performing some service or as a reward for certain services performed in the past.

Jamabandi .. Landlord's rent-roll.

Jhuming .. Cutting jungle for shifting cultivation.

Jhakhra .. A sacred place for ghost worship.

K

Kabillagan .. Assessable to rent.

Kabristan .. A Mohammedan graveyard.

Kaemi raiyat .. A settled *raiyat*.

Kabuliat .. Counterpart of a lease executed by a tenant in favour of the landlord.

Khas Khalsa .. In direct possession of; personal.

Khasra .. (1) Plot, (2) List of plots with description and area.

Khata .. A record of rights in respect of holding.

Khatian .. A volume containing *khatas*.

Khewat .. The record-of-rights in respect of proprietors and tenure-holders.

Khorposh .. Maintenance grant. (Derived from Persian *Khurdan*=To eat; *Posidan*=To wear.)

Kisan .. An agriculturist.

Kistwar .. Cadastral survey.

Korkar .. Conversion of waste land into paddy-growing land.

M

Mahaltari jagir .. A kind of *jagir* to ladies.

Mahajan .. Money-lender.

Mahto .. Village headman.

Manki .. The head of a *patti*, which is constituted usually of 10 or 12 *Mundari-khuntkatti* villages.

Manki-patti .. Jurisdiction of a *Manki*.

Majhihas .. Absolutely privileged lands of a proprietor or tenure-holder surveyed under Act II (B.C.) of 1869 A.D.

Masna .. Cremation ground.

Maswar .. A system of produce rent in which a *raiyat* pays as rent to his landlord an amount of the produce equivalent to the quantity of seed sown by him.

Maurusi .. Hereditary.

Mokarri .. A permanent lease.

Mundari-khuntkatti .. Tenure held jointly by descendants of original founders of a *Mundari* village after clearing jungles.

N

Naukarana .. Appertaining to service.

Nawakhani .. Contribution of rice at winter harvest.

Nayabadi .. Newly reclaimed land.

Nazrana .. Vide, *salami*.

Niksari .. A quit rent.

Nilamil-jot .. A holding sold in court sale in execution of rent decree (but which the judgment-debtor tenant continues to hold on).

P

Pahan .. Village priest.

Paila .. A unit of grain measure.

Panbhara .. A village official who draws water for use on the occasion of ghost worship.

Partijadid .. Current fallow.

Patta .. A counterpart of a lease executed by a landlord in favour of the tenant.

Putra-Putradik .. Heritable by the male descendants in the male line of the original grantee.

R

Rajhas .. Lands in possession of cultivating *raiyats*.

Rakhant .. Reserved.

Rakumat .. Praedial conditions.

Rasid-likhai .. A praedial condition appertaining to writing of rent-receipt.

S

Saika .. A system of produce rent in which the amount of produce is generally fixed.

Salami .. A premium paid by lessees to lessors at the time of settlement of land.

Sajha .. Same as *adhbatai*.

Sarna .. A sacred grove, belonging to the village community also called "*jahira*" or "*Jahirsthan*" or "*Jhakhra*".

Sasandiri	..	The burial ground of the *Mundari Khuntkattidars.*
Sewait	..	A person who looks after land or tenure or other properties dedicated to some deity and also worships it.
Sindurtari	..	A kind of grant to a lady.

T

Terij	..	Abstract of the *khatians* containing the names of tenants, the area of each holding and the rent.
Thikadar	..	A lessee.
Thikabemeadi	..	A lease for an indefinite period.

U

Utur	..	A sacred place belonging to the village community in which certain ceremony is performed by the relatives of the dead immediately after burning the dead bodies.

Z

Zarpeshgi	..	Usufructuary mortgage.
Zirat	..	A kind of proprietor's privileged land.

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The records bearing on the British occupation of Chota Nagpur are to be found in the Foreign (Secret) and Military Department records of the period from 1765 to 1780 in the National Archives of India. The Foreign (Miscellaneous) and Foreign (Political) series of records in the National Archives also contain papers bearing on political relationship with the Marathas on the South-Western periphery of the Ranchi district. The records relating to the Ranchi or Lohardaga district, since 1834 are also to be found in the Revenue and Judicial records of the Home Department. The Bengal Revenue and Judicial correspondences with the Court of Directors from 1834 to 1858, preserved in the National Archives also contain papers relating to the district of Lohardaga. In the Revenue and Agriculture Department records since 1870 are to be found papers relating to agrarian reforms in Ranchi district.

In the West Bengal State Archives, records relating to Chota Nagpur are to be found in detail in the proceedings of the Revenue Department since 1772 and of the Jundicial (both Civil and Criminal) Department since 1790. Papers relating to the extension of British administrative system in the territories ruled by the Maharaja of Chota Nagpur, the Kol rebellions, the agrarian troubles, Mutiny, etc., are to be had in these records.

Most of the pre-1858 records preserved in the National Archives of India and the West Bengal Records Office are also available in the Commonwealth Relations Office (formerly India Office), London.

In the State Central Records Office, Bihar, are preserved the pre-1900 records of the Chota Nagpur Commissioner's Office and Ranchi Deputy Commissioner's Office, besides the Secretariat records of the

* Dr. A. P. Jha: Monograph, 1969.

State Government since 1859. In the Chota Nagpur Commissioner's series are to be found the correspondences of the Ramgarh Collector from 1799 to 1833, of the Officer Commanding the Ramgarh Battalion, who also exercised the powers of Political Agent, South-West Frontier, from 1802 to 1833 and of the Governor-General's Agent, South-West Frontier, who became Commissioner of Chota Nagpur in 1854, from 1834 to 1900. The Lohardaga side records of the Chota Nagpur Commissioner are most important for the present purpose.

Of the old records of the Ranchi Deputy Commissioner's Office, only 19 vols. of the period from 1858 to 1879 are available in the State Central Records Office, Bihar. Of these 11 volumes are from the correspondence of the Deputy Commissioner and 8 are from the Office of the Special Bhuinhari Commissioner.

All post-1900 records of the Chota Nagpur Commissioner's Office as well as the Ranchi Deputy Commissioner's Office are to be found in these offices.

Much valuable information relating to the social and administrative history of the district may be had from the case records preserved in the Judicial Commissioner's Office, Ranchi, and in the High Courts of Calcutta and Patna.

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Ranchi Lake.



Ranchi Hill (with Ranchi Lake in the foreground).



Tagore Hill, Morhabadi (Ranchi).



Jonha Falls (Gautamdhara).



Hundru Falls.



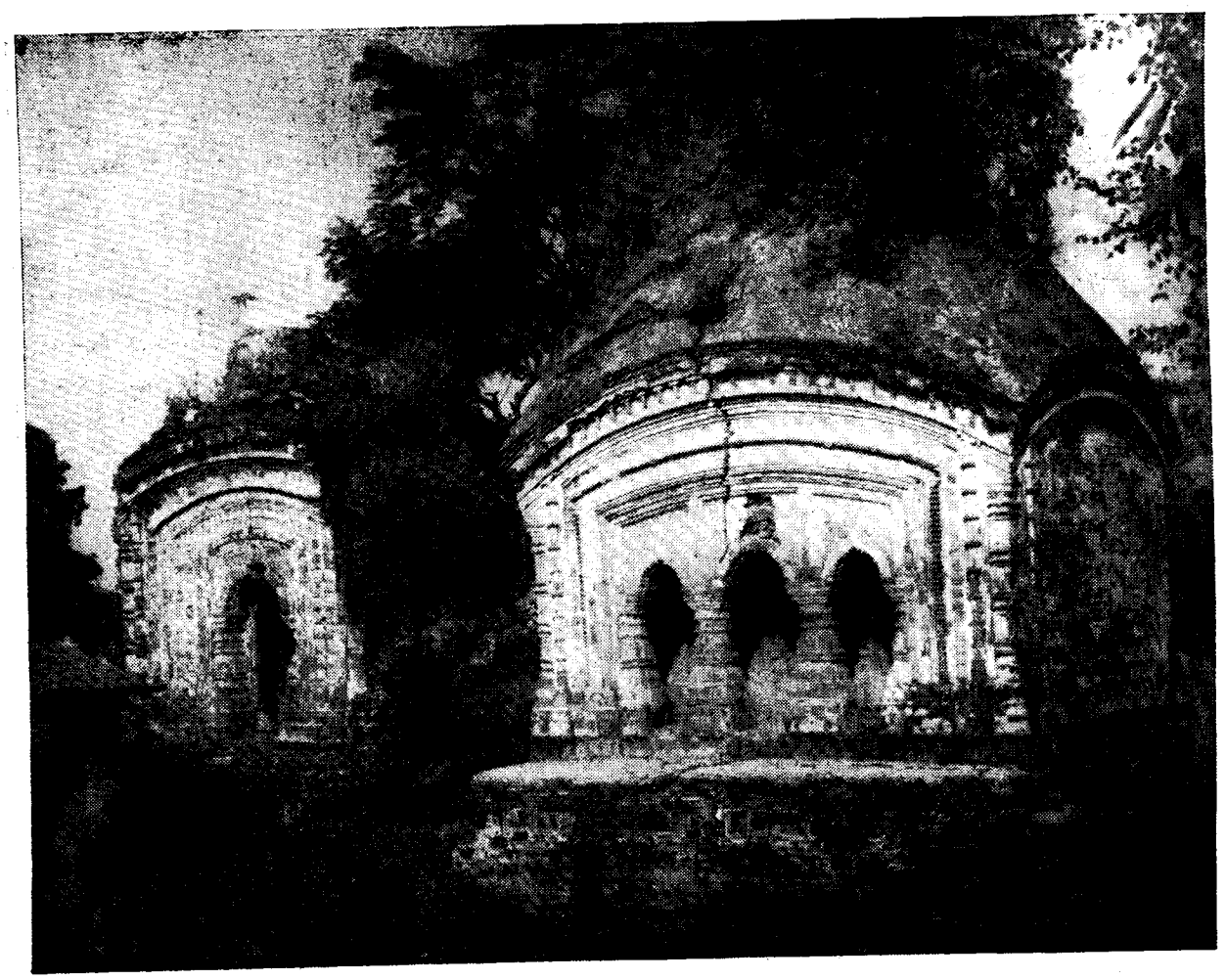
Orchids in forest.



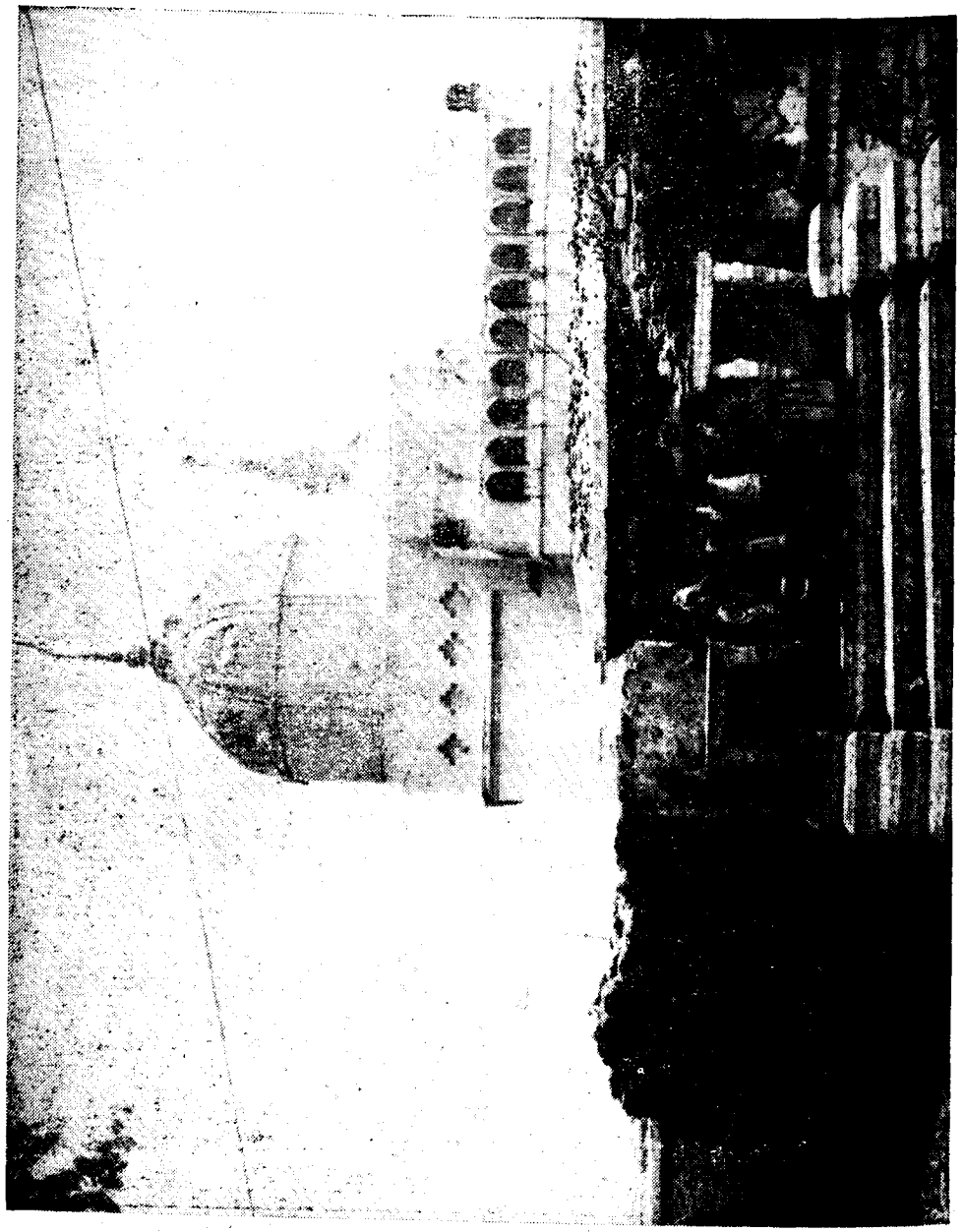
Jagannath Temple, Jagarnathpur.



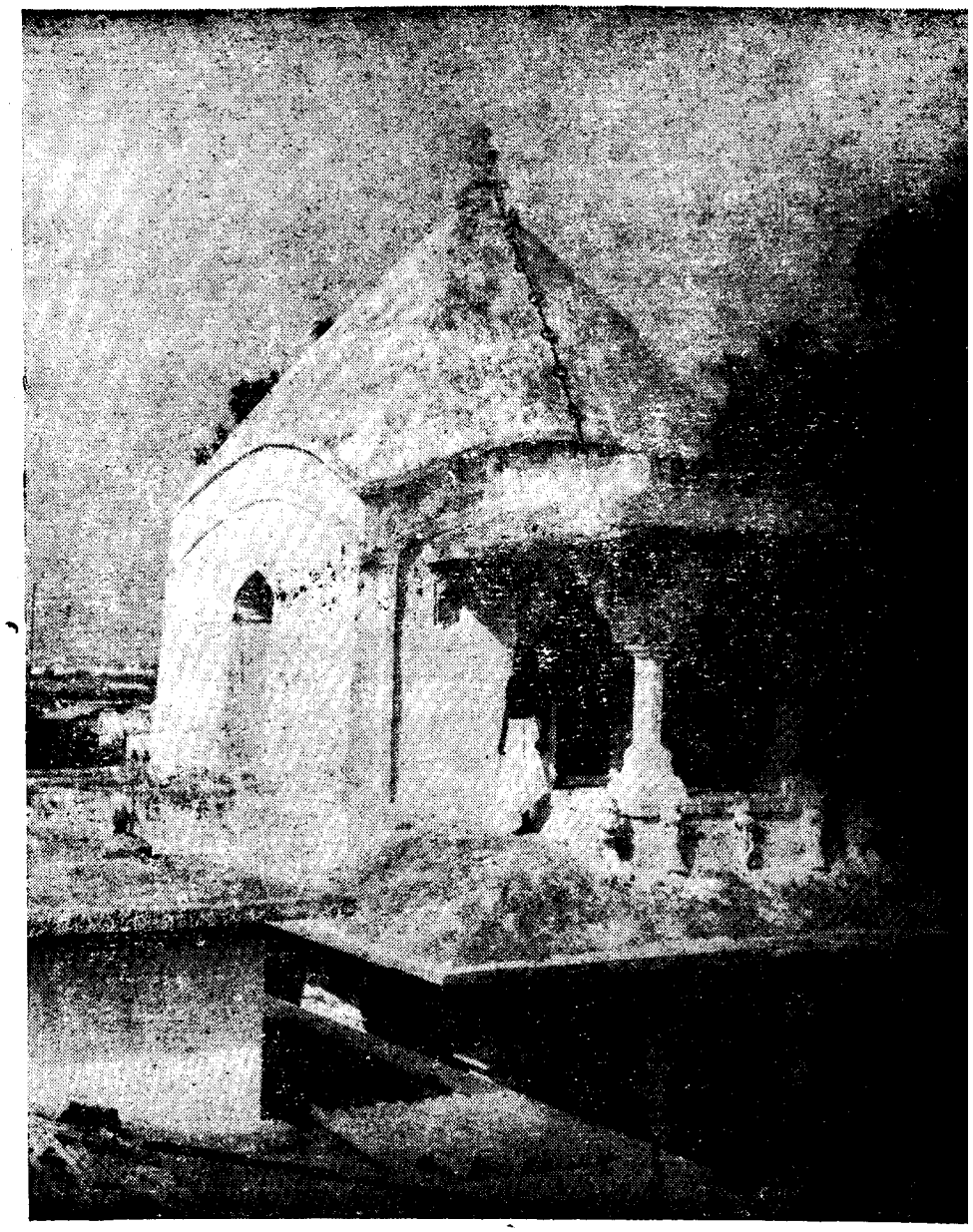
Temple Rekha Type, Haradih, P.-S. Tamar.



Shyama Charan Temple, Tamar.



Borea Temple (Kanke P.-S).



Chutia Temple (Ranchi).



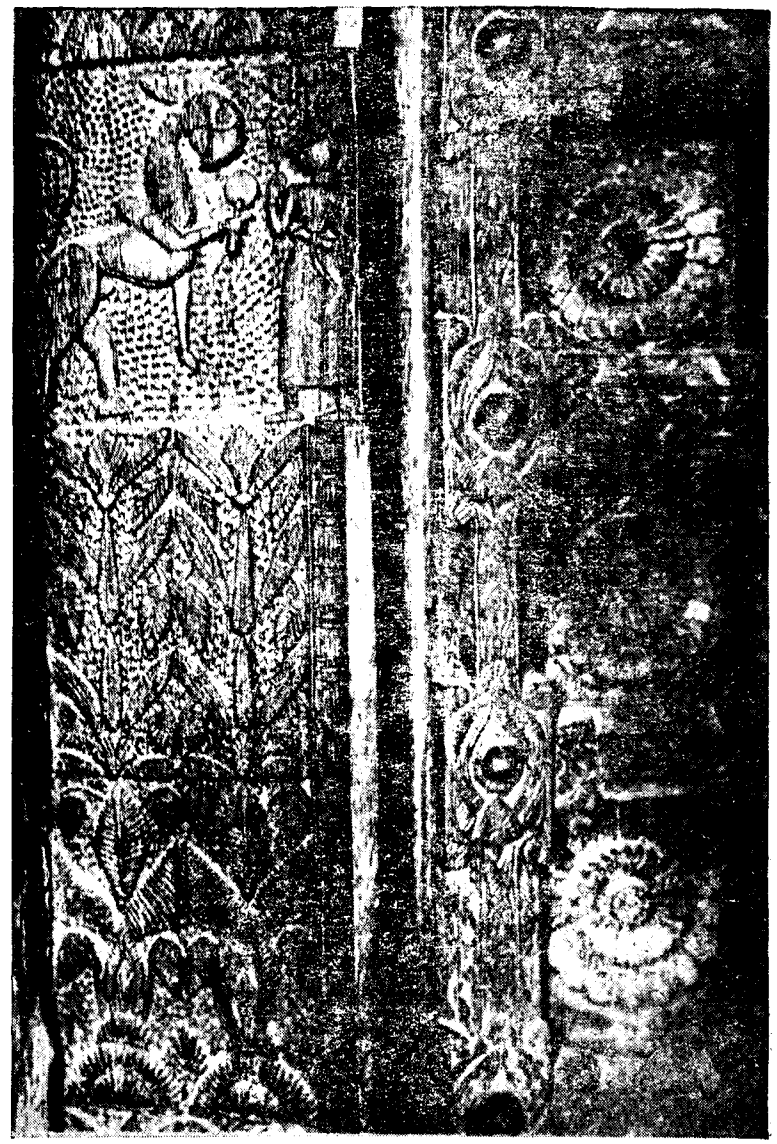
Image of Padmapani at Diumhijarda.



Mahamaya at Baradih Temple.



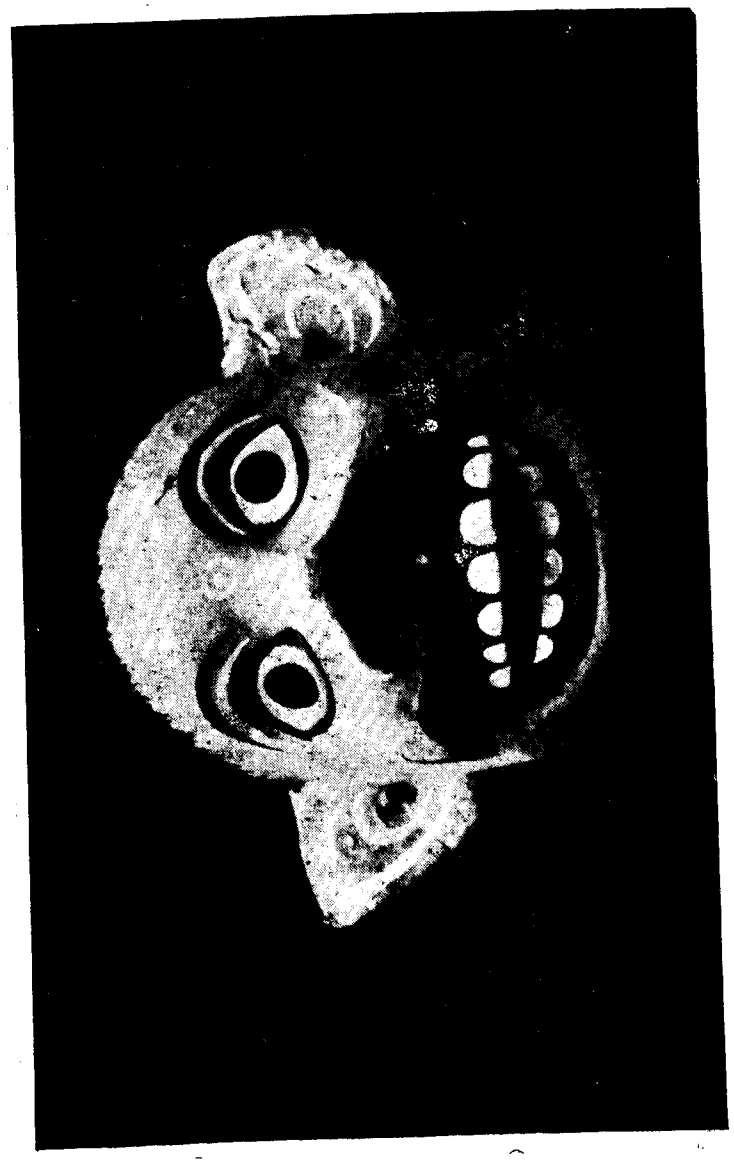
Sixteen-armed Devi at Diuri (Tamar).



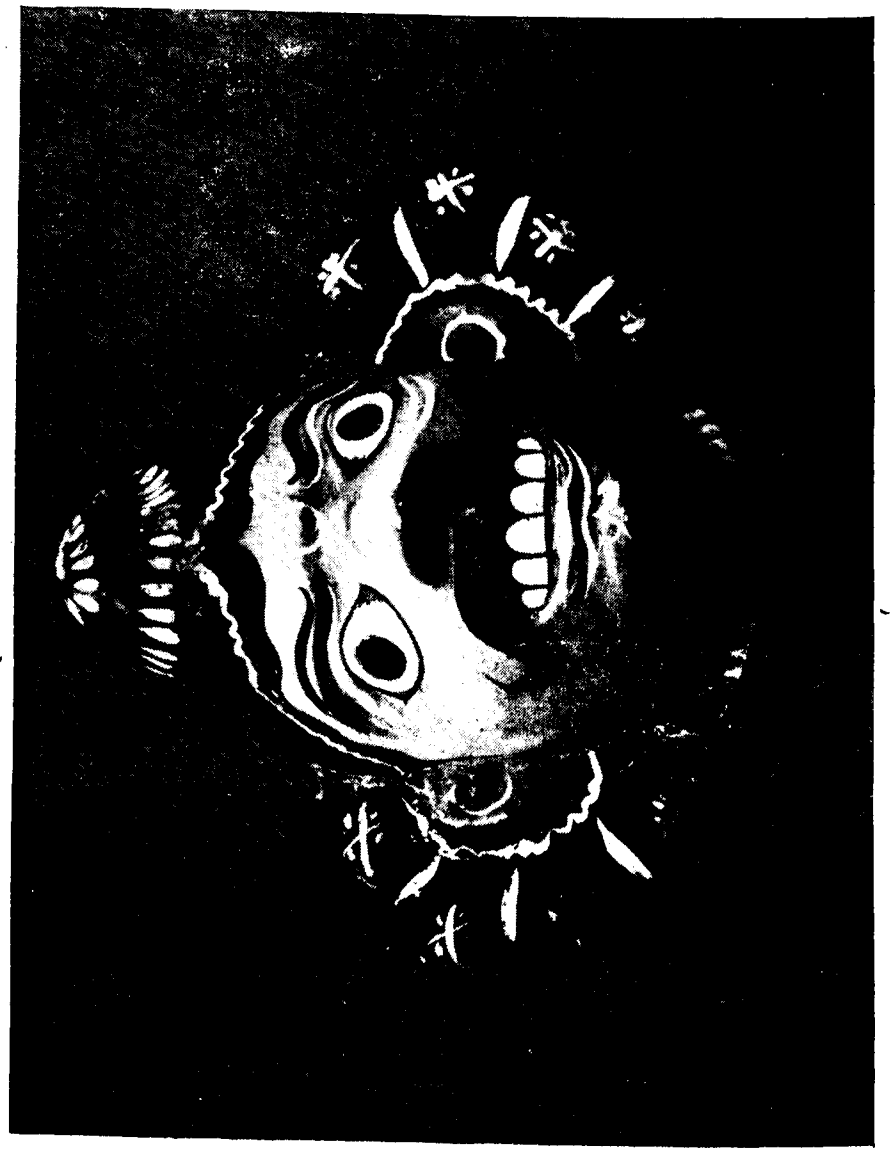
Sculpture on wooden door of Borea Temple.



Gaja-Simha (Lion trampling elephant) from wooden door of Borea Temple (Right), Artistry on wood (Left).



Demon mask from Bundu.



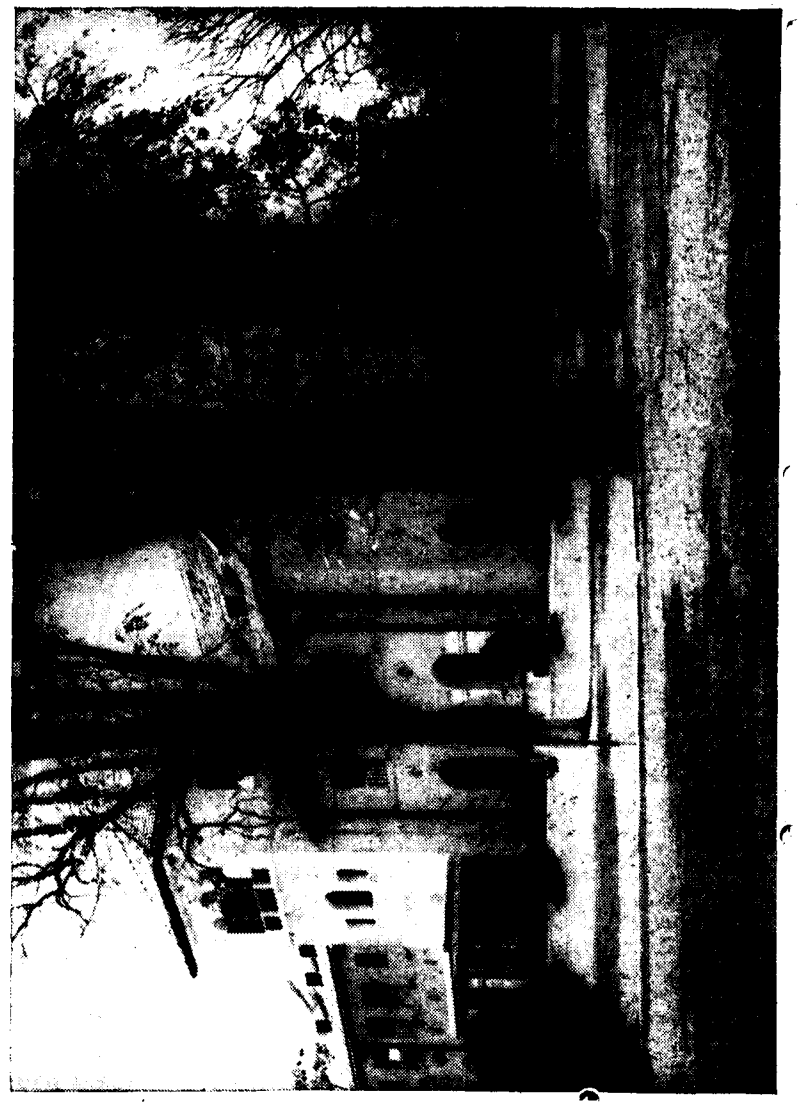
Parashuram mask from Bundu.



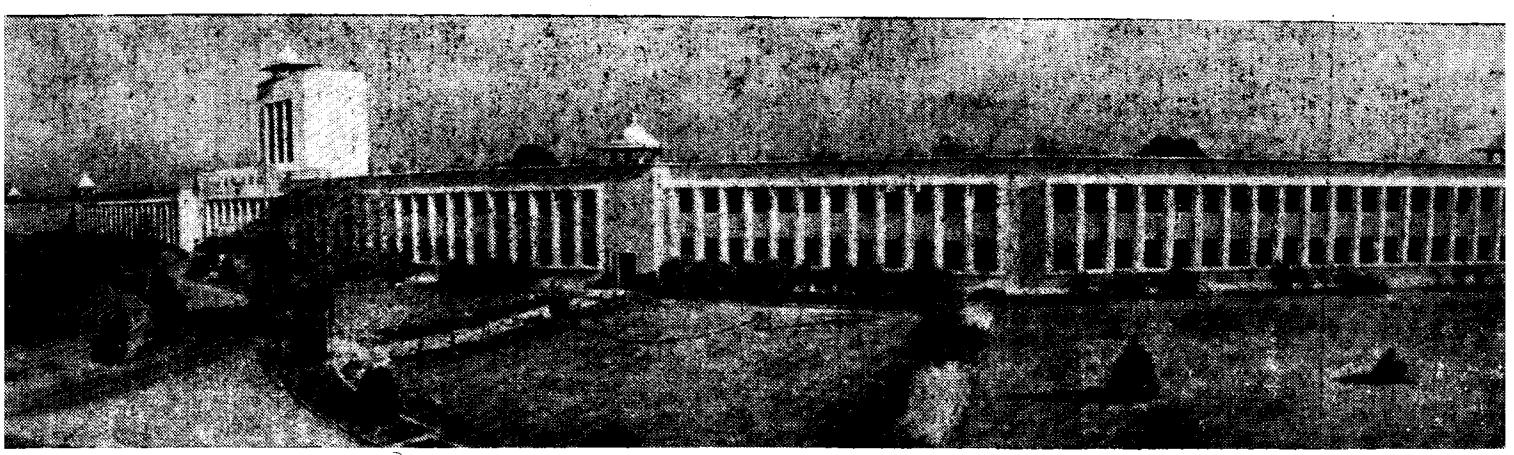
Nawrattan Palace (Doisa).



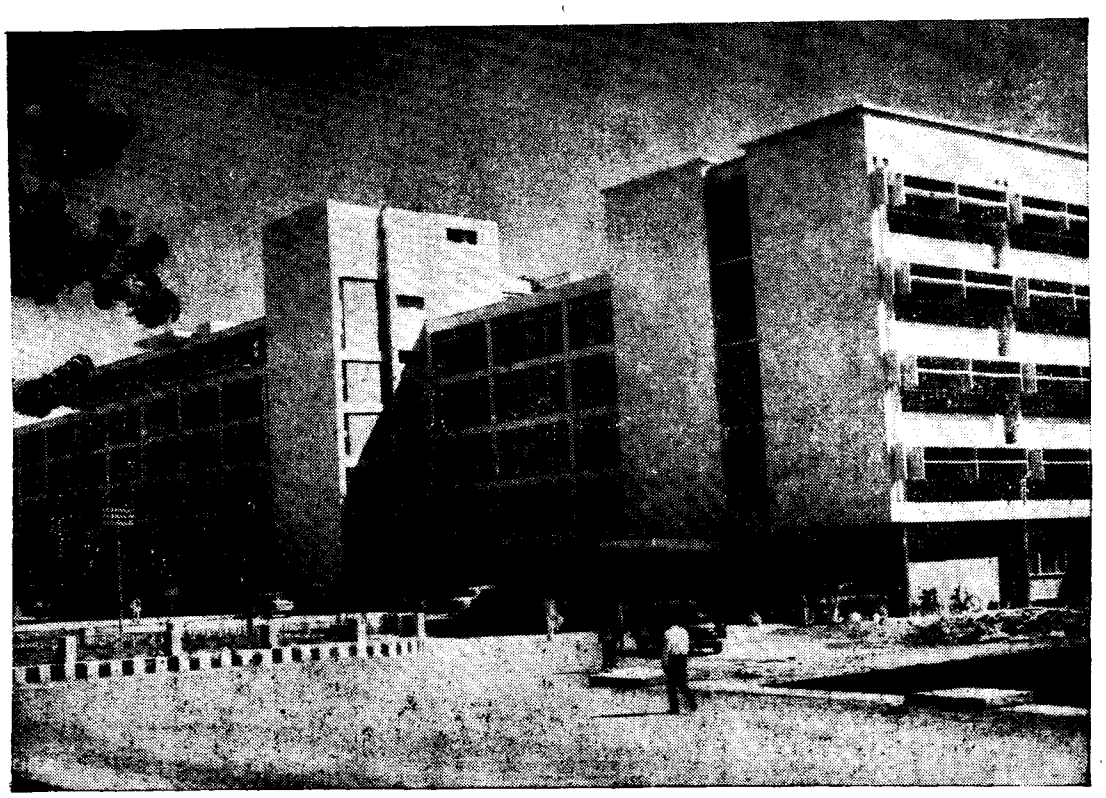
Nawrattan Palace with inscription and stone sculpture on door.



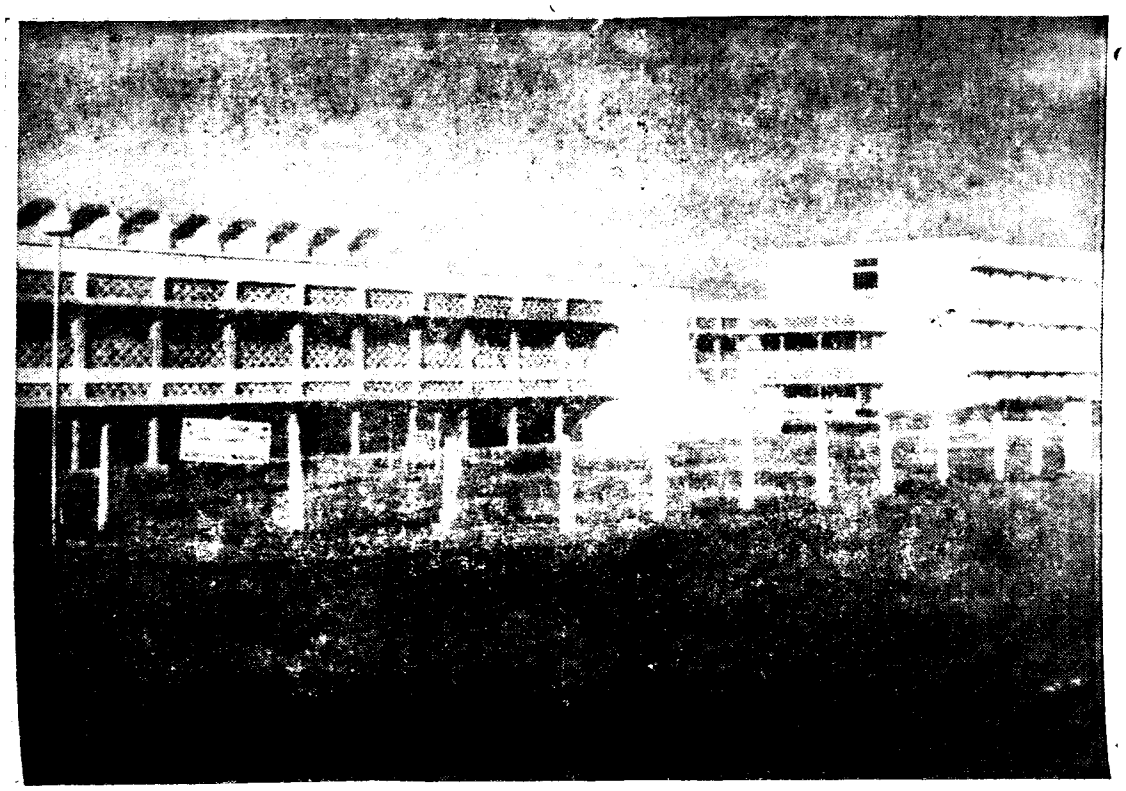
Raj Bhavan (Ranchi).



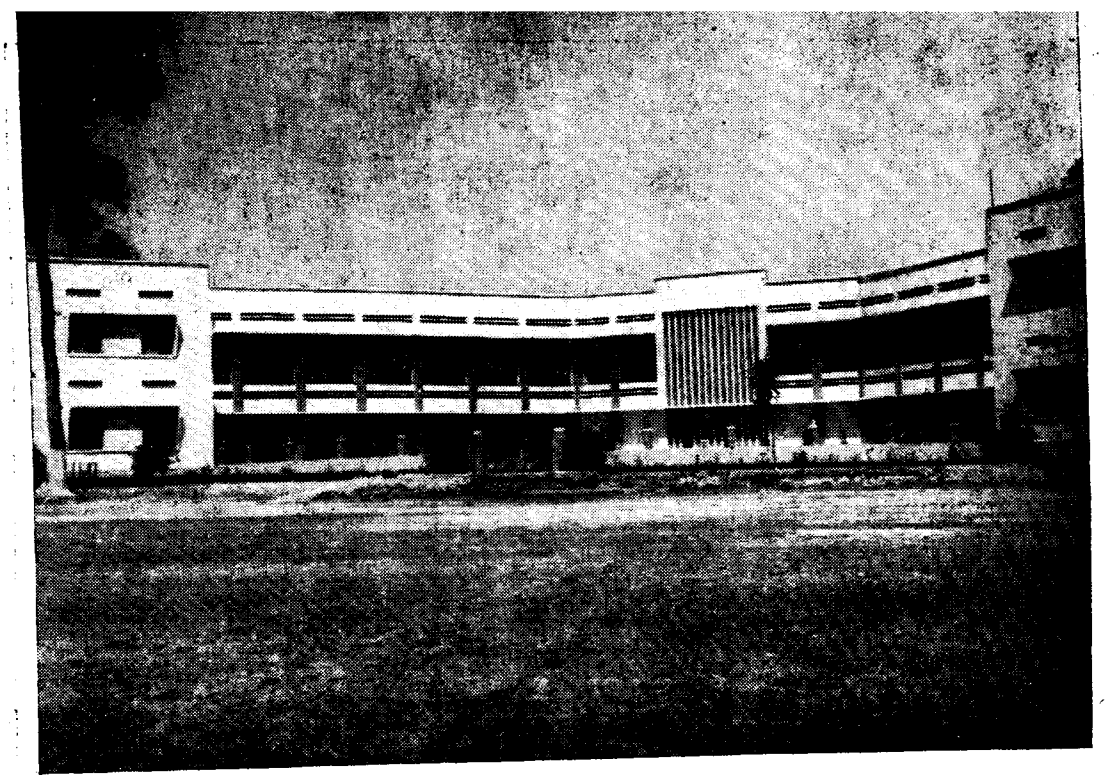
Birla Institute of Technology, Mesra, Ranchi



Rajendra Medical College, Bariatu (Ranchi).



Veterinary College, Kanke (Ranchi).



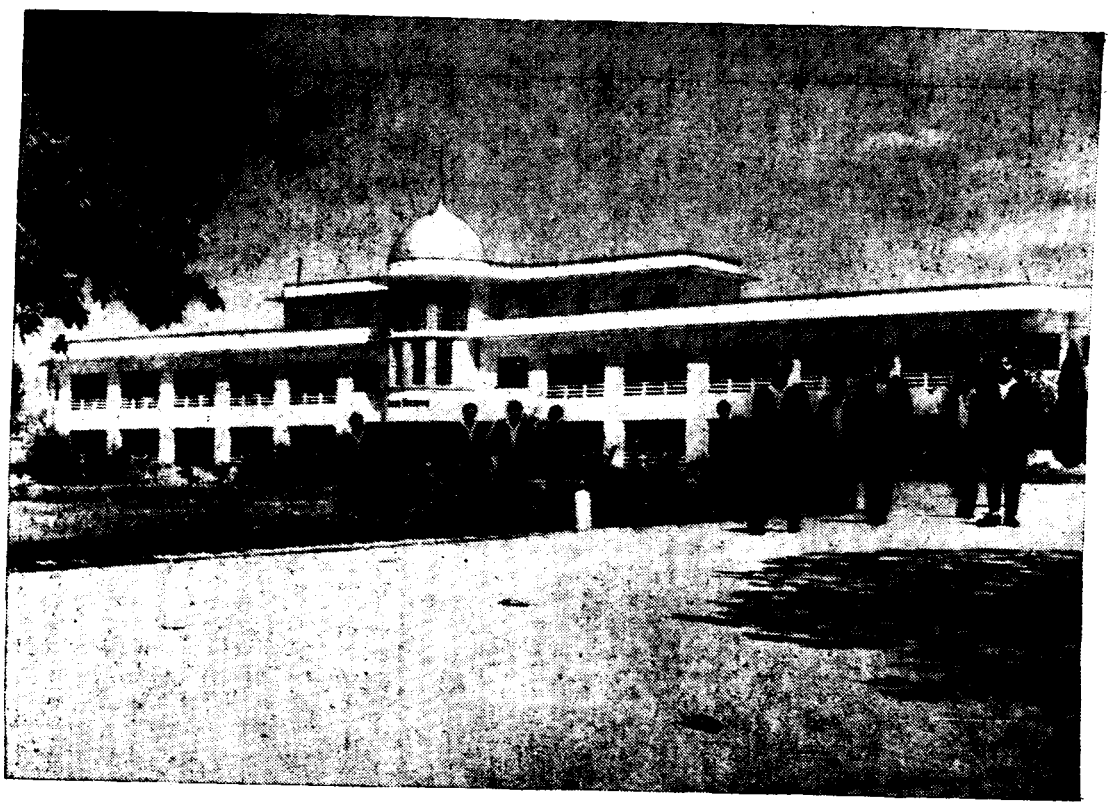
Agricultural Training Centre, Namkum, Ranchi.



Agricultural College, Kanke, Ranchi.



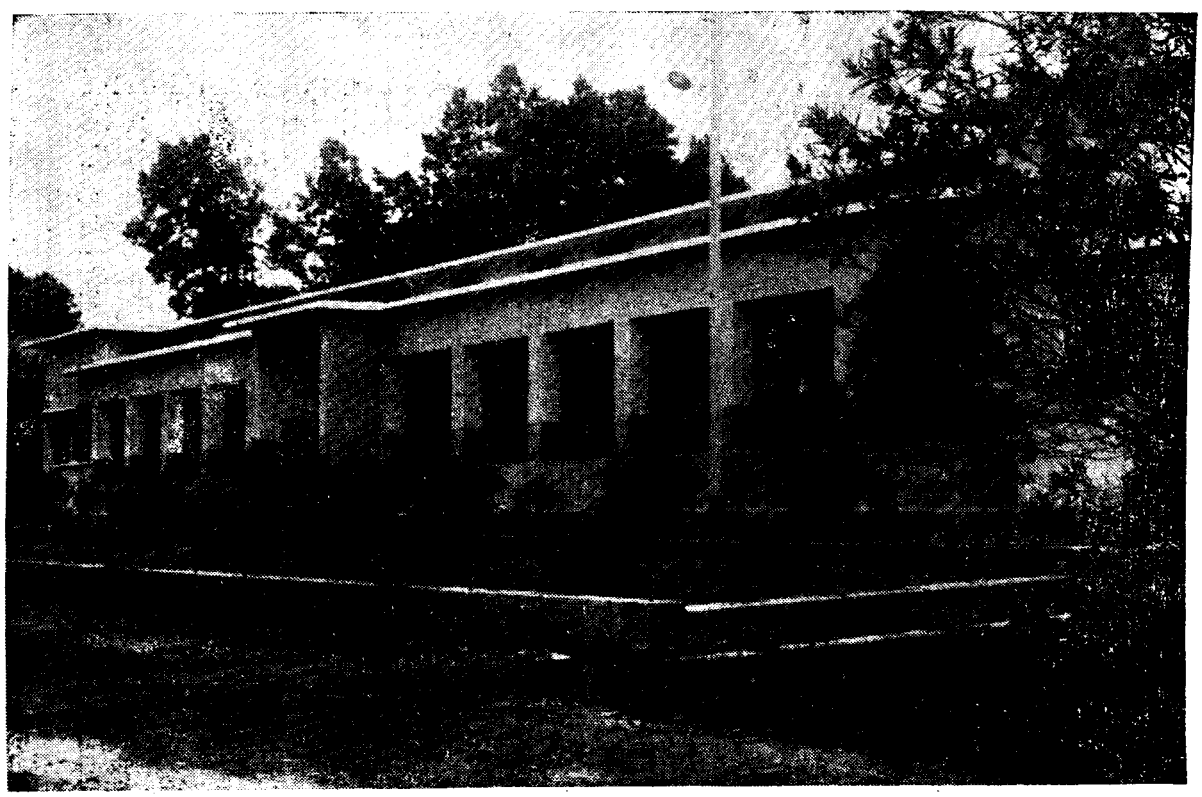
Lac Research Institute, Namkum, Ranchi.



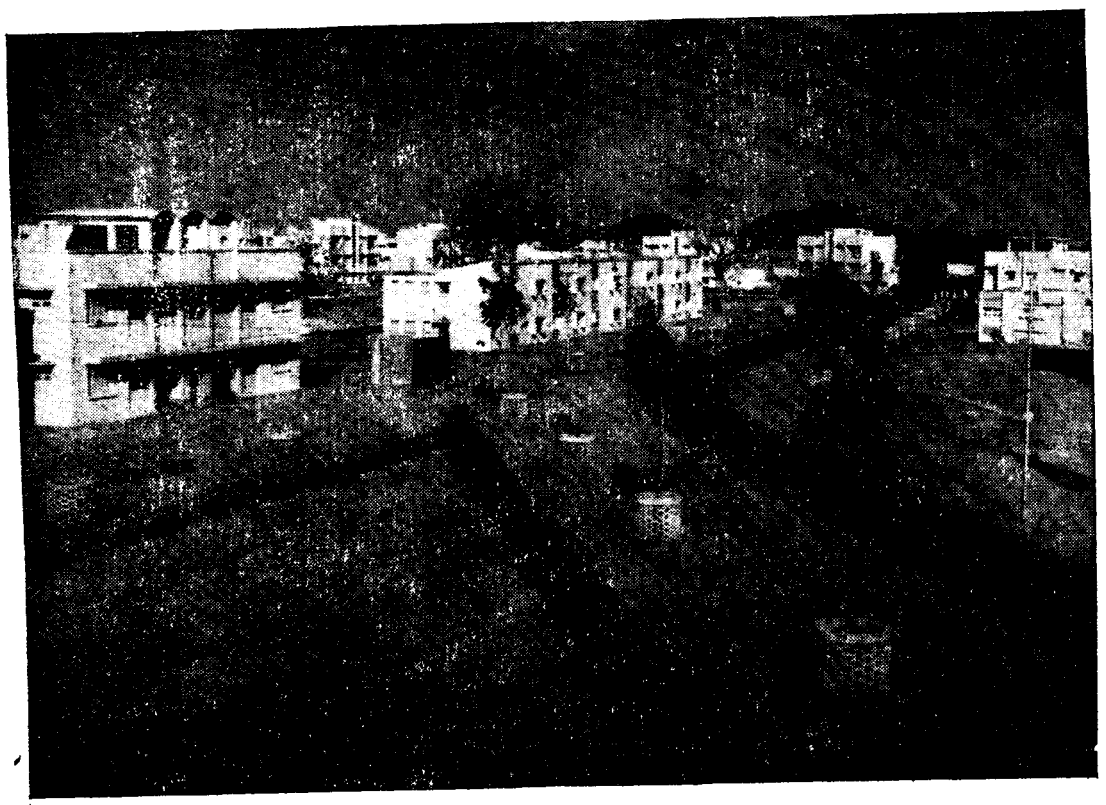
Vikas Vidyalaya, Mesra, Ranchi.



Mental Hospital, Kanke, Ranchi.



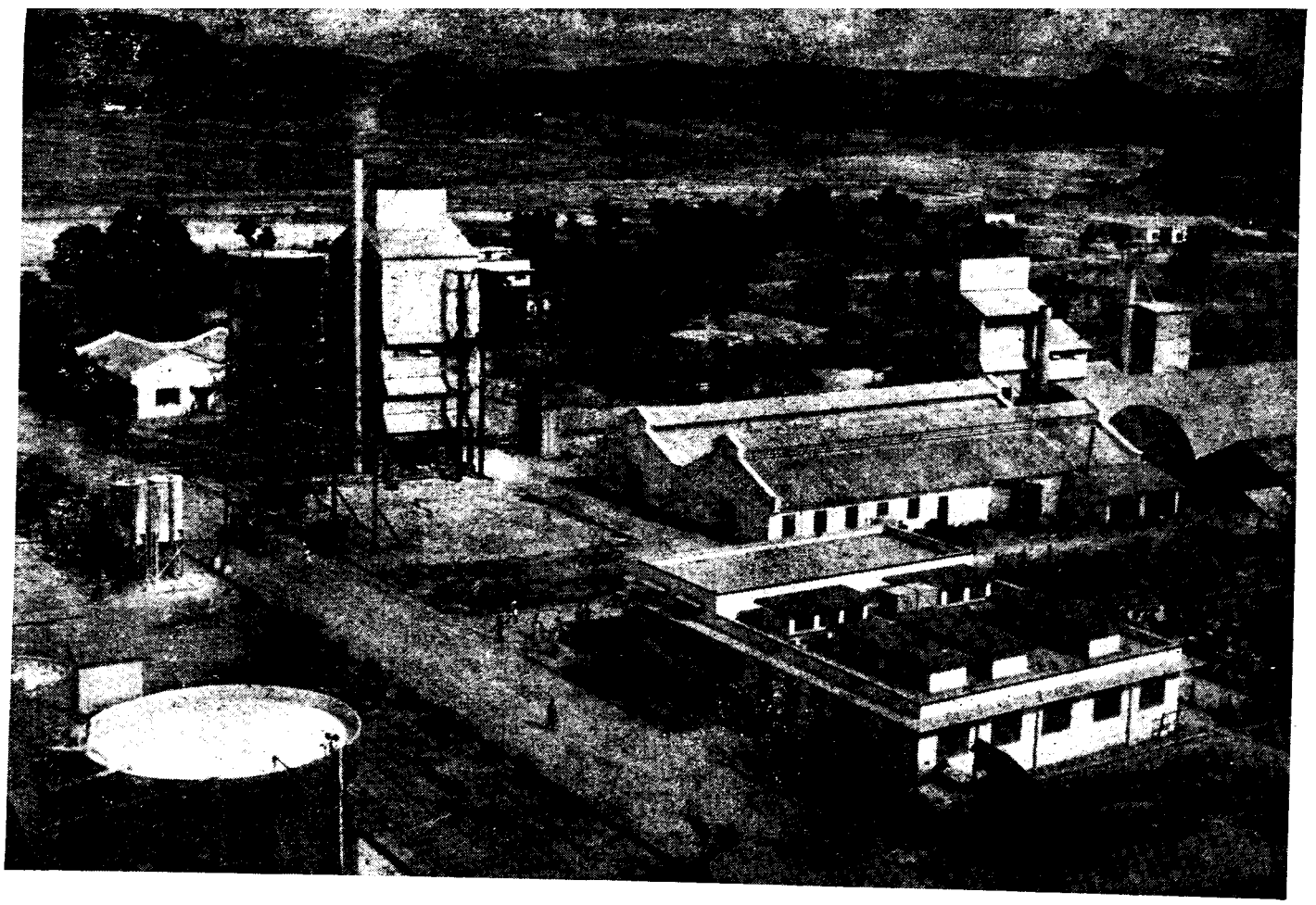
A Ward of Ramkrishna Mission Tuberculosis Sanatorium (Dungri), Ranchi.



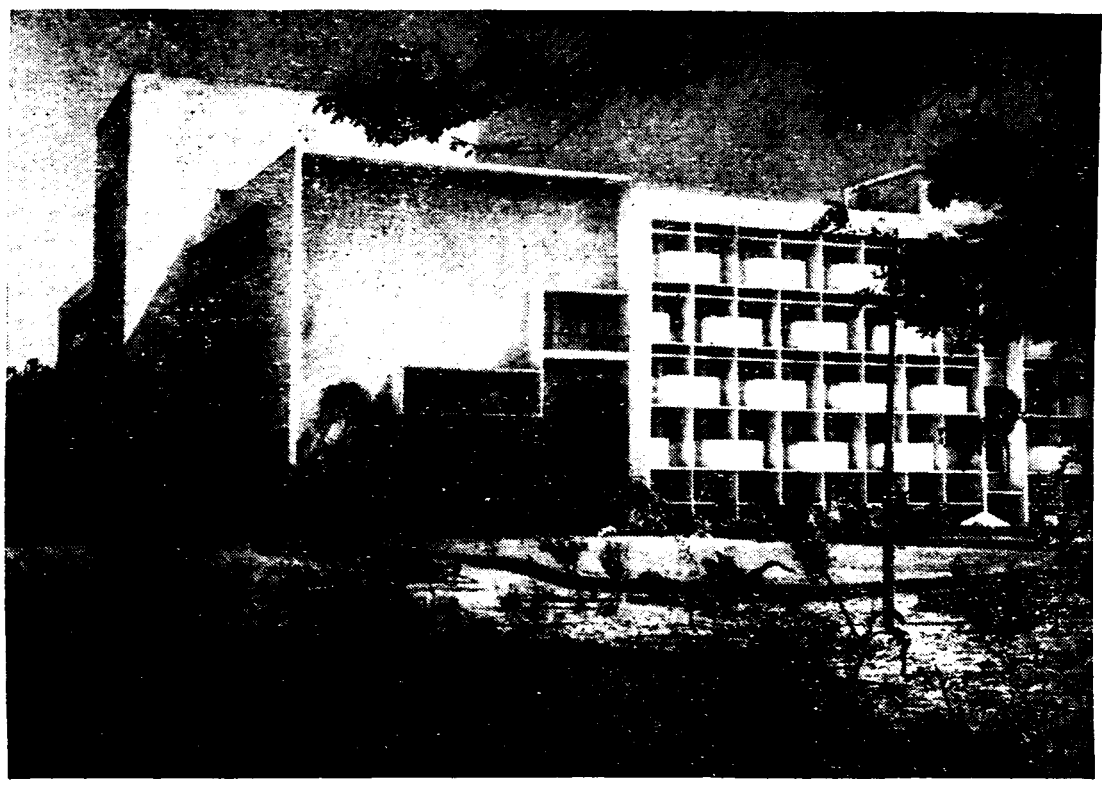
A Colony of N. C. D. C., Ranchi.



A panoramic view of H. E. C., Dhurwa (Hatia).



A general view of the Ore Plant at Muri.



Hindusthan Steel Limited Office, Doranda, Ranchi.



Accountant-General's Office, Doranda, Ranchi.



A Oraon boy.



A Oraon girl.



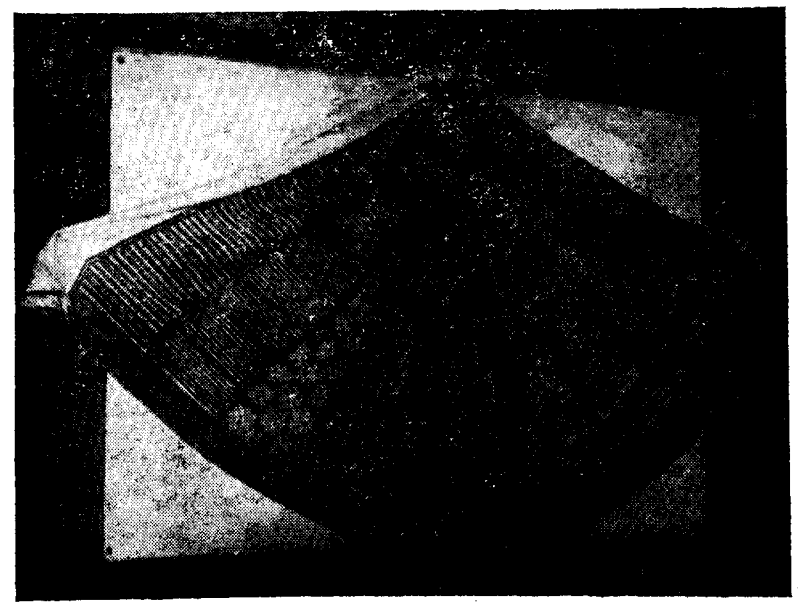
A Munda youth.



A group of Oraon dancers.



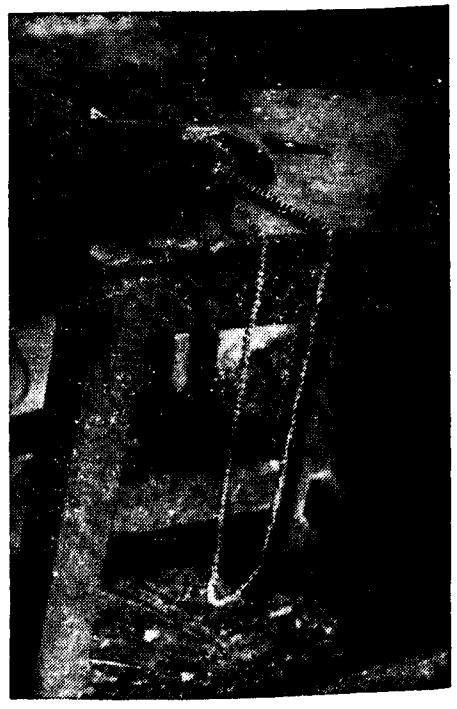
A Birhor hut.



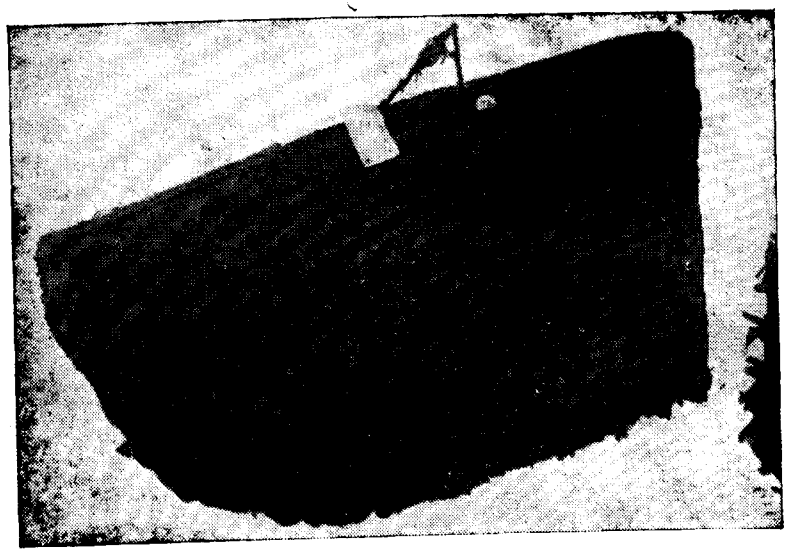
Sari worn by tribal women.



Women's ornaments.



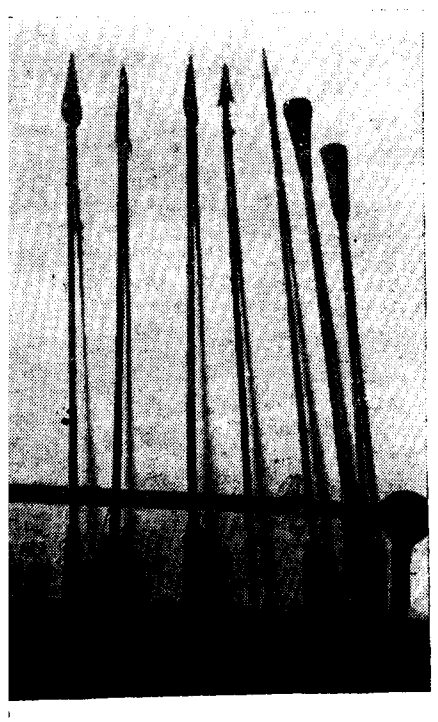
Beads.



Leaf raincoat.



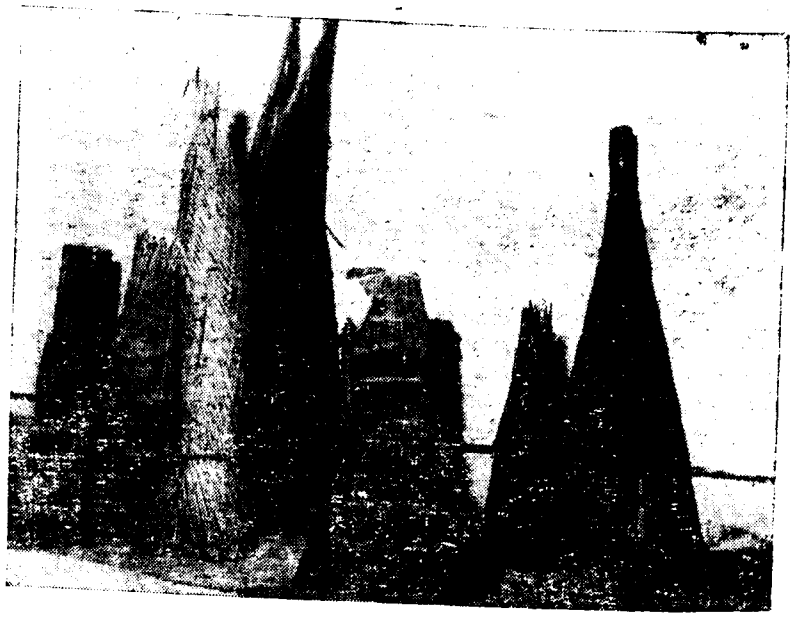
Grass umbrella.



Arrows.



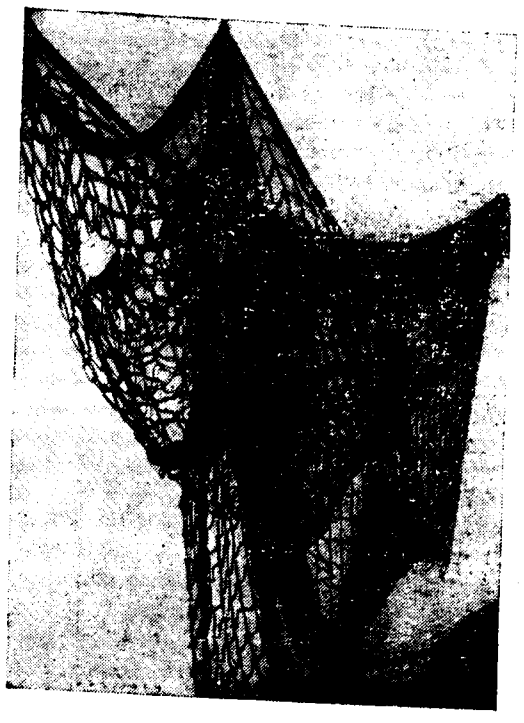
Bows.



Fish-catching implements.



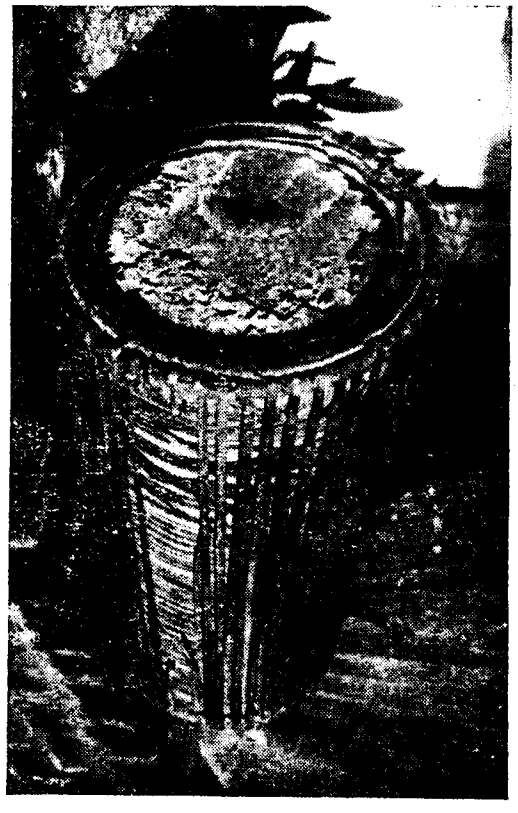
Wooden trough.



Monkey-catching nets.



Ginning machine.



Mandar (Drum).

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