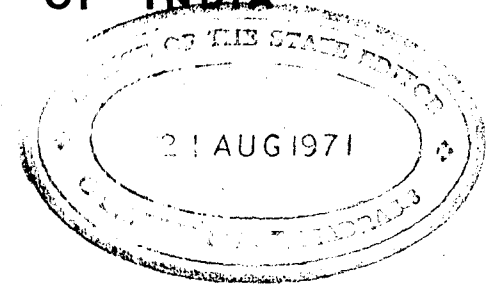


GAZETTEER OF INDIA



MADHYA PRADESH

BETUL

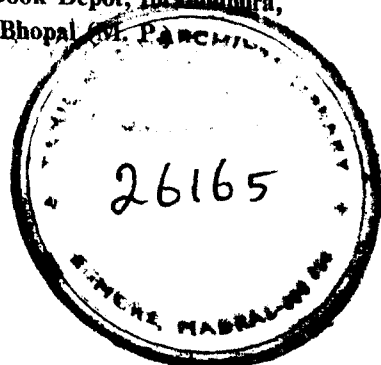
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PREFACE

Quiet and somnolent, Betul District has been running an even tenor of idyllic existence in an atmosphere of beatific rusticity. Endowed with munificence of Nature, it has ideal environments for enjoying the time-less Rip-Van-Winkle sleep. It is among those few districts of Madhya Pradesh which on account of their bracing climate and wild beauty create conditions for peace and harmony. It is only in the wake of Independence that Betul District, casting off its age-old slough of halcyon lethargy, has begun to feel the impact of the National Plans. There is a spurt of purposeful activities and the District has now become conscious of its modest but rightful place in the new scheme of things.

Though disowning all claims for a special *niche* in the Hall of Fame, Betul District is not without its own points of interest. The Sarni Thermal Power Station, situated in the fastnesses of the Satpura Forests, is among the largest centres in the country generating thermal power. The holy Tapti of the hoary *puranic* renown finds its origin near Multai. The first-ever known Marathi work *Vivek Sindhu* was written by Mukund Raj Swami of this area. The jaggery of Betul District is considered to be of a high quality as regards its flavour and sweetness. The salubrious climate here attracts a number of retired Government Officers to Betul and Multai where they find haven in the evening of their life and peacefully watch the gathering shadows.

The pattern of history of this District keeps to the genre observed in the case of neighbouring districts in Madhya Pradesh. Pre-historic period is a mass of highly imaginative conjectures. It defies historian's efforts to peer into the dim past. Early history is an elusive fabric of inferences based on indirect evidences. Medieval history, which happily penetrates the wall of oblivion in places, affords quite a few points of relief. Even so, the path is unsure. The explorer trudges cautiously, casting a conjectural gaze here and an expectant look there. It is the modern history which provides a concrete narrative of events based on adequate data.

One surmises that Betul District formed part of the Mauryan Empire, subsequently falling under the Sung suzerainty. It witnessed the protracted conflict between the Western Kshatrapas and the redoubtable Satavahanas. The Guptas and the Vakatakas had held sway here. Then the region covering the boundaries of the present District came under the Rashtrakutas. It is from this

(ii)

period that the District History moves forward more or less on an even keel so far as known records are concerned.

The Kherla Dynasty embraces practically the whole of the medieval history of the region, including Betul District. Raja II is supposed to be the legendary founder of the Dynasty. A tradition has it that the world-famous Ellora Caves and Ellichpur town were named after him. Kherla, along with Mandla, Deogarh and Chanda, formed one of the four Gond Kingdoms of Gondwana. Narsingh Rai, the first Gond King of Kherla, was an ambitious and dynamic ruler. Later, circumstances reduced the Kherla Kingdom to be a veritable bone of contention among the Bahamanis, the Sultans of Malwa and the Sultans of Gujarat, and the Kingdom passed through various vicissitudes of fortune. The Gond Dynasty ended in 1433 A.D., when Kherla came under the Sultans of Malwa who re-christened it as Mahmudabad. In 1562 A.D., Akbar conquered Malwa and Kherla principality came under the Mughals. Kherla became the headquarters of a *sarkar* (district), subordinate to the *subah* (province) of Ellichpur or Berar. The Kherla *Sarkar* consisted of 35 *parganas*, most of which now form the modern Betul District.

On the decline of the Mughal Empire, Kherla fell under the sway of Bakht Buland of Deogarh. In 1742 A.D., a large portion of Kherla, almost co-extensive with Betul District, was acquired by Raghoji Bhonsla of Nagpur. The acquisition was a master-piece of stratagem on the part of Raghoji. The Marathas, in spite of their insatiable greed and unsparing harshness, brought a certain order in the revenue system and administration. The District was often the victim of the invasions of the Bhopal armies during the early part of XIX century. Pindaries also ravaged the area incessantly. Appa Saheb Bhonsla clashed with the British, and as a result of the Battle of Sitabaldi in 1817 A.D., Betul District was ceded to the East India Company. But peace did not descend upon the hapless District. It soon turned into a chess-board upon which the Maratha and the British armies played havoc. It was in 1820 A.D., that Betul District was included in the newly formed Saugor and Nerbudda Territories. The long suffering roused the people to associate themselves actively with the leaders of the Great Revolt of 1857 A.D. The District showed its spirit of nationalism again in 1920 A.D. and thereafter, when the country fought against the Britishers under the unique leadership of Mahatma Gandhi. An epoch-making District Political Conference was held at Multai in 1935 A.D., under the inspiring presidentship of Ravishankar Shukla. Betul District holds an enviable record of political suffering and martyrdom during those exciting days of fight for freedom.

A word on the special position of gazetteers. The issue becomes all the more poignant in the context of the existence of all manner of publications which

(iii)

appear to be similar to gazetteers. There are Year Books, Compendiums and Directories. Certain government departments bring out periodical reports. There are publications which have frequency of one to ten years. Commissions and Committees submit *ad hoc* reports. Companies and Corporations publish their statements. Sometimes political diaries, memoirs and demi-official correspondence see the light of the day. Blue-prints of schemes or bills are circulated in public interest. There are manifestos and proclamations.

All very interesting, indeed. There can be no two opinions as regards their utility. They are true for a given time. The best possible picture is provided by them for a given issue at a particular juncture. Mostly statistical or factual in nature, they generally deal with schemes, targets and physical achievements. There is a formidable array of figures and minutiae. Statistics are the very soul of such tomes, whereas narrative is merely unavoidable and minimal. The emphasis is overwhelmingly on economic or practical or topical side. As said above, they are all invaluable. But they have a very limited purpose. Their utility is confined to a particular item, place or time. Necessarily, they have to be circumscribed by the very purpose for which they stand. It is no demerit on their part if they are confined to the three unities of the Classical Drama. What they purport to portray, they do extremely well.

But the gazetteer belongs to a different class. Certain similarity or parallelism is only superficial. The canvas that a gazetteer fills is vastly larger than that of any such publication. A gazetteer is a complete symphony and not a mere musical phrase. It presumes to tell the complete story of Man in his ever-growing, mutable environments. Nature too finds her due place in the gazetteer which also deals with geography, geology, zoology, botany, meteorology and seismography. All concrete activities of Man in the bosom of Nature are the theme. Social, economic and cultural studies are the result. The vast Homeric approach of the gazetteer, as opposed to the episodic treatment of other works, is something unique. Also, the gazetteer has discernible norms of arts. There is a beginning and a middle. Obviously, there cannot be either a denouement or a climax. Future is outside the pale of a gazetteer. The past is linked with the present, and the journey is through many highways and byelanes. At times, the way is lost but not for long. In the course of the progressive march, the cause and effect are plaited in an entwined pattern. There is scientific method, too. Collection, analysis and formulation are important stages of gazetteer-writing. Interpretation and inference are there, but they never obtrude.

The State Editor is happy to mention the willing co-operation of the following officers of the Department:—

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(iv)

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P. N. Shrivastav

(P. N. SHRIVASTAV)
State Editor

BHOPAL
25th May, 1971

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CONTENTS

	Pages
CHAPTER I—GENERAL	1-34
Location 1; Origin of the Name, Administrative History 2; Topography 5; Drainage 8; Geology 11; Economic Minerals 14; Seismicity, Flora 17; Management of Forest 24; Game Laws and Measures for the Protection of Wild Life, Fauna 29; Mortality Caused by Reptiles and Wild Animals, Climate 32; Special Weather Phenomena 24.	
CHAPTER II—HISTORY	35-70
Ancient Period 35; Vakatakas 36; Rashtrakutas 37; Mediaeval Period, Kherla Dynasty 39; Sultans of Malwa 45; Mughals, Gonds 49; Bhonslas 51; The British 55; Great Revolt of 1857, 59; Freedom Movement 63; Civil Disobedience Movement 66; Quit India Movement 69.	
CHAPTER III—PEOPLE	71-111
Population 71; Sex-Ratio 72; Growth of Population 73; Migration 75; Rural and Urban Population 77; Displaced Persons 79; Language 80; Religion and Caste 81; Social Life 98; Home Life 103; Festivals 108; Fairs and Yatras 110.	
CHAPTER IV—AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION	112-167
Agricultural Communities 112; Land Utilization 113; Irrigation 117; Soils 121; Agricultural Crops 122; Fruits and Vegetables 137; Agricultural Implements 138; Manures and Fertilizers 140; Seeds 141; Diseases and Pests 142; Activities of Agriculture Department 143; Animal Husbandry 145; Grazing Facilities 147; Milk Supply 149; Cattle Diseases 150; Veterinary Hospitals 151; Measures to Improve Quality of Breed 152; Cattle Fairs, Poultry Farming 153; Fisheries 155; Forestry 156; Fisheries 161.	

(viii)

	Pages
CHAPTER V—INDUSTRY	168-187
Old Time Industries 169; Power 171; Industries and Manufactures 173; Small-scale Industries 176; Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives 177; Industrial Potential 182; Labour and Employers' Organisation 184; Welfare of Industrial Labour 185.	
CHAPTER VI—BANKING TRADE AND COMMERCE	188-207
History of Indigenous Banking 188; General Credit Facilities Available 190; Indebtedness 191; Joint-Stock Banks, Defence Efforts 194; Small Saving Schemes, Warehousing Corporation 195; Co-operative Credit Societies and Banks 196; General and Life Insurance, State Assistance to Industrial Development 199; Currency and Coinage, Trade and Commerce 201; Trade Centres, Co-operative Marketing 204; State Trading 205; Merchants' and Consumers' Associations and Labour Organisations, Weights and Measures 206.	
CHAPTER VII—COMMUNICATIONS	208-220
Mode of Conveyance in Old Time 208; Road Development in Plan Periods 210; State Highways 212; Major District Roads, Minor District Roads 213; Vehicles and Conveyances 214; Waterways, Ferries and Bridges 215; Railways 216; Travel and Tourist Facilities, Posts and Telegraphs 217; Telephones 219; Radios and Wireless Stations 220.	
CHAPTER VIII—MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS	221-227
Public Administration 221; Learned Professions, Teachers 222; Medical Profession 223; Legal Profession, Commercial Activity, Whole-sale and Retail Trade 224; Hotels and Restaurants 225; Money-Lending, Repairing of Bicycles, Domestic and Personal Services 226; Laundry and Hair-Cutting, Tailoring 227.	
CHAPTER IX—ECONOMIC TRENDS	228-248
Pattern of Livelihood 228; Prices 229; Wages 235; Standard of Living 240; General Level of Employment 242; Employment Exchange 243; National Planning and Community Develop-	

(ix)

	Pages
ment 244; Agriculture 245; Public Health 246; Education, Co-operative Societies, Communication 247; Social Welfare 248.	
CHAPTER X—GENERAL ADMINISTRATION	249-254
History of Administration, Collectorate 249; Land Revenue and Land Records, Law and Order 250; Development 251; Other District Level Officers 252; Central Government Offices, Central Excise, Railways 253; Telephones, Post Offices, Small Savings, Income Tax 254.	
CHAPTER XI—REVENUE ADMINISTRATION	255-287
Early System 255; Income from Land Revenue and Special Cesses 266; Relations Between Landlords and Tenants 269; Nistar and Grazing Rights 277; Bhoodan, Rural Wages and Condition of Agricultural Labour 278; Other Sources of Revenue 281; Union Excise, Income Tax 282 State Excise 283; Forest 284; Sales Tax Stamps 285; Taxes on Motor Vehicles 286; Registration 287.	
CHAPTER XII—LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE	288-310
History of Judiciary Organisation 288; Criminal Justice 292; Incidence of Crimes 294; Organization of Police Force 297; Railway Police, Home Guards 300; Jails and Lock-ups 301; Welfare of Prisoners 303; Nyaya Panchayats 305; Separation of Judiciary from Executive 306; Organization of Courts 307; Nature of Cases Handled 308; Legal Profession and Bar Associations 310.	
CHAPTER XIII—OTHER DEPARTMENTS	311-318
Agriculture, Veterinary 311; Forest 312; Electricity, Co-operation 313; Economics and Statistics, Industries 314; Employment Exchange, Sales Tax, Public Works Department 315; Panchayats and Social Welfare, Tribal Welfare Rehabilitation 316.	
CHAPTER XIV—LOCAL SELF GOVERNMENT	319-346
Early System 319; Municipalities 324; Betul Bazar, Multai 326; Function and Duties of Municipal Committees, Education	

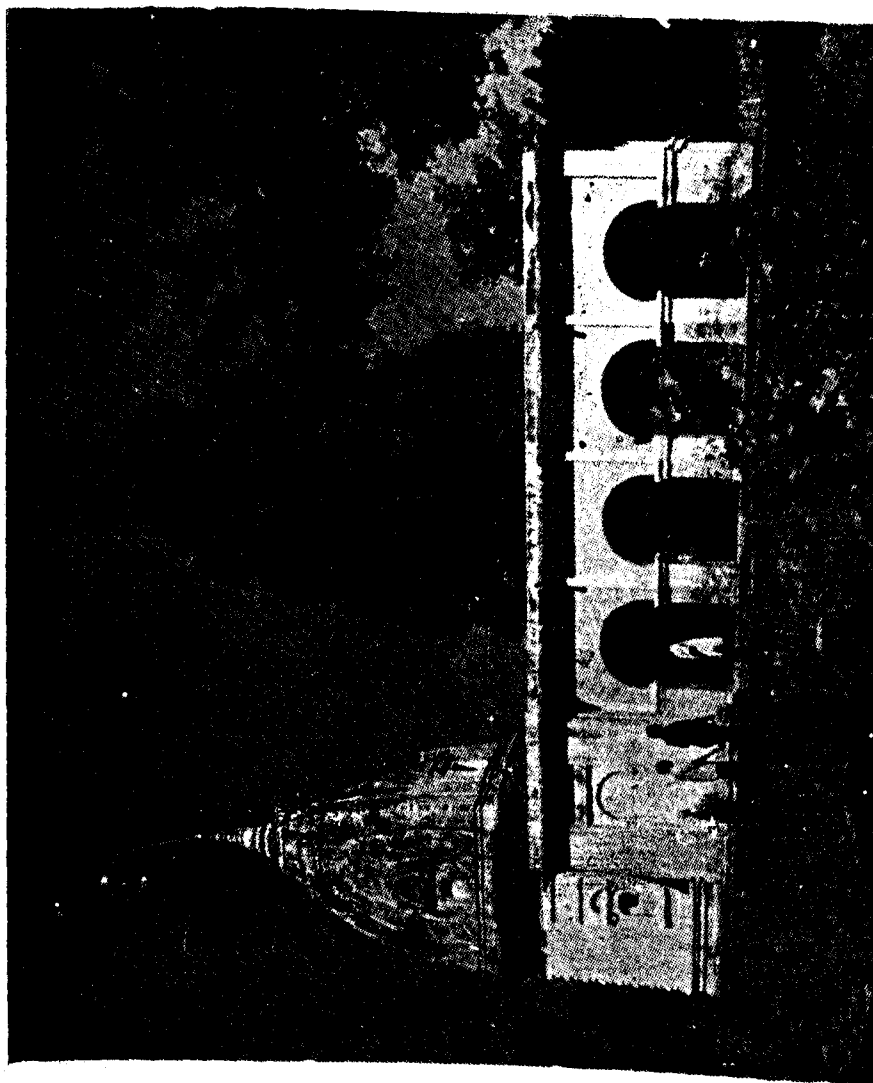
328; Street Lighting, Public Health 329; Water Supply 330; Conservancy, Town Planning, District Council and Local Boards 331; Janapada Sabhas 337; Panchayats 342; Nyaya Panchayats 345; Panchayati Raj 346.	Pages
CHAPTER XV—EDUCATION AND CULTURE	347-367
Western Education 347; Organisation and Set-up 349; Literacy and Educational Standards 350; Spread of Education Among Women 351; Education Among Backward Classes and Tribes 353; Pre-Primary Education, Primary Education 354; Junior Basic Education 357; Secondary Education 358; Senior Basic Education 359; Higher Secondary Education 360; Collegiate Education 362; Professional and Technical Education 363; Social Education 364; Cultural, Literary and Scientific Societies, Libraries 366.	
CHAPTER XVI—MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES	368-391
Early System 368; Vital Statistics 370; Causes of Mortality, Infant Mortality, Diseases Common to the District 372; Cholera, Plague 373; Smallpox 374; Malaria 375; Tuberculosis, Eye Diseases 379; Organisation of Medical Department, Hospitals and Dispensaries 380; Ayurvedic Dispensaries 385; Homoeopathic Dispensary, Maternity and Child Welfare 386; Private Hospitals and Nursing Homes 387; Family Planning 388; Nutrition, Sanitation 389; Water Supply Schemes, Vaccination 391.	
CHAPTER XVII—OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES	392-418
Labour Welfare 392; Administration of Labour Laws 396; Prohibition, Excise Offences 398; Anti-Drink or Temperance Movement 399; Advancement of Backward Classes and Tribes 400; Education 401; Economic 406; Social 413; Other Welfare Measures 414; Organisation for the Control of Public Trusts and Charitable Endowments 416; Public Trusts, Charitable Endowments 417; Government Grant to Religious Institutions 418.	
CHAPTER XVIII—PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS	419-433
Representation in Union Legislature 419; Representation in State Legislature 420; Political Parties, Indian National Congress	

425; Hindu Mahasabha, Muslim League, Forward Block 427; Socialist and Praja Socialist Parties, Scheduled Castes Federation and Republican Parties 428; Bharatiya Jana Sangh, Newspapers 429; Voluntary Social Service Organisations 430.	Pages
CHAPTER XIX—PLACES OF INTEREST	434-450
Amla, Asirgarh 434; Athnair, Betul Bazar 435; Betul Town 436; Bhainsdehi 437; Bhanwargarh, Bhopali 438; Birool, Chicholi, Dhanora 439; Dudhia 440; Kajali 441; Kherla 442; Malajpur 444; Muktagiri 445; Multai 446; Pattan, Salbardi 447; Saoli-garh, Sarni 448; Shahpur 449; Shergarh 450.	
APPENDICES	
LIST OF FREEDAM FIGHTERS	
BIBLIOGRAPHY	
INDEX	
MAPS	

ILLUSTRATIONS

Frontispiece

1. Shiva Temple, enclosing the Samadhi of Mukund Raj Swami, Kherla
2. Multai Tank
3. Popularly believed source of Tapti, Multai
4. Ruins of Kherla Fort
5. Another view of the Ruins of Kherla Fort
6. The Gonds of Betul
7. Korku Women and Children
8. Gond Damsels
9. Chhinwarkheda Minor Irrigation Regulator
10. Sampna Irrigation Tank ..
11. Sugarcane Cultivation in Sampna Command Area
12. Satpura Thermal Station, Sarni
13. A view of coal conveyer-belt, Pathakheda Coalmine
14. Shiva Temple, Bhainsdehi
15. A Sculptured Pillar of the Shiva Temple, Bhainsdehi
16. Jain Temples, Muktagiri
17. Statue of Parshvanath, Muktagiri
18. A Korku, Betul
19. Salla Dance of Korkus, Betul
20. Waterfall, Parasdoh
21. Refugees at Shahpur, Betul



• Shiva Temple, enclosing the Samadhi of Mukund Raj Swami, Kherla

CHAPTER I

GENERAL

Betul is one of the marginally located southern districts of Madhya Pradesh, lying almost wholly on the Satpura Plateau. It occupies nearly the whole width of the Satpura Range between the valley of the Narmada on the north and the Berar plains on the south. It forms the southern most part of Bhopal Commissioner's Division. The District extends between 21°22' and 22°24' North latitude and 77°04' and 78°33' East longitude¹ and forms a compact shape, almost a square with slight projections on the east and the west. Two small enclaves of the District, viz., Batla Blocks of the Government forests lie to the west between the districts of Nimar (East) and Amraoti. These enclaves lie on the northern bank of the Tapti. Their extent from west to east is between the meridians 76°59' and 77°2'.

The District is bounded on the north by Hoshangabad District, on the south by Amraoti District of Maharashtra State, on the east by Chhindwara District and on the west by the districts of Hoshangabad, East Nimar and Amraoti. The southern boundary of the District runs almost along the southern foothills of the Melghat Range, but excludes Hattighat and Chikalda hills in Amraoti District. The western boundary is associated for some distance with the Ganjal river (southern), a tributary to the Tapti, and then with the water-shed line between the Morand and the Ganjal (northern), the tributaries of the Narmada. The northern boundary is marked by the course of the Morand river, and by the Tawa river beyond Dhodra Mohar Railway Station. The eastern boundary runs through small streams and hills among which Khurpura and Rotia *nalas* are of some significance.

The greatest length of the District is about 161 km. from east to west whereas it measures only about 106 km. from north to south. The total area of the District is 10,059.48 sq. km.² The population of the District is 560,412 according to the Census of 1961.

The District headquarters is located on the Nagpur-Itarsi section of the Delhi-Madras Main Line of the Central Railway. A first class road, lately

1. According to the District Census Handbook, 1961, p. XXXVI, the District is located between 21°22' and 22°23' N., and 77°10' and 78°33' E.
2. Survey of India quoted in the Census of India, Paper No. 106, 1962, p. XXVIII. The figure furnished by the State Survey Department is 10,078.1 sq. km.

declared as a National Highway, also traverses the District almost parallel to the railway line. The District is also accessible from other directions on Parasia-Amla section of the Central Railway, and on the road from Ellichpur to Betul, Harda to Betul, Chhindwara to Multai and Warud to Multai.

Origin of the Name

The District derives its name from the small town of Betul Bazar about 5 km. south of Badnur, the headquarters of the District. During the Maratha regime as also in the beginning of the British rule, Betul or Betul Bazar was the District headquarters. In 1822 the District headquarters was shifted to the present place, then only a village known as Badnur Dhana, meaning Badnur village in the local dialect. Now, even after such a long time, not only the District retains the old name, but the name of the new headquarters town, Badnur, has also been superimposed by 'Betul'. However, in common parlance it is, though infrequently, even now called 'Badnur', in addition to the new names 'Basti' or 'Kathi Bazar'.

To Distinguish the town at the site of the old headquarters of the District from Badnur now, it has become necessary to mention it as Betul Bazar. It is said that the old headquarters came to be known as *Betul* (without cotton) because cotton is not grown in this tract as in the regions further south and west.

History of the District as an Administrative Unit

As early as the time of Ptolemy (130-161 A. D.) the large district at the head of the *Na aguna* or Tapti river was occupied by the *Kondali*, a name which has been generally identified with that of the Gonds. *Vivek Sindhu* of Mulk Raj Swami mentions Kherla under the rule of Jaipal. This place, about four miles east of Badnur remained as an administrative centre of the highest importance in the district for a long time. In about 1398 A. D. Narsing Rai ruled over Kherla. Under the reign of Akbar the great, after 1560, Kherla was the headquarters of a *Sarkar* or District subordinate to the *Subah* or Province of Ellichpur, and the Kherla *Sarkar* included 35 *Parganas* embracing the centre and south of Betul District and some tracts of Chhindwara and Wardha. To the east lay the territories of Chatwa, probably Jatwa, the first remembered Gond king of Deogarh, a place now in Chhindwara District. With the decline of Mughal Power, Deogarh extended its limits to Betul. The Gond kingdom of Kherla which was then subordinate to Deogarh, was also subjugated by Raghuji Bhonsla of Nagpur in 1743 and amalgamated subsequently. On the annexation of the District by the Bhonsla the District-Capital was shifted to Betul or Betul Bazar. Betul, with Nagpur Territories, was made over to the British in 1818 after the Battle of Sitabaldi. In 1826 it was formally included in the British territories.

It was in 1822 when the Deputy Commissioner, the then head of the District-Administration, informally removed his residence to Badnur from Betul. However, in the common usage and in postal addresses, the District Headquarters is still mentioned 'Betul'.

In 1818, the District with the rest of the 'Nerbudda country' was for a time governed by a Commissioner who was subject to the control of the Resident at Nagpur. In 1820 a division of 12 districts called the 'Saugor and Nerbudda Territories' was formed and was placed under the Agent to the Governor-General with headquarters at Jabalpur. The officers in charge of the District were at first called Assistants to the Agent and their designation was changed to Deputy Commissioner in 1843. From 1835 till 1843 Betul, Hoshangabad and Narsimhapur were incorporated into one District with headquarters at Hoshangabad and Assistants at the out-stations. During this period and again from 1853 till 1861, the District formed part of the North-West Provinces. After the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861 Betul (Badnur) was the headquarters of the Nerbudda Division for a short period till 1862. Ever since then it continues to be the District Headquarters. It remained part of the Nerbudda Commissioner's Division until 31st October, 1931 on which date the Nerbudda Commissionership was abolished and Betul was incorporated into the Nagpur Commissioner's Division. The Commissioners' Divisions were abolished on 1st November 1948 in the old Madhya Pradesh. However, on the formation of the New Madhya Pradesh State, Commissioners' posts were revived and Betul forms part of the Bhopal Commissioner's Division.

Changes in Area

Up till now there have been only marginal changes in the component parts of the District from what was transferred by the Bhonsla regime to the British. The first boundary in the north was fixed in 1843 with the separation of Betul, Hoshangabad and Narsimhapur districts. In 1867, Amla and Bordehi tract consisting of 160 sq. miles (414 sq. km.) was transferred from Chhindwara District. In the year 1873, the then Revenue Inspectors' Circles of Kherla and Bordha (Bordha *Taluka*) with a total area of 215 sq. miles (557 sq. km.) were transferred to Hoshangabad District. There was also a small interchange of territory between Chhindwara and Betul districts, the latter district gaining one and a half square miles. A small patch of forest, 2 square miles (5.2 sq. km.) in area, was also transferred to Betul from Hoshangabad in 1897. An area of 48 square miles (124 sq. km.) was added to the District from Harsud Tahsil of Nimar (East) in 1908 out of the territories transferred from Hoshangabad District four years earlier. After this, although the Census Report of 1921 reports 'no change' in the area of the District, the records of the Superintendent of Land Records, Betul, show that a small forest area on the north-east corner of the District, Kanari village in the Morand Valley on the north-west, Harra village on the west and Damjipura tract consisting of 31 villages on the west of Ganjal river were transferred from Hoshangabad District to Betul District.

From the time of the British occupation to the Thirty Year Land Revenue Settlement of 1st July 1964, the District was divided into a large number of *talukas*, small administrative divisions, and not proprietary estates as was originally meant. In the year 1866, when the north-eastern and north-western parts of Betul District were in the jurisdiction of other adjoining districts, there were 35 *talukas*, grouped into four *paraganas* of Betul, Multai, Athnair and Saoligarh. Of these, Betul occupied the central and northern, Multai, the eastern, Athnair, the southern and Saoligarh, the western portions of the District. As the map attached to the Settlement Report shows, Betul consisted of Betul, Panni, Amla, Raipur, Dhala, Shahpur, Jamgarh and Bardha Talukas, Multai consisted of Multai, Dunawa, Putum and Saikhera, Athnair *Paragana* consisted of Bhainsdehi, Satnair, Atner, Masod, Mandvee and Ashta *talukas*, while Saoligarh consisted of the largest number of talukas, viz., Mohta, Bori, Choghra, Rambha, Neelgarh, Jhallar, Chilor, Piparia, Hirdee, Khamapur, Kund Bukaju, Deogaon, Nasirabad, Kaisea, Neewgarh, Chirapatla and Morea. Of the four *paragana* described above, Betul, Saoligarh and Athnair were grouped in Betul Tahsil while Multai *paragana*, though small but being well populated, formed a Tahsil by itself.

Soon after the Thirty Years Settlement of 1864, the *talukas* seem to have been abolished in favour of the Revenue Inspectors' Circles with certain adjustments and *paragana* divisions were given up altogether. The tahsil boundary was also changed so as to give some more area to Multai Tahsil in the east. It started from Salbardi on the Maru river in the south and converged exactly on the same longitude with the Hoshangbad-boundary in the north but nearing Amla or Multai in the centre. As calculated in 1899 and also adopted in the District Gazetteer of 1907, Betul and Multai tahsils occupied 7,199 sq. km. and 2,744 sq. km., respectively.

In 1909 the Tahsil boundary was re-drawn and the District was divided into three tahsils, viz., Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi. Of these, Betul now occupies an area of 4,139 sq. km.¹ in the north, Multai, an area of 2,517 sq. km. in the south-east and Bhainsdehi, an area of 3,470 sq. km. in the south-west. Each tahsil is in the charge of a Tahsildar. Besides, the sub-divisional system of administration has been introduced in the District. Since 1909, only minor changes have taken place in the tahsil boundaries. Deothan village is recorded as having been transferred from Bhainsdehi to Multai in the Settlement Report of 1916-21. The District is divided into a number of Revenue Inspectors Circles for Administration and Police Station circles for Police Administration. In the year 1965-66, there were fourteen Police Stations, viz., Betul, Chicholi, Shahpur, Ranipur, Bijadehi, Jhallar, Mohta, Multai, Sainkhera, Amla, Bordehi, Athner, Bhainsdehi and Sarni.

1. Quoted in District Census Hand Book, 1951, p. 1.

TOPOGRAPHY

Physically the whole of the District lies on the Satpura Plateau at an elevation of 365 meters and above from the Mean Sea Level. The General elevation is about 609 metres. The Satpura plateau is high in the east, gradually lowering towards the west. It falls steeply towards the south in the Berar plain as well as to the north in the Narmada valley. The plateau has been deeply eroded specially along the water courses on the Trap. The sand stone areas in the north have also been denuded mostly along their margins and several angular projections of the scarps and steeply rising residual hills are marked bordering the Tawa valley. It is for these reasons, together with the high forests and damp climate, that the communication in the District has been more difficult in the past and the road system is still in the primary stage of its development. Almost all roads in the District except the one, viz., Gudgaon-Ellichpur along the Purna in the south and those, trekking into the Narmada Valley beyond the northern scarps of the Satpuras, are built along the wider parts of the plateau keeping at large from the courses of rivers and streams.

Physiographically the District may be divided into four divisions, viz., the Satpura Hill Ranges, the Tawa and Morand valleys, the Satpura Plateau in the central and southern parts of the District and the Tapti Valley.

The Satpura Range

The main chain of the Satpura hill-ranges highly dissected by the Tawa and other tributaries of the Narmada, runs through the northern part of the District. Among the numerous peaks of this range, several are marked with the remains of old forts. In the past these were strong holds of the local chiefs. In the periods of turmoil, these and their occupants were a constant source of trouble to the more peaceful and rich settlements of the Narmada valley. The western extension of the Mahadeva hills lies into the north-eastern parts of the District. Interrupted by the wide valley of the Tawa and its tributaries, the Daryakho and the Phopas, and rising again to the west of Shahpur, it runs to the west. East of the Tawa valley Kilendeo (1,107 metres), Jambudip and Harrai peaks are exactly in line with the peaks of Bhanwargarh (893 metres), Jamgarh, Rohndeo (626 metres) and Sauligarh (680 metres) west of the Tawa valley. Of these Kilendeo forms the highest peak in the northern and central parts of the District. Kilendeo and Bhanwargarh hills have scarping edges and stand above the Tawa valley. The Kilendeo rises to over 640 metres whereas the Bhanwargarh rises to about 426 metres from the valley. However, the back-bone of the range is lost in a tumbled mass of peaks and ridges extending from the Chicholi plateau in the south and intersected by the valleys of the parallelly flowing rivers, the Morand and the Bhangi. Other important peaks in the Group of Kilendeo peak are Mundadeo (1,068 metres), Sirripahar (893 metres), and Asirgarh (823 metres). The hills extending to the north-

west of Asirgarh fort (other than that in East Nimar) run up to Gidandeo Pahar and form the northern spur of the main range. The spur of the range scarp to the south in the Tawa valley about 152 metres below.

To the south of the course of the Tawa another range of the Satpura runs towards the south-west upto Badnur (Betul) forming the northern edge of the main Satpura plateau and scarping in the Tawa valley. From here onwards the hills generally subside but the scarpment over the Tawa valley continues to the north-west in its broken form. The important peaks east of Bharkach are Matyardeo (911 metres), Paraskot (919 metres) and Sirikot (828 metres).

The Tawa Valley

The Tawa valley lies at an elevation of about 1,300 feet (396 metres) above Mean Sea Level between the peaks of Kilendeo and Bhanwargarh. It is bordered by the cliffs over a thousand feet (304 metres) high on the north-east, south-east and south-west. The general slope of the valley is towards the north-west. The country is undulating with presence of a few residual hillocks and intersected by a large number of streams joining the Tawa. The soil mantle is thin, poor and sandy except along the large water courses where it is deep and of finer texture. A large portion of the valley is covered with forests favouring the growth of valuable trees to perfection on sites with better soil. Only the northern part of the valley and the best soil elsewhere have been occupied for agriculture. It is in view of better development that large scale clearings for resettlement have been taken up in this area.

The narrow stripes of the valleys of the Morand and the Bhangi lie to the north-western part of the District.

The Satpura Plateau

The high mass of the Satpura plateau in the District lies in the eastern part whereas the highest range of the Satpura either scarps the northern rim of the high plateau or stands dissected further north separated by the intervening valleys of the subsequent rivers joining the Narmada. The high plateau rises above 2,250 feet (685 metres) and spreads in a wide area from Betul Bazar in the West to Dunawa in the east and from Pattan in the south to the foot of Sirikot peak in the north.

The axis of the plateau is a trap-covered range over 762 metres high from the Mean Sea Level and running almost from east to west. Its northern slope is drained by the Bel which flows to the east. The southern slopes drain into the Tapti. Multai, the celebrated source of the sacred Tapti is located to the south of a hill 791 metres high in this range. This hill marks the water partings amidst the waters of the Wardha and the Tapti to the south-east and south-west, respectively, and Kharpura Nala to the north. This part of the plateau is also mentioned as the Multai plateau. The high

mass of the District subsides into the fringing ravinous country of the Wardha and the tributaries of the Kanhan towards the north-east and east, forested and remote, mostly falling in Chhindwara District. It is probably this natural phenomena which demarcates the boundaries of two plateau Districts of Betul and Chhindwara in this part. To the west it lowers gradually and spreads in a partly undulating plateau region which is the central knot of the several others spreading in most parts of the District. History proves that this part of the plateau known as Betul plateau has always been the political or administrative hub of the District. The northern extension of the plateau is marked by the low range of hills attending their maximum height at Dhabadeo peak (822 metres) beyond which it falls abruptly into the Tawa Valley.

The north-western extension around Chicholi settlements is sufficiently wide for cultivation but it rises into Tapasari Hills (821 metres) to the west and is dissected by the Betul Nala in the south and the Bhangi and Naran *nalas* in the north where by the intermittent three ranges of Chilpokna, Phoplia and Sauligarh are entirely covered with forests mostly on thin sandy soil extending up to the northern boundary of the District. The Tapasari and Alampur hills form part of the Kalibhit range in Nimar (East). Although the general elevation is declining toward the north of Chicholi the Bhanwargarh, Chilpokna and other ranges show dominant heights of the residual peaks scarping-over the tributary valleys. As one moves further to the north, south or west of Chicholi tract, the poor soil and patchy cultivation is met with in the midst of hills, grooves and forests. The Betul plateau and the Chicholi plateau have a general elevation of 670 meters and 640 meters, respectively.

Separated by the Tapti and its tributary streams to the south of Kheri and Jagdhar, a series of narrow dissected plateaus form the southern series of the high plateau which extends from east to west. The general elevation of the plateau is about 640 metres in the eastern part while it is about 701 metres in the west with large area rising above 762 metres. The plateau forms a narrow belt bordered by the ravines of the Wardha and its tributaries on the east. On the west around Bhainsdehi it is much wider than around Masod. The northern extension of the southern plateau is locally known as Bhainsdehi plateau. The important peaks are the hill 800 metres high to the west of Bhainsdehi, Jhallar (745 metres) and Nilgarh (772 metres) hills in the north bordering the Tapti ravines. The more even or undulating parts of the southern plateau drain into the Tapti and are along the road connecting Masood, Athnair, Gudgaon and Bhainsdehi from east to west. The agriculture and most populated villages of the tract are found in this belt. Most of the cotton grown in the District comes from this part and therefore, the area with *Tool* (cotton) is economically better than the villages in the central and northern parts of the District. The highest parts of the plateau (excepting Salbaldi peak) forming the water-divide are alienated to the north of this road and are much dissected on the southern slopes although the Purna also taps the waters of Bhainsdehi area and flows towards

the south cutting across the highest part of the plateau. The southern slopes of the plateau are almost wholly covered with forests with small villages dotted here and there only by the side of streams. Khamla group of villages are known more for their cattle farming than for agriculture in the extreme south-west. The peak (1,137 metres) west of Khamla is the highest point in the whole of District and forms part of the Gwaligarh Hills. Dhar (1,114 metres) and another peak east of Khamla also attaining the same height are counted as the second highest in the District. Other important peaks of the southern plateau are south of Satner (915 metres) and south of Satkund (803 metres). South of Athnair the plateau has been much eroded and lowered by the upstreams of the Main river which itself breaks through a narrow valley across a second and the southern range of hills over looking the Berar plain. Salbadi (941 metres) and Kalapakhan (777 metres) are the highest peaks of the southern range.

The Tapti Valley

In the western part of the District the Tapti valley projects between the District of Hoshangabad and Amraoti in an oblong some fifteen miles wide by twenty long. Except in the Damjipura tract in the extreme west, level and undulating land is limited in a few villages mostly on the southern bank of the river.

DRAINAGE

The drainage of the District forms part of the three major systems, viz., the Narmada, the Tapti and the Godavari. It is diverted in all directions from the eastern high mass of the plateau. The northern and the central parts of the District drain into the Narmada in the north through the Tawa, the Machna, the Morand and the Bhangi. The Tapti itself is a consequent river flowing to the west draining the waters of the western and the southern central parts of the District. The Purna, the Maru and the Wardha occupy small areas of their drainage in the south and the latter two form parts of the Godavari system whereas the Purna joins the Tapti in Khandesh. Between the Satpura range running north-east of Badnur (Betul) and the central ridge of the plateau, the Bel River flows towards the east, quite opposite to the Tawa in the north and the Tapti in the south. In Chhindwara District the Bel joins the Kanhan which is a major tributary of the Wainganga.

The important rivers of the District are the Tapti, the Tawa, the Wardha, the Bel, the Morand and the Purna.

The Tapti

It is one of the great rivers of Western India. The name is derived from *tap*, head and the Tapti is said to have been created by the Sun-God to protect himself from his own warmth. It is believed that it rises from the

sacred tank of Multai (*Multapi*), the source of the (Tapti) on the Satpura plateau but its real source is on the slopes of the hill 790 metres high and located (21°48' N. 78°15' E.) north of Multai. It flows in a western direction through the Betul District, at first traversing an open and partially cultivated plain, and then plunging into a rocky gorge of the Satpura hills, the Kalibhit and Chikalda ranges, falling mostly in Nimar (East) and Amraoti Districts, respectively. Its bed is rocky, in this part, overhung by steep banks and bordered by forests. After a course of about 201 km. from its source it enters Nimar (East) District and is still confined in a comparatively narrow valley for about 30 miles (48 km.). The valley opens out a few kilometres above Burhanpur and the river flows in a broad and fertile valley for about 242 Km. receiving the Purna River in Khandesh. Further on the river passes through hilly and wooded country for about 129 Km. after which it sweeps southwards to the sea through the alluvial plain of Surat, and is a tidal river for the last 48 Km. of its course. The total length is about 701.6 Km.

Important tributaries of the Tapti within the District are the Ambhora and the Khandu on the left bank and the Betul, the Bakti, the Ganjal and the Dhatrang on the right bank. In the State of Maharashtra it is joined by the major tributaries, the Purna, the Girna and the Borai. In the dry season the upper course of the river is marked with the intersecting ridges of the traprocks and the pools of water. The flow in the lower parts is not very large. In the rainy season the river carries a large volume of water with silt and gets several spates of floods confined to the high banks in the upper parts, but very damaging in the coastal plains, including the city of Surat. The river is crossed at Bhusawal by the Bombay-Prayag (Allahabad) Main line of the Central Railway, at Savalda by the Bombay-Agra National Highway, and at Surat by the Bombay-Kota-Delhi Main line of the Western Railway. The Khandwa-Edlabad road crosses it at Burhanpur. The important places on the banks of the river are all to the west of the District. Chandev at the Confluence of the Purna and Bodhan above Surat, is the most important among the *Tirthas* (holy places) along the river. The fort of Thalner and the city of Surat are places of historical importance and for a long time were centres of administration and maritime trade, respectively. The port of Swally (Suwali) famous in early European commerce with India and the scene of a sea fight between the British and the Portuguese, lay at the north of the river, but is now deserted, its approaches having been silted up.

The Tawa

The river is one of the important tributaries of the Narmada flowing in the north-eastern part of the District. It rises in Chhindwara District. After a course of about 20 miles (32 km.) between the two ranges of the Satpura hills it enters the District on its confluence with the Baradha nala. It flows generally in westerly direction for about 22 miles (35 Km.) in the District and receives the waters of the Phopas and the Daryakho from the south a few kilometres north

of Ghoradongri. The river takes a northerly course from here and is joined by the Machna from the west 8 miles (13 Km.) down stream and by the Bharanga nala from the east about 2 miles (3 Km.) further north. After a course of about 7 miles (12 Km.) the river marks the northern boundary of the District for about 6 miles (9 Km.) north-east of Dhodia Mohar and enters Hoshangabad District. It joins the Narmada about 50 miles (80 Km.) due north and only 5 miles (8 Km.) north-east of Hoshangabad town. The total length of the river is about 115 miles (185 Km.) of which length about 45 miles (72 Km.) are within the Betul District.

The river drains a large area in the hills, its tributaries spreading many kilometres to the east and west.

The bed of the river is sandy with rocky out crops and falls at 3 feet per mile or 57 Cm. per km. There are no sudden falls. The gauging of the river started in 1948 and maximum discharge of 6,88,000 cusecs was observed on 15th September, 1961. The summer discharge dwindles to 250 cusecs, appropriately. The average flow of 16 years is 2.95 M. A. feet and its dependability is 1.94 M. A. feet.

The river is not navigable and swells to a sizeable river only after heavy precipitation and dropping down to low level soon thereafter. In floods the river flows very fast. Its violence can be judged from the fact that in 1814 stone piers of Bagra Railway Bridge were snapped off by the floods.

The construction of a multipurpose dam across the Tawa was started during the Second Five Year Plan. At the site 22° 33' 40" N. and 77° 58' 30" E. about 2,700' down stream the Tawa and Dendra confluence in Hoshangabad District. The bed of the Tawa exposes many fine sections showing the geological structures of the hills through which it has forced its way. A number of seams of coal are exposed in the bed of the river near Rawandeo. Though the Valley of the Tawa is of small value from the agricultural point of view, its affluences the Phopes and the Daryakho rising in the hills a few miles north of Badnur (now Betul) flow through the fertile Raipur tract. A multipurpose project mainly for irrigation is being carried out in Hoshangabad District.

The Wardha

The river rises from the southern slopes of the Dahawadhana peak (811 metres) located at 21° 50' N.; 78° 24' E., 11 Km. north-east of Multai. It flows for about 35 Km. in the District and drains a small area in the south-east. After a course of about 467 Km. it meets the Wainganga river in Chandrapur (Chanda) District of Maharashtra and the united stream under the name of the Pranhita flows on to join the Godavari. The bed of the river is deep and rocky changing from a swift torrent in the monsoon months to a succession of nearly stagnant pools in the summer.

Tanks

There are only a few tanks of any size in the District. The Village obtain water for consumption mostly from wells. The larger tanks of the District are those of Probhat Pattan, Multai, Baghoda, Andharia, Malajpur, Kothi Bazar, Rawanwadi, Dhar and Chilkapur. The area of these tanks is from 1 to 6 hectares Flat Table Land. Sampna Reservoir is the first large water body of about 364 hectares F. T. L. provided to the District.

GEOLOGY

The rock formations of the District include:—

Recent	Soil
Pleistocene-Recent	Laterite
Upper Cretaceous-Eocene	Deccan Trap (Flows, sills and dykes)
Cretaceous	Lameta beds
Jurassic	Upper Gondwana System
Permian	Lower Gondwana System
	Jabalpur beds
	Bijori Motur Barakar Talchir
Archaean System	Basic intrusives, Schists and quartz, granite and gneiss.

Archaean System

Between Chicholi in the west to Chhindwara in the east is a broad tract of Archaean rocks and large part of this is occupied by granitoid rocks. In places, in addition the existence of granites is mentioned. At the southern base of the Gawilgarh range of hills a very small exposure of metamorphic rocks occur close to Salbardi. The beds here are only traced for 15 Km. and appear not to exceed a few hundred metres in breadth. The granites in the Bet valley show signs of considerable disturbance.

In this District, the Dharwar rocks which are folded with the gneisses are described to include phyllites, quartz-mica schists, quartzites and epidiorites.

Intrusive into the gneiss and granites of the District are large masses of basic rocks such as epidiorites, hornblends, schists, diabases and amphibolites in the form of sills and dykes. These were presumably intruded as dykes and sills of dolerite and gabbro, remnants of the original pyroxenic rocks, some of them with olivines, being found here and there. The amphibolites are found

times garnetiferous especially when they have been subjected to shearing. The hornblends schists are often rich in a green pyroxene.

Gondwana System

The rocks of the Gondwana system which comprise a succession of sandstone, and shales with seams of coal, lie over the metamorphic crystalline rocks of the Archaean system with a distinct and profound discordance. In these rocks occur organic remains of fresh water origin. The beds are distributed in patches of various sizes, which are in a linear set and which coincide more or less with the present river valleys. The rocks in general dip 5 to 6 degrees to the north but often show signs of disturbances at places with steep dips, on account of faults. The faults took place at the time of basalt flows and sills of the cretaceous time.

The Talchir bed about 300 metres thick, consists of sandstones and green clays with boulders and contains plant remains. In the region of Sonada, thin coaly layers occur in these rocks with leaf impressions. On account of the homogeneous nature of Talchirs, the bedding planes are often obscure. The rocks of this group are often bounded by faults. The age of these faults is uncertain but in some cases it is post-Gondwana for the Deccan Trap flows have been seen shifted by the same disturbances.

To the west and north-west of Betul is a group of rocks which separate the Deccan traps from the Archaean rocks. The beds comprise a conglomerate sometimes cherty, with occasional sandstones and clay varying in thickness; throughout a considerable distance they appear not to exceed 30 metres and are often thinner. The conglomerate was referred to the Lametas, while the soft, argillaceous sandstone with harder bands and occasional red shales or clays shows considerable resemblance to some of the rocks but sometimes dips at steep angles apparently as a result of a fault. The rocks are, however, referred to the Talchir series.

The Barakar stage for which a doubtful figure of 150 metres has been suggested, consists of brown and grey flaggy felspathic sandstones, and shales with beds of coal. The sandstone is often current bedded and typically coarse, with pebble beds. The Barakars are the only group in which coal has hitherto been found. The coal seams have been in the past years worked to some extent, but they are thin and much affected by faults and dolerite dykes. The Barakars are characterised almost everywhere by poorly preserved plant fossils, chiefly impressions of leaves of *Glossopteris* or stems of *Vertebraria*. In Sonada coal-field, certain horizons of these coal measures, containing *Gangamopteris cyclopteroides* are thought to be representative of the Kanhar-bar stage.

The Barakars are succeeded without any noticeable break by the beds of the Motur stage which may be upto 1,800 metres in thickness. The Motur

rocks consist of thick, soft or coarse earthy, grey and brown sandstones with occasional lenticles of clay and shale, the latter usually sandy and very rarely carboniferous. The sandstones are thick and massive. The clays are calcareous and when weathered are buff to pale, green in colour but near the surface become mottled and red. Silicified wood have also been collected from near the base.

The Bijori which are 180 to 240 metres thick comprise shales which are occasionally carbonaceous, micaceous flagstones and sandstones. The beds roll in places but dip eventually northward. The most important fossil found in the Bijori beds is the skull and a considerable portion of the axial skeleton of a *Labryinthodont* allied to *Archegonsrus* under the name of *Gondwana-Saurus Bijoriensis*. Many plant remains have been identified, the commonest being the various species of *Gossopteris*, *Schizoneoura Gondwanensis* and *Cladophlebis Roylei*.

The Bagra facies is very irregular in composition. Although largely composed of conglomerates, which are often coarse, it includes frequent bands of calcareous sand and variegated clays. The coarser constituents of the conglomerates are all rounded and vary in size from small pebbles to boulders as large as a man's head. They are cemented by a matrix which is usually argillaceous and sometimes calcareous, and frequently of a deep red colour.

The Jabalpur beds consist of massive sandstones alternating with soft white clays. In addition, subordinate beds of conglomerates, earthy hematite, carbonaceous shales, red clay and chert may occur. The thickness of those beds is between 75 and 150 metres. Fossil plants are exceptionally plentiful but they are usually fragmentary. The best fossils have come from a *nala* east-north-east of Golanpura, where petrifications have been found. *Haydenia*, *Thinnfeldia*, *Glossopteris*, *Sagenopteris*, *Amamozamites*, *Podozmites*, etc., have been recognised from the fossil leaves in those rocks.

Lameta beds

The lametas are seen near Taramkhera and along the road east of *per* (Table land) where these rocks are seen to intervene between the trap-flows and the underlying Gondwana rocks. The beds comprise purple clays usually not more than 1 metre in thickness. It is believed these beds are accumulations of volcanic agglomerate mixed with a little sand. The clay is seen to be composed of numerous angular quartz grains mixed up with irregular glassy fragments varying considerably both in size and composition.

Deccan Trap

By far the most extensive rocks in the District, are the trap flows, dykes and sills belonging to the Deccan Trap. The flow is not uniform in a section. The base consists of a thin porous layer of earthy basalt. This porous layer

into the main body of the flow; consisting of a great thickness of hard basalt. In typical cases, this part shows vertical columnar jointing. Above the main mass is a thick layer of tough basalt characterised by its conchoidal fracture. In these flows a fine grained irregularly jointed flow which weathers into spherules, a medium grained black basalt, a porphyritic flow and a very amygdaloidal flow have been recognized. Careful examination has shown that the lower sheets of flows have been extensively faulted. Sills and dykes of the Deccan Trap are rare in the crystalline rock and very abundant in the Gondwana rocks. Most of the sills occur in the shales of the Bijoris.

Laterite

The Deccan traps show in places a thin cap of laterite which is of the vesicular type.

Soil

The metamorphic crystalline rock has a very little cap of soil, and in the Deccan trap terrains are stretches of a rich and fertile black cotton soil. The rocks of the Gondwana system give rise to a very thin sandy soil. The argillaceous bands produce a stiff clay which is not very good for cultivation.

Economic Minerals

Building Stones

The building stones of the District include granites, gneisses, sandstones, marbles and traps. Marbles have been recorded at a number of places and are described under limestones. The marbles of Tembi have been used for lintels and other structures in the construction of the Betul High School. The sandstones of the Talchir group are quarried at Singora and Pathe. Deccan traps may furnish some building stones for rough construction.

Coal

Coal was first reported in this District and in fact in the Satpura region, in 1827 near Sonada, and in 1831 thin seams of coal were recorded in the Bhawra nala near Kuppa. Seams were discovered about the year 1848 at Mardanpur. The samples of coal from Sonada tested at Bombay are said to have given good results. The Sonada fields were first exploited in 1848, when a consignment of coal was despatched to Bombay for steamer trails. The Sonada region was examined in detail in 1863 and again in 1868. Although numerous seams were found the opinion expressed was distinctly unfavourable. A complete survey was made in 1875 and several bore holes were put down in 1881 but in spite of the fact that coal measures were bored through no seams of workable coal appear to have been proved.

There are three areas of Barakars, respectively, north, east and west of Shahpur in the valley of the Tawa, and these are Gurgunda of Sukri-Rumaria

areas, the Mardanpur area and the Katasur or Golai nala area. Efforts were made to develop several of the areas in this field and at Dulhara and Patharkara and for some time an output of coal was maintained.

The Dulhara field lies across the Tawa river at Dulhara. Here the coal cannot be more than 2 metres (6.5 ft.) thick. This area was opened up but without success. The Patharkara field lies in the Ranipur forest, south of the river Tawa, and the coal here appears to have been discovered in 1867. The field was examined and it is said that this field represents the most promising of the Tawa valley coal-fields. Exploration work has proved the existence of three seams of coal and the reserves of fair quality coal from one of the seams, 3 metres thick, estimated at 15 million tons.

An outcrop of coal was noted in 1866 in the Tawa river south-east of Photidhana, and all the streams north of Khapa show small fragments of coal. Coal exposures have in addition been recorded in the upper reaches of the Tawa river near Akori, Bakhari, Chickalmai and Umardoh.

Copper-Ore

Copper-ores have been reported to occur in the neighbourhood of the Tapti river.

Felspar

The pegmatites in the granite region of the District may yield some felspars. In them microcline is predominant but oligoclase, labradorite and orthoclase also occur.

Flint

Flint pebbles occur in the authoclastic conglomerates of Khekaria. Many bags of these can easily be picked from the decomposed rock of the locality.

Gold

Tests on the quartzites from Songhati did not show any trace of this metal.

Graphite

A thick band of carbonaceous phyllite with concentrations of graphite at places, has been traced about 20 Km. from 5 Km. north of Betul to Golighat. Concentrations of graphite occur at 1 Km. west and 1.5 Km. north of Gauthana, Tikari, Chiklar, Bhopali, Maramjhiri, Janawani and 0.8 Km. west of Golighat (Gunighat). The mineral is worked in a small way at the first three localities.

Iron-Ore

Banded hematite-quartzites have been recorded at Ankawani but these are not of any importance as a source of iron. Thin lenticles of earthy hematite have been noticed in the Jabalpur sandstones but these are of no value as a

source of iron. Magnetite and ilmenite sand occur in a small way in connection with the trap intrusions which were washed to obtain 'Lode Stone' for making medicines.

Lead

Lead was reported to occur at Barchi and Sonagaon. A bore-hole to a depth of 36 metres was made at Sonagaon and it was reported that two small pieces of galena of irregular shape were picked by villagers from the drill-hole site. The region is underlain by Deccan trap and alluvium and indications have not been located for occurrence of lead here in this region.

Limestones

Crystalline limestones have been reported to occur between Bakar and Enkawari. Dolomitic marble occur near Mandi Khurd, Temnim Chiklar, Dulker, Muthni, Phandka, Bhopali, Basbardi, Keolajhar, Bijaseni and Bachai but none of them are large enough for exploitation.

Mica

Pegmatites with mica have been recorded east of Kol and masses of similar pegmatites have been brought down by streams near Mardongri and Londiya. Mica has also been recorded in the Ranipur forests and near Sonaghati.

Road Metal

The chief source of road metal and balast are the granites, gneisses, basalts, dolerites, and some of the hard and tough sandstones of the Gondwana system.

Sand

Sands suitable for plaster, mortar or concrete, may be obtained from the beds of the rivers and streams. The sands in the Trap region may not however be suitable for first class construction work.

Semi-Precious Stones

Although varieties of agate and chalcedony are likely to be found at many places in traps, there is no record of a local industry for cutting and polishing these stones. The only beads called Sulaiman's heads have been picked up at Pattan and in one or two other places.

Steatite

Potstone (impure steatite) has been recorded at several places near Jharhund, Ghana and Bachai.

Mineral Spring

Close to the fault at Salbardi is a hot spring, the temperature of which is 100 F. The water is clear, tasteless and odourless.

Water

Existing water resources suffice for the present consumption, which however are never fully exploited. The source of water is chiefly from well and the water level in them is variable depending on the nature of the rock. The crystalline rocks seem almost impermeable except on their weathered surface. The Talchirs are of no value as a source of water. The sandstones of the Barakars and Jabalpurs very greatly in permeability. The villagers living on the Bijoris and Matur formations get their main water supply from shallow wells. On the whole water supply in these rocks is poor except in the vicinity of the main rivers. Water Supplies in the Deccan Trap plateau are obtained from shallow wells, springs and tanks. In dry years all these sources of supply are liable to fail.

Seismicity

The District lies in a seismic zone where light to moderate earthquakes are possible. The District lies on and in close proximity of Satpura range from where earthquakes of slight and moderate intensity are occasionally reported. During the famous Satpura Earthquake of 14th March, 1938 the District came under M. M. Intensity VI in its western portion and V in the eastern portion.

The District also felt mildly some of the great earthquakes originating in Himalayan Boundary Fault Zone in the past.

The following is the list of earthquakes which were felt in Betul.

S. No.	Date	Location/Epicentre	Remarks
1.	16th June, 1819	Rann of Kutch	Felt
2.	12th June, 1897	Assam	Felt
3.	4th April, 1905	Kangra	Felt
4.	15th Jan., 1934	Bihar-Nepal	Felt
5.	14th March, 1938	Satpura (21°-32' N. 75°-50' E.)	M. M. intensity VI in Western half and V in Eastern half.
6.	25th Aug., 1957	22-0°N., 80-0°E.	Possibility of hav- ing been felt in Betul.

FLORA

The flora of the District is comparatively less disturbed because of the difficulties of communication, natural restrictions on the expansion of agriculture and the low density of population. Even the village areas managed by the Revenue Department contain sufficient vegetation.

The most extensive forests spread in the northern part of the District up to Chicholi, Betul and Amla. They also extend in the western part of the District, west of Kheri and along the southern boundary of the District.

The total area of forests managed by Forest Department in this District is 4,514 sq. Km. The Division comprised eight Range Charges, viz., Saonligarh, Bhanwargarh, Betul, Amla, Asir, Tapti, Dabka and Sawalmendha at the time when the latest Working Plan Report was prepared in 1952. On the 1st July, 1961 the Division was bifurcated into two with the creation of a total of 13 Forest Ranges. The area of Reserved and Protected forests placed in the charge of each Division is as follows¹:—

Division	Reserved	Protected	Total
North Betul	1,763.8 Sq. Km.	448. Sq. Km.	2,209.3 Sq. Km.
South Betul	1,251 Sq. Km.	1,048.5 Sq. Km.	2,302.5 Sq. Km.
Grand Total	3,014.7 Sq. Km.	1,499.6 Sq. Km.	4,531.1 Sq. Km.

The Reserved forests in the northern part of the District form large blocks on the hills and the plateau. The Reserves along the southern boundary are smaller and those in the west are still smaller and isolated. The Protected forests generally fringe the Reserved forests and are detached from each other except in the north where they form the marginal chains and large blocks in the valleys of the Tawa, the Machna and the Morand.

According to Champion's classification the forests of the District fall into 4-a Southern Tropical Deciduous Type with the presence of two classes, viz., C-1 Dry Teak Forest and C-2 Dry Mixed Deciduous Forest. On the plateau such as Ladi, Kukru and Kilendeo the type approaches group 2-A Southern Tropical Moist Deciduous Forest.

From the ecological point of view and for the management purposes the forests may be divided into the following types.

- (i) Moist Deciduous Teak (with or without bamboo),
- (ii) Dry Deciduous Teak (with or without bamboo),
- (iii) Mixed,
- (iv) Salai and,
- (v) Bamboo.

Moist Deciduous Teak Forest with or without Bamboos

Two important factors responsible for the occurrence of this type are rainfall above 50" (127 m. m.) and the nature of the underlying rock. This

1. Since 1st August, 1966 a third administrative division, viz., West Betul Forest Division has been carved out. The areas of the three Forest Divisions, as on 1st April, 1969, are : North Betul 122,644.88 hectares, South Betul 168,644.88 hectares and that of West Betul 131,967.37 hectares.

type occupies the southern part of Bhawargarh range, mainly the Machna valley, almost the whole of Betul range, the middle part of Amla range, south-eastern part of Saonligarh range and the area round about Nanda and Gadha-khar in Tapti range. On the slopes, this type extends only a short distance up above which it degenerates into the dry type or the Salai type or poor quality mixed forest.

A characteristic of the forests of this District is the rapid change in the composition of the crop which is due to very rapid change in the factors influencing the growth. Density is usually good and may vary from 7 to 9 or occasionally a full canopy may be seen. It is highest on flat alluvial patches or on the lower and humid slopes of sheltered valleys. It is low on higher elevation, exposed slopes, flat hill tops, frost hollows and a few patches with abandoned cultivation.

Variations are also found in the quality¹ of the crop from M.P. II to IV-a. M.P. II quality is found in small patches. Average quality may be taken as III. Trees are cylindrical and well-formed.

Teak form 20 to 40 per cent of the growing stock. As compared to the dry type, percentage of teak is less in general but in particular localities like deep alluvium of ravines percentage of teak increases even to 80, or pure teak stands may be seen as in the case of small island in the Machna in compartment 253. Teak is invasive in the clear fellings of the mixed forests.

The species most commonly found associated with teak are:—

Saj (*Terminalia tomentosa*), lendia (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), dhaura (*Anogeisus latifolia*), haldu (*Adina cordifolia*), aonla (*Emblica officinalis*, Gaertn), tinsa (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*), salai (*Boswellia serrata*), mahua (*Madhuca latifolia*) and kalam (*Mitragyne parvifolia*). Kari (*Saccolpetaum tomentosum*), and jamun (*Eugenia cumini*) are abundant in the Tawa valley in Amla range.

1. Type and quality	Classes	Average height of the dominant trees at maturity.
Teak or Mixed	I	Over 27 metres
	II	Over 21 to 27 metres
	III	Over 15 to 21 metres
	IV-a	Over 12 to 15 metres
	IV-b	Upto 12 metres
Bamboo	I	Good quality
		Fully stocked or under-stocked
Bamboo	II	Medium quality
		Fully stocked or Under-stocked

In the Machna Valley lendia (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), and tinsa (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*) are very common. Salai (*Boswellia serrata*), is found only on higher elevations. Mahua (*Madhuca latifolia*) is abundant in Kanji Talao felling series with predominately mixed type of forest.

The common shrubs found in the undergrowth are siharu (*Nyctanthes arbor-tristis*), marorphali (*Helicteres isora*), dhawai (*Woodfordia floribunda*), birhul (*Indigofera pulchella*) and khareta (*Grewia tiliifolia*). Lantana (*Lantana camara*, linn.) is invading the western part of Betul range and south-eastern part of Bhanwargarh range. Mahul (*Bauhinia Vahlia*) and palasbel (*Butea superba*) are the main species of climbers found in this type. They are not abundant except around Nanda in Tapti range.

The undergrowth varies with density of canopy. As density is usually high in the case of teak forest, the floor is generally free from undergrowth. Grass is also scarce. Kusal (*Andropogon contortus*) and sainar (*Ischaemum laxum*) are the main varieties of grass.

Owing to successive improvement fellings in the past, the crop on the whole is middle-aged. There is a dearth of mature trees. Girth of the bulk of teak trees varies from 0.6 to 1.2 metres. Trees are, however, well formed and straight grown, the badly grown ones having been removed in successive operations since 1897. Saj attains even better height and girth than teak. The tinsa which is in demand does not grow to big size. It is possible to find adequate reproduction of teak over the larger parts of the District. There is a good percentage of saplings and poles in the crop underneath bamboo on the slopes which is absent on top of ridges, and scarce in low lying places. Reproduction of mixed species, specially dhaura is abundant. Tinsa (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*), lendia (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), dhaman (*Grewia tiliifolia*) and aonla (*Emblia officinalis*) reproduce well.

Dry Deciduous Teak Forest with or without Bamboo

This type occupies about half the forest area in the District. It is found in northern part of Bhawargarh range, the Saonligarh range, the northern and western parts of Tapti range, the eastern part and Chandu circle of Dabka range and forests of Kukru in Sawalmondha range. The teak forests on higher elevation in Batul and Amla ranges and on poor soils in Asir range also fall in this type.

Dry deciduous teak forests are mainly associated with Trap on which teak thrives in almost pure crops. In the crystalline area as on top of plateau, conditions are dry and the result is the dry type of forest. In the Trap if rain-fall is less and conditions are unfavourable for teak, as on the southern aspects, salai forest may replace it, e. g., large areas in Sewalmondha range and Patla forest in Dabka range.

The dry deciduous type of forests occur in areas with medium to deficient rainfall, over a wide range of altitude, on all aspects, in short undergreatly varying conditions. Climate and other factors seem to influence distribution of the type less than the soil. With such wide distribution, density of the stock varies from blank to full canopy but 0.6 to 0.7 is the average density. Large blanks in the midst of well-stocked forest are probably the result of the shifting cultivation practised in the past. Density is never uniform over a large area. Though teak forms a very high percentage of the crop, it is of lower quality. The ruling quality is IV-(a) with about 2 percent of the area falling under III while II is negligible. Under local unfavourable circumstances quality falls to IV-b.

The forest is usually single storeyed and where it is not, trees in the under storey are very few. The floor is also generally devoid of undergrowth.

Bamboo (*Dendrocalamus strictus*) forms the undergrowth everywhere except on flat plateau. Medium quality of bamboo is found on slopes. A fair amount of reproduction of teak and other species comes up on the slopes underneath bamboo. Reproduction is deficient in parts of the Tapti range.

Mixed Forests

This type is distributed over the southern parts of the Betul and Amla ranges, eastern part of the Tapti range and almost the whole of the Asir range. The underlying rock is either metamorphic as in the Betul and Amla ranges or Gondwana sandstone as in the Asir range.

It is possible to find mixed forest of all quality classes, though IV quality is the rule. In moist ravines or on deep, fertile soil in valleys, III or even II quality crops grow. On sandstone, the crop is generally of IV-b quality. Trees are stunted and do not grow to any large size. Luxuriant growth is found on the cool plateau of Ladi and moist localities near Mowar in Betul range.

Density varies considerably. While it is possible to find crops with density 1.1 the average density is hardly 0.6 and fairly extensive understocked areas are found as a result of various factors, e. g., cultivation in the past or the mineral deficiency, or the presence of sheet rock just below the surface or waterlogging during the rains.

A very large number of species make up the growing stock. Except Saj (*Terminalia tomentosa*), dhaura (*Anogeissus latifolia*), and bhirra (*Chloroxylon swietenia*), none of the species are so gregarious as to form pure crops. Saj predominates on clayey loam and occasionally forms fine pure stands, while bhirra (*Chloroxylon swietenia*) prefers sandy soil on slopes. Harra (*Terminalia chebula*) is conspicuous on Ladi and Khamla plateaus and on higher parts of Betul range. The common species found in these forests are as follows:

Top Canopy

Saj (*Terminalia tomentosa*), dhaura (*Anogeissus latifolia*), lendia (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), tendu (*Diospyros melanoxylon*), mahua (*Logerstroemia parviflora*), behera (*Terminalia belerica*), kalam (*Mitragyna parvifolia*), haldu (*Adina cordifolia*), semal (*Salmalia malabarica*), rohan (*Soymida febrifuga*), mokha (*Schrebera swietenoides*), chichwa (*Albizia odoratissima*), phansi or dhobin (*Dalbergia paniculate*), kusum (*Schleichera oleosa*), bija (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), siris (*Albizia lebeck*), padar (*Stereospermum chelenoides*), moin (*Lannea grandis*), kekar (*Garuga pinnata*), siwan (*Gmelina arborea*), pangra (*Erythrina indica*), and maharukh (*Ailanthus excelsa*). In moist localities koha (*Terminalia arjuna*), jamun (*Syzygium cumini*), gular (*Ficus glomerata*), and karanji (*Pongamia pinnata*) are found. Xerophytic species abound in dry localities and rocky hill sides. Salai (*Boswellia serrata*), kullu (*Sterculia urens*) and ganiar (*Cochlospermum gossypium*) are characteristic of such places.

Middle Canopy

Tinsa (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*), aonla (*Emblia officinalis*), achar (*Buchanania lanzan*), dhaman (*Grewia tiliaefolia*), harra (*Terminalia chebula*), kari (*Milusa tomentosa*), amaltas (*Casia fistula*), baranga (*Kydia celycina*), kasai (*Bridelia retusa*), amta (*Bauhinia malabarica*), palas (*Butea monosperma*), bhirra (*Chloroxylon swietenia*), astera (*Bauhinia recemosa*), dhegan (*Cordia Macheolii*), papra (*Gardenia latifolia*), ghatol (*Zizyphus zylopyrus*), bhilawa (*Semecarpus anacardium*), kumbhi (*Careya arborea*), kakai (*Flacourtia ramentchi*), khair (*Acacia catechu*), reunjha (*Acacia leucophloea*) and hingan (*Balanites roxburghii*). A few trees of anjan (*Hardwickia binnata*) grow scattered in the south-western part of Asir range.

Undergrowth

Siharu (*Nyctanthes arbortristis*), dhawai (*Woodfordia fruticosa*), marorpal (*Helicteres isora*), birhul (*Indigofera pulchella*), nirgur (*Vitex negundo*), bharati (*Gymnosporia montana*), ber (*Zizyphus jujuba*), and bhandar (*Colebrookia oppositifolia*) grow near Kukru. On rocky slopes may be found thuar (*Euphorbia nerifolia*) and ban kela (*Musa sapientum*).

Climbers

Mahul (*Bauhinia vahlii*), bel (*Aegle marmelos*), palas (*Butea frondosa*), gunja (*Milletia auriculata*), makor (*Zizyphus oenoplia*), ramdaton (*Smilax macrophylla*) and churni (*Zizyphus rugosa*) are common. Chilati (*Acacia cassia*) and karbel (*Cryptolepis buchanani*) are common in Dabka range.

Grasses

Kusal (*Andropogon contortus*), sainar (*Ischaemum laxum*), rusa, (*Cymbopogon martini*), khas (*Andropogon squarrosus*), muchhel (*Isilema laxum*), moyra (*Pennisetum alopecuroides*), kail (*Andropogon annulatus*), gonder (*Anthistria ejitata*), kans (*Andropogon spontaneum*) and sabai (*Ischaemum angustifolium*).

Noxious Weeds

The District is free from lantana except for part of the forests near Kukru in Sawalmendha range, near Koolajhir in Bhanwargarh range and along the western fringe of Betul range where some lantana is trying to spread. Near Kukru it must have spread from the adjoining Melghat forest. In the other two localities, it has spread from Nimpani village where it was introduced as a hedge plant. Existence of lantana is liable to be ignored for the present but if left to itself, it may spread as widely as in Melghat and may become difficult to control. Early control will help in eradicating it completely.

Plant Parasites

Loranthus longiflorus locally known as banda is frequently seen on mahua (*Madhuca latifolia*). Such trees yield much less flower or gulli. Presence or otherwise of banda on mahua trees is of importance while deciding about retention or removal of such trees. Banda has never been noticed on timber species.

Reproduction of most of the species is fair specially that of saj (*Terminalia tomentosa*), dhawai (*Woodfordia fruticosa*), tinsa (*Ougeinia dalbergioides*), tendu (*Diospyros melanoxylon*) and lendia (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*). Teak reproduction also comes up at many places. Bamboo is found scattered in patches only.

Salai Forests

Though scattered Salai occurs all over and small patches of salai are found on the ridges and flat tops covered under the teak type forests, extensive salai forests occur only in Dabka, Sawalmendha and Tapti ranges. Factors influencing the existence of salai (*Boswellia serrata*) in great abundance in these parts are the low rainfall, southern aspect, and shallow soil on rocky slopes or dry tops of hills. The greater part of Patoli, Nilgarh and Sawalmendha blocks of Dabka range and parts of Tapti range near the Betul river are covered with salai forest. The density of the crop is generally low, average being about 0.5. After leaf-fall the hill sides look almost devoid of vegetation. The quality is IV-b, occasionally going up to IV-a. Common associates of salai (*Boswellia serrata*), are dhaura (*Anogeissus latifolia*), moin (*Lannea grandis*), ganiar (*Cochlospermum gossypium*), bhirra (*Chloroxylon swietenia*) and kulu (*Sterculia urens*). Occasionally teak (*Tactona grandia*) is also found. Reproduction of salai is satisfactory, as also of other species. Advance growth of teak (*Tactona grandis*) and dhaura (*Anogeissus latifolia*) is often seen coming up under salai.

Bamboo is not, as a rule, found in salai forests. There is always an abundance of grass, chiefly kusal (*Heteropogon contortus*), sainar (*Ischaemum laxum*) and rusa (*Cymbopogon martini*).

Bamboo Forests

Bambo (*Dendrocalamus strictus*) is found scattered over various types described above. In certain localities as in Bakur and Lonia forests of Amba range bamboo grows so densely that the area can be classed as Bamboo forests with scattered overwood of trees. However, no part of the division is managed exclusively as bamboo forest and bamboo continues to be treated as an undergrowth. Extensive bamboo areas lie in Saonligarh, Bhawargarh, Betul, Amla and Tapti ranges. In Asir range bamboo is found scattered in small units only. The same is the case with Dabka and Sawalmendha ranges where it grows only along sheltered valleys and ravines. Generally speaking, bamboo grows best on slopes of hills and along ravines and nala valleys. On ridges and flat tops of hills bamboo disappears. It also avoids dry upper slopes on southern aspect. Only one species namely *Dendrocalamus strictus* is found. In parts of Asir range adjoining Bori reserve, solid bamboo culms can be obtained.

sporadic seeding takes place every year all over the District. In 1932-33 gregarious flowering took place in the south-eastern part of the Saonligarh range and northern and north-eastern parts of Tapti range. In the northern part of Sonligarh range, gregarious flowering occurred in 1941-42 and in the western part of Tapti range in 1950.

Trees Of Open Country

Among trees of the open country the mahua *Madhwa latifolia* mango (*mangifera indica*), babul (*Acacia arabica*), bar or banyan (*Ficus benghalensis*, Linn), pipal (*Ficus religiosa*), imli or tamarind (*Tamarindus indica*), ber (*Zizyphus jujuba*) and bel (*Aegle marmelos*) are common as in almost all Districts. The pakar (*Ficus infectoria*) is a fig with narrower leaves than the pipal (*Ficus religiosa*). The gular (*Ficus glomerata*) is often seen standing alone in the fields and growing with a crooked stem. The red fruits appear in cluster on the trunk or branches and are eaten by urchins though they are full of insects. The barna (*Cratva religiosa*) is moderate-sized tree with large, cream coloured blossoms. It is sometimes to be planted near Mohammadan tombs. The bhokar (*Cordia myxa*) is a tree found in the open country and in avenues with fragrant white flowers. The gulmohur (*Poinciana regia*, *Bos. ex Hook*), is cultivated and is a fine ornamental tree covered with corymbs of glowing scarlet flowers when in blooms. It is a native of Madagascar.

Past Systems of Management

Prior to 1850 the aborigines cut and burnt the forests as they liked, mainly for practising shifting cultivation locally known as *dahya* or *bewar*.

The construction of railways and other Public Works made great demands on the forests. Timber contracts were given by Civil authorities without any provision of supervision. The earliest reserves to be demarcated in 1865 were the Bhawargarh, Saonligarh and Khamapur of North Tapti range.

The Waste Land Rules were introduced in 1862. Cutting of teak, *saj*, *shisham* and *bija* without the sanction of the Deputy Commissioner was forbidden.

Under the provisions of the Forest Act, 1865, the forests were classed as reserved and unreserved. While the unreserved forests remained under the control of the Deputy Commissioner the reserved forests were transferred to the Forests Department. Right of commutation for *nistar* and *paidawar* was restricted to the forest villages. In 1872, the License system was introduced. In 1878 the forests of Betul District were formed into a separate Division which formed part of the Western Forest Division till 1877 and Hoshangabad Division thereafter. The License system was extended to unreserved forests also in 1883. In 1893 the system of located felling was introduced.

Working Plan of E. E. Fernandez

In 1897 a working plan for the entire District was prepared under the guidance of E. E. Fernandez which remained in force till 1926. Each of the six ranges formed a working circle.

Where the stock was almost full and salable a regular felling series was formed. Where demand was limited, a *nistar* felling series was formed to meet the *nistar* demands. Rotation of 30 to 20 years was fixed according to the quality of forests. The system adopted was coppice-improvement felling. Where demand was full the system tended to become coppice-with-standards. Cultural operations were carried out in areas containing teak and *tinsa*. Coupes were closed to grazing for ten years after fellings.

This plan provided a systematic treatment and helped greatly in improving the young growing stock. The old stock was removed.

Working Plan of C. I. English

C. I. English introduced a working plan for the remaining seven ranges on 1st July, 1927 when Dabka and Sawalmendha ranges had been transferred to Amravati minor division. The latter two ranges were worked according to Fernandez's Plan.

The forests in the Division were stock-mapped on the old lines and were divided into permanent compartments. Four working circles were constituted as follows :

(i) High Forest Working Circle

All the teak forests capable of producing timber of large size were placed in this Circle. The silvicultural system adopted was conversion to uniformity to convert the forests into a normal series of age gradations. The conversion period was fixed at 80 years for the medium quality areas. Each felling series was divided into 80 or 60 annual coupes and yield was regulated by area.

(ii) Low Forest Working Circle

In areas fit for producing small timber and firewood only, reproduction was fixed at 40 years. Simple coppice system was to be modified to exclude the under-stocked areas as well as *mahua*, *achar* and *harra* trees elsewhere from fellings.

(iii) Bamboo Overlapping Working Circle

Compartments containing bamboos exploitable in quantity were included.

(iv) Low Forest Unworked Circle

It covered Compartments which were inaccessible or poor in growing stock.

The fundamental defect of the above plan was incorrect stock-mapping. This manifested in faulty allotment of areas to working circles, wrong selection of regeneration blocks, defective sequence of coupes and disproportionate division of effective areas among the coupes. Remote areas in Tapti range placed in the High Forest Working Circle could not attract demand of material. The climber infested areas of Betul and Amla ranges were worked under simple coppice system which proved most harmful for these areas. The light felling in the High Forest Working Circle did not convert the forests into a normal series of age gradations. Attention was not paid to control the bamboo suppressing teak. The selection limit of 2½ feet (0.75 metre) and above fixed for the removal of trees was unjustifiably low.

The clear felling of well-stocked low forest working circle was found to be too rigid. Similarly no felling whatsoever was to be done in the understocked low forests.

Working Plan of Gurdial Sing Lamba for Betul Forest Division excluding Dabka and Sawalmendha Ranges (1934-35 to 1946-47)

The workable area was stock-mapped on standard lines which helped the correct allotment of areas to various working circles and in picking up suitable compartments for regeneration block of the conversion working circle. The following working circles were constituted.

(a) Conversion Working Circle

The better quality teak areas were worked on a long rotation. The object was to convert the forest into a normal series of age gradations. Conversion period was divided into 3 periodic blocks of 20 years each. The regeneration block was divided into 20 annual coupes and yield was regulated by area.

(b) The Improvement Working Circle

Remoteness, lack of demand or presence of heavy climbers decided the allotment of teak or mixed forests for selection-cum-improvement fellings on a

cycle of 40 years, yield being regulated by area. Selection limit for teak was 3' (0.9 metre) for quality IV areas and 4' (1.1 metre) for quality III areas.

(c) The Coppice Working Circle

Poor teak and mixed forests with good demand were to be worked on a felling cycle of 40 years.

(d) The Bamboo Overlapping Working Circle

The general prescriptions of Madhya Pradesh were applied.

(e) The Miscellaneous Working Circle

Improvement fellings combined with thinnings, on a ten year cycle were prescribed for forest-village areas. Compartments inaccessible or with deficient growing stock were to be left untouched.

(2) Working Plan of Gurdial Sing for Dabka and Sawalmendha ranges (1935-36 to 1944-45)

The ranges then formed part of Amravati (minor) Division. Four Working circles were constituted.

(i) The conversion Working Circle

In the good quality teak in Kurku felling series conversion to uniform system was adopted and conversion period was fixed at 60 years. After a few years clear felling in hilly country was given up. The rules for felling were amended in 1941 and the prescriptions regarding planting were deleted.

(ii) The Coppice Working Circle

The Remaining workable areas of the two ranges were worked on a cycle of 45 years on Simple coppice system. But in 1941 the prescriptions were altered to the Coppice-with reserves system.

(iii) The Miscellaneous Working Circle

The remaining compartments which were unworkable, inaccessible, not in demand, or inferior formed this circle. Improvement fellings combined with thinning were to be carried out in the forest village areas on a rotation of 10 years.

(iv) The Bamboo Overlapping Working Circle

Compartments containing bamboo in exploitable quantity formed this circle.

Results Achieved by Gurdial Sing's Working Plans

The two Plans were extended upto 1951-52. In general, the stock mapping was accurate and prescriptions were sound. In the Sawalmendha

working circle clear felling on hill slopes showed remarkably good results. Certain of the conversion felling series failed to restock satisfactorily for want of check on the regrowth of bamboo from suppressing teak reproduction.

The worst result was the systematic combing out of all sound mature teak trees from the unallotted blocks. The short conversion period resulted in the removal of nearly half of the growing stock from the better quality area. The working on conversion was not suitable for the forests on the steep hills and where the demand is limited to teak.

The prescriptions of Improvement Working circle were suitable, but the allotment of area was less satisfactory.

The Coppice Working system was also introduced in Sawalmendha and Dabka ranges in 1941. The areas under Miscellaneous working circle had a rest period in which the stock improved greatly but for the annual fires in Asir range affecting about 3,642 hectares. Bamboo forests of Bhawargarh, Betul and Amla ranges have been thoroughly worked, but the prescriptions and supervision of fellings were often ignored.

In the first World War of 1914-18, large quantities of hay were supplied for the cavalry. During the World War II large quantities of teak and *salai* were supplied for working the army hutments, bridges, railway lines, packing cases, construction of ships, buildings, etc. The first supplies were of *ballies* buttings, timber and bamboos, but with the occupation of Burma by the Japanese in 1942 timber in all sizes had to be supplied. For the preparation of squares and planks a saw-mill was established at Barbatpur.

N. K. Sharma's Working Plan

Sharma's plan was introduced in 1952 for a period of 15 years (1952-53 to 1966-67). It created 7 working circles, viz., Protection, Teak conversion, Selection-cum-improvement, Coppice-with-reserves, Bamboo (over-lapping), Soft wood (over-lapping) and Miscellaneous. This plan was based on the reclassification of forests according to the recommendations of the Forest Officers Conference of 1946. He gave emphasis on the checking of soil-erosion and created a protection circle. Similarly Soft wood circle was created in view of the increasing demand of *salai* and setting up of the Nepa Newsprint Mill at Chandni in Nimar (East). The Plan provided the construction and improvement of earth-work roads and the tightening of fire-protection measures.

Centenary Celebration

To celebrate the Centenary of Forest Conservancy in the District a centenary plantation of teak over 40 hectares was raised in compartment No. 162 of Sitadongi village in Saonligarh Range. A preservation plot of 14 hectare was laid out in coupe LXVI of Moudha Teak Conversion Felling Series at Maghma Tapu in Compartment 253 of Shahpur Range.

Game Laws and Measures for the Protection of Wild Life

The Wild Birds and Animals Protection Act of 1887 was the first step towards game preservation. This was replaced by a more comprehensive one in 1912 by The Wild Birds and Animals Protection Act. Shooting and hunting in reserved forest is controlled under the Central Provinces shooting Rules contained in Appendix VII of C. P. Forest Manual, Vol. II. In 1935 a new Act called the Central Provinces Game Act of 1935 was passed. It has helped in conserving wild life in the reserved forests. Their utility is apparent by contrast when one looks at the unchecked wanton destruction of wild life that goes on outside the reserved forests. The Forest Department celebrates the Wild Life Protection Week in the first week of October every year to seek co-operation from the people for this purpose.

Shooting Blocks and Sanctuaries

There is no game sanctuary or national park in the District nor is there any part suitable for the purpose. The total area of Government forests in the District is divided into Shooting blocks with well-defined boundaries.

On an average 10 shooting permits were issued by the Divisional Forest Officer annually during the decade ending on 31st March, 1951. However, it must be admitted that a large number of animals are shot by poachers. Poachers are usually traders in skin and flesh and they find the pastime paying. Pools of stagnant water or salt licks on the margins of the forest blocks are suitable places for the poachers activities. The situation is not so bad as in some other Districts because the forest blocks are large in area.

FAUNA

The fauna of the District is varified. Stray accounts are found in the Records of the Nagpur Museum. Captain J. F. Forsyth has given a colourful picture in his High Lands of Central India. The game animals have been described in the forest Records. Among the bigger animals the most common are tiger (*Panthera tigris*), panther (*Panthera pardus*), sambhar (*Cervus unicolor*, Kerr), chital (*Axis axis*), nilgai (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*, Pallus), black-buck (*Antelope cervicapra*), chinkara (*Gazella gazella benneti*, Sykes), barking deer (*Muntiacus muntjac*, Zunnierman), four-horned antelope (*Tetracerus quadricornis*), wild pig (*Sus cristatus*, Wagner), sloth bear (*Melursus urisimus*), bison (*Bibos gaurus*) and wild dogs (*Coudukhnmensis*, Sykes).

The common monkey (*Samnopethecus entellus*) is seen throughout the District. It damages the trees, agricultural crops and tiles on roof.

Tiger, the best known carnivora, is found almost everywhere in the Forest Divisions. Attempts were made to determine the number of tigers by counting the pug-marks left by them on the morning of an appointed day during the hottest part of the year. It is estimated that tigers are fairly

numerous and can be found within reasonable distance from any camp in the forest. They prefer lowlying cool places near water and are seldom found on ridges or plateaus. They retreat into deeper parts of the forest where they can lie undisturbed. The best known places for tiger are Kantawari and Banka in Bhanwargarh range, Tanda and Panchhi in Saonligarh range, Arjungond in Betul range and Nada in Tapti range. However, except Kantawari none of these places can compare with better known places elsewhere in the State. For this reason, no *shikaris* are attracted to this District and very few tigers are shot annually. Poachers turn their attention mainly to *sambhar* and *chital* which bring more money to them by sale of flesh and skin. The poachers activity disturbs the balance of nature with the result that tigers, unable to find game in the forest, start attacking cattle and turn cattle-lifters. There has been, of late, an increase in the number of cattle-lifters. With very high cost of live-stock the loss to poor cultivators is serious. Certain wounded and old tigers become man-eaters. The number of man-eaters has been very small as compared to that of cattle-lifters. The popular feeling is that tigers should be totally destroyed. Obviously the best way to keep down the number of tigers, is to encourage local *shikaris*. In practice, it is found the concessions are abused. Many a shikari, who swears by selfless service to the poor, will not go to an out of the way place even if a reward is offered.

Panthers are more widely distributed as they do not confine themselves to the deeper forest. They like to come out on the outskirts of villages and lift small goats, dogs or domestic fowl. The panther is not shot after but is shot during beats.

The jackal (*Canis aureus*, Linnaeus) and the hyaena (*Hyaena hyaena*, Linnaeus) lift domestic fowl or small goats from villages. They are of no interest as game. Wild dogs are less numerous and their ravages consequently less severe in Betul than in other Districts. They are always seen in packs. Bears prefer open scrub forest with fruit trees like *ber*, *tendu*, *achar* and *mahua*. They sometimes attack an unwary passer-by: otherwise they do not cause much nuisance.

Bisons are found in Asir range and Saonligarh range and sometimes near Bhawargarh hill. They prefer flat areas of table land even as high as that of Killendeo in Asir range. Shooting of bisons which are not numerous is prohibited in this Districts. Wild pigs are common and destructive to the crops.

The common varieties of deer belonging to the State are found in fairly large number in the Betul forests. The commonest deer *sambhar* is found almost everywhere. It is much sought after by poachers as the hide is much valued. Betul town has a special name for shoes made of *sambhar* skin and so is the case with Chandu where in 1935 every alternate man could be seen wearing country shoes made of *sambhar* skin. Chitals are not so

common as *sambhar*. They are nowhere so numerous as to cause damage by browsing in regenerated areas. *Nilgai*, barking deer and four-horned deer are seen only occasionally. *Nilgai* frequents the more open forest and grass glades. *Barasingha* has never been seen. Black bucks wander in herds over the wheat of the south and downs of the plateau, but the herds are generally smaller than in the Vindhayan Districts. Flying squirrel is said to be found though it is rare.

An ornithologist may see a variety of birds both permanent and migratory. Of birds, the common sandgrouse (*Pterocles exustus*, Temminck) is fairly plentiful all over the District and is indigenous. Red jungle-fowl (*Gallus ferrugineus*, Gmelin) and grey jungle fowl (*G. sonneratii*, Temminck) are found in denser forest and beside streams in the early morning and on hot-weather afternoons. Red spur fowl (*Galloperdix spadiceus*, Gmelin) and painted spur fowl (*G. binulosus*, Valenc) haunt bamboo jungle and thick forest, but are not common. The grey partridge (*Ortigonis ponticeriana*, Gmelin) is very common. The painted partridge (*Francolinus pictus*, Jerd & Silby) is found in smaller numbers. The bush-quail (*Perdica cambayensis*, Latham), rain-quail (*Coturnix caromandelica*, Gmelin) and button-quail (*Turnix sykesii*, A. Smith) are very common and the large grey quail (*Coturnix communi*, Bonaterre) may be flushed in the cold season in open grass country or in fields under crop. Green pigeon *Crocopus phoenicopterus chlorogaster*, Blyth are found in large flocks on *banyan* and *pipal* trees when the fruits are ripening. Wood-pigeons are not common but may be seen in pairs by forest streams. The blue-rock pigeon *Columba livia livia*, Bonn) does not occur in large numbers and builds his nest in high and inaccessible rock crevices or in the hollow branch of a tree. Owing to the absence of tanks duck (*Anas poccolrhyncha*, Pennant) and snipe (*Gallinago scolopacinus*, Bonas) are very rare and the District is on the whole not quite attractive for birds shooting.

Peacocks (*Pavo cristatus*, Linnaeus), parrots (*Psittacinae*) and parrakeets (*Palaeorninae*) are the most annoying to the cultivator. The former never leave the neighbourhood of cover, but in the morning and evening flocks of parrots are on the wing all over the field. They are particularly noxious in *juar* and wheat fields, may be seen biting off the ears of wheat in their flight and carrying them to the nearest big tree to eat.

Fishes

The common varieties of fishes found in the natural waters of the District are *L. bata*, *L. bogat*, *L. boga*, *B. Sarana*, *B. ticto*, *B. stigma*, *C. reba*, *Rasbora*, *M. armatus*, *W. attu*, *M. singhal* and *ophicephalus*. The Fisheries Department has taken up the pisciculture of the fast growing species, viz., *C. catla*, *E. rohlta*, *C. mrigala*, *L. calbasu* and *B. tor*.

Mortality caused by Reptiles and Wild Animals

The total number of deaths caused by reptiles and wild animals during the six years from 1959 to 1964 was 321. The figures for individual years are 49 in 1949; 50 in 1960; 45 in 1961; 61 in 1962; 72 in 1963; and 44 in 1964. Of these only a few deaths have been caused by the wild animals. Almost every year the highest number of mortalities are caused by the reptiles in the month of June and the second highest record has been in July. About 80 per cent of the total incidence of deaths are caused during the six months from April to September. December is the month with least incidents with the advent of cold season.

Territorially, the highest number of casualties were recorded in Betul Police Station area, followed by Multai, Shahpur and Athnair, the better populated parts on the plateau. Smallest number of incidents occurred in the remote areas under Police Stations Mohta, Sainkheda, Amla, Jhallar and Ranipur.

Latest figures for mortality caused by reptiles and wild animals are given below:

Year	No. of Deaths
1965	50
1966	54
1967	42
1968	45
1969	64

CLIMATE

The climate¹ of this District is pleasant though marked by dryness during the greater part of the year, the summer being generally milder than in the surrounding Districts. The year may be divided into four seasons. The cold season from December to February is followed by the summer season from March to May. The south-west monsoon season is from June to September. October and November constitute the retreating monsoon or post-monsoon season.

Rainfall

Records of rainfall in the District are available for six stations for periods ranging from 50 to 95 years. The statistics of the rainfall at these stations and

1. The period of data utilized for working out mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures, relative humidities, normals of wind, special weather phenomena and extreme values of temperatures is from 1948 to 1958. The account of rainfall is based on all records available upto 1959.

for the District is 1,083.9 mm. The rainfall generally increases from the south to north, south of the Satpura range and is the highest at Betul which is located in central part of the District. The amount of rainfall decreases at Shahpur which is on the northern slope. The south-west monsoon reaches the District by about the second week of June and withdraws by about the beginning of October. The rainfall during the period June to September constitutes about 85% of the annual rainfall. The range in annual rainfall from year to year is considerable. In the fifty year period from 1901 the highest rainfall amounting to 179% of the normal was received in 1944 while 1918 was the year of the lowest rainfall with only 43% of the normal. In the same fifty years' period the rainfall was less than 80% of the normal in 10 years, but no two of them consecutive. But at the individual stations, Multai, Athnair and Bhainsdehi in the southern part of the District, two consecutive years with rainfall less than 80% of the normal have occurred on three or four occasions. At Multai four consecutive years, 1920 to 1923, were years with rainfall less than 80% of the normal. It will be seen from table 2 that the rainfall in the District has been between 800 and 1,300 mm. in 33 out of 50 years.

On an average there are 57 rainy days (i.e., days with rain of 2.5 mm/10 cents or more) in a year. This number varies from 51 at Athnair to 62 at Betul (Badnur).

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the District was 289.6 mm. at Shahpur on July 3, 1930.

Temperature

The only meteorological observatory in the District is at Betul. The records of temperature and other meteorological data at this station which are available for about ten years can be taken as representing the climatic conditions in the District as a whole, subject to the allowance given to other influencing factors, viz., the altitude, slope, nature of rocks, proximity to the forests, water-bodies and such other factors. The summer season starts early in March when temperature begins to rise steadily. May is the hottest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at 30.2° C. With the on-set of the monsoon in the second week of June, the weather cools down appreciably. In the south-west monsoon months the day temperatures are not very different from those in the winter season, but the night temperatures are higher. The day temperature shows a slight increase in October and there-after begins to fall, while the night temperatures decrease continuously after the end of the south-west monsoon season. December is the coldest part of the year with the mean daily maximum temperature at 26.6° C. and the mean daily minimum at 10.1° C. In the winter season, the District is sometimes affected by cold waves in the wake of western disturbances which pass eastwards across north India. On such occasions the minimum temperatures may go down to a degree or two above the freezing point of water.

The highest maximum temperature recorded at Betul was 43.3° C. on May 25, 1954 and the lowest minimum temperature was 1.1° C. on February 12, 1950.

Humidity

In the south-west monsoon season the relative humidities are high, while in the rest of the year the air is generally dry. The summer months are the driest when the relative humidities go down to 20 per cent or less in the afternoons.

Cloudiness

In the south-west monsoon season skies are heavily clouded to overcast. In the rest of the year, lightly clouded or clear skies are common.

Winds

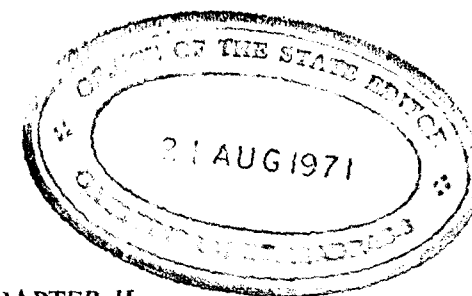
Winds are generally light to moderate with some strengthening in the latter half of the summer season and during the south-west monsoon months. The winds in the summer and south-west monsoon seasons are from directions between south-west and north-west. In the rest of the year winds are north-easterly or easterly.

Special Weather Phenomena

The depressions during the monsoon season which originate in the Bay of Bengal and move westwards, affect the District and its neighbourhood causing strong winds and widespread heavy rain. Some of the storms and depressions of the post monsoon season also affect the District. Thunderstorms occur in the summer months and much of the rainfall in the monsoon season is associated with thunder.

Table 3, 4 and 5 give the data of temperature and humidity, mean wind-speed and frequency of special weather phenomena, respectively, for Betul.

According to the Betul District Census Hand Book, 1961 during the nine years from 1952 to 1960 the average rainfall was 1,063 mm. The frequency of rainy days at individual stations has been 59 at Betul and Multai, 53 at Shahpur, 55 at Chichali, 49 at Athner and 58 at Bhainsdehi. July and August are the months of heaviest rainfall. The year 1952 seems to have been a lean year as regards rainfall, the average for the District in that year being 603 mm. Likewise, 1959 seems to have been a year of heavy rainfall, the District average for that year being 1,304 mm. In three years, i. e., 1952, 1957, and 1960 the District received poor rainfall. The average in each year being below 1,000 mm. The records of rainfall and rainy days from 1952 onwards and temperatures from 1951 to 1960 are given in separate tables of Appendix-A.



CHAPTER II

HISTORY

The history of Betul District, from the dark prehistoric age down to the seventh century A. D. is shrouded in total obscurity. Neither has any implement, pottery, rock-painting or ornament of the prehistorical period been discovered in the District, nor a single reference of any of its places is traceable in the vast volumes of ethical and mythological literature. From the evidence of the palaeolithic, microlithic and neolithic industries all over the surrounding territories it may, however, be safely concluded that this District too passed through all these phases of existence.

The distribution of inscriptions indicates that Asoka's empire embraced the major part of India, except the kingdoms in the extreme south. This would naturally include Betul District in the realm of the Magadhan empire, although there is no literary or epigraphic evidence of the same, concerning this District.

After the dissolution of the Magadhan empire the Sunga dynasty ruled over the central portion of the old Mauryan empire from 187 to 75 B. C. It is stated in Kalidas's *Malavikagnimitra* that the crown prince of this ruling house, viz., Agnimitra had a fight with Yajnasena, the ruler of the independent kingdom of Vidarbha. Yajnasena was defeated by Agnimitra's brother-in-law, Virasena, and the whole kingdom was divided between Yajnasena and his cousin Madhvasena, under Sunga suzerainty¹. From this we may conjecture that Betul, the fate of which was linked up then with modern Maharashtra, was a part of this Vidarbha kingdom.

The most important political event of the succeeding century was the long-drawn war between the Western Kshatrapas of Malwa, Gujarat and Kathiawar and the Satavahana rulers of the Deccan. According to the *Nanaghat* inscription the third king of the Satavahana dynasty, viz., Satakarni I performed two *Aśvamedha* sacrifices after making extensive conquests. He might be the same Satakarni, whose inscription appears on the gateway of the Sanchi Stupa². Besides, the discovery of the coins of this dynasty at Tripuri³, Khidia⁴ (in Hoshangabad

1. The Age of Imperial Unity, pp. 95-96.
2. R. S. Tripathi, History of Ancient India, p. 194.
3. Journal of Numismatic Society of India, Vol. XII, Pt. II, pp. 94-97 and 126-33; Vol. XIII, Pt. I, pp. 46-52; Vol. XVI, Pt. I, pp. 70, 95-96; Vol. XXI, Pt. II, pp. 110-11.
4. Ibid., Vol. XIV, Pt. I, pp. 55 ff.

District) and Vidisha¹ further proves that the neighbourhood of Betul was an early possession of the Satavahanas.

Gautamiputra Satakarni (C. 106 to 130 A. D.) is styled as the Lord of Vijha (Eastern Vindhyas) and Achhavata (Rikshavata or Satpura mountains)² etc. This provides further proof of the Satavahana occupation of these regions.

According to Ptolemy's geographical account of 140 A. D., the region was then inhabited by the Kondalis. General Cunningham thinks that these Kondalis were none other than the Gonds or the Gaudas, who were of the same stock as the Gaudas of Bengal. The kings of Western Gaudas are supposed to have reigned over the Satpura plateau at an early period.³

The Vakatakas

In the latter half of the third century A. D. Betul became a part of the vast Vakataka kingdom, extending from Bundelkhand to the former Hyderabad State⁴. The nucleus of the Vakataka principality lay in Vidarbha. The founder of this dynasty was Vindhya Shakti (C. 255-275 A. D.). It was during the reign of Pravara Sena I (C. 275-335 A. D.) that the small patrimony in the western part of Vidarbha was enlarged into a big empire which included northern Maharashtra, Berar and the whole of Central Provinces to the south of the Narmada. He is the only ruler of the dynasty to assume the title of *Samrat* (emperor)⁵.

The discovery of a few gold coins of the Gupta monarchs at Pattan⁶ (in Betul District) may be indicative of some Gupta influence in this region. But on the evidence of place names in the numerous charters of Pravara Sena II of the main Vakataka branch, it is conclusively proved that all the aforesaid territories, including the District of Betul were under his son's direct administrative control⁷. Moreover, there is no evidence to prove that Rudra Sena Vakataka, who was a contemporary of Samudra Gupta, was overthrown by the latter, either during his conquest of Central India or the Deccan⁸. Perhaps the central and western parts of the Deccan were left alone as a result of an alliance between the Gupta emperor and Rudra Sena's son, Prithvi Sena, who acknowledged Gupta suzerainty.⁹

1. Ibid., Vol. XIV, Pt. I & II, pp. 1-3; Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, 1913-14, p. 208.

2. Indian Antiquary, Vol. XLVII, 1918, pp. 150-51.

3. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 25.

4. R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar, *The Vakataka Gupta Age*, pp. 113-14.

5. Ibid., p. 100.

6. M. G. Dixit, *Madhya Pradesh Ke Puratatva Ki Ruprekha*, p. 15.

7. R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar, op. cit., pp. 113-14; R. K. Mookerji, *The Gupta Empire*, p. 42.

8. R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar, op. cit., pp. 105, 107.

9. R. K. Mookerji, op. cit., p. 23.

Prithvi Sena married his son, Rudra Sena II, to Prabhavati Gupta a daughter of Chandra Gupta II of the Imperial Gupta dynasty. Her son, Pravara Sena II, whose charter has been discovered in Betul, flourished from C. 410 to 440 A. D. The Vakatakas were the most powerful royal house in the Deccan after the fall of the Satavahanas.

After the death of Pravara Sena II, the royal line was split up into two branches; the main one settled at Nandivardhan near Ramtek (in Nagpur District) and the other established itself at Vatsagulma¹ (modern Basim in Akola District).

Pravara Sena's son, Narendra Sena (C. 440 to 460 A. D.), faced a number of invasions from the Nala kings of Bastar, namely, Bhavadatta Varman and his immediate successors Arthapati and Skanda Varman.² After the reign of Prithvi Sena II somewhere in the 5th and 6th century A. D., the leadership of the main Vakataka dynasty passed on to Hari Sena of the Basim branch, whose dominion extended over the eastern portion of Madhya Pradesh, Central India, Malwa, Southern Gujarat, Konkan, North Kanara and the entire eastern coast of the Deccan.³

The Rashtrakutas

After Hari Sena Vakataka, in C. 510 A. D., the history of this region sinks into darkness till the advent of the Rashtrakutas. From the discovery of two copper-plate charters from Tiwarkhed and Multai, in the District, it is known that at least four rulers of the Rashtrakuta lineage, held sway over Betul Amravati region in the seventh and eighth centuries.⁴ The rulers were Durgaraja, his son Govindaraja, grandson Svamikaraja and great-grandson Nannaraja, also known as Yuddhasura. A charter records the grant of lands in the villages Jalaukuhe,⁵ and Tiverekheta⁶ and Ghuikheta on the south bank of the Ambeviaraka river by Nannaraja to a Brahman. The Tiverekheta grant was issued from Achalapura,⁷ which was probably the capital of this Rashtrakuta family of Berar. They might have had a secondary capital at Padmanagara from where Nannaraja issued his Sangalooda plates.⁸ In all probability Durgaraja was appointed a Rashtrakuta (provincial governor) by Pulakesin II (610-11 to 642 A. D.) of the Chalukya house of Badami. Durgaraja might have ruled almost independently after his overlord's death some

1. *The Vakataka Gupta Age*, pp. 116-117.

2. Ibid., p. 121; R. C. Majumdar, *Ancient India*, pp. 272-273.

3. *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XI, pp. 276 ff; *Indian Antiquary*, Vol. XVIII, pp. 230 ff; *Himal. Inscriptions in C. P. & Berar*, pp. 88-89; *The Classical Age*, pp. 199-202.

4. Probably Jalka village, about 5 km. from the Betul town in Betul District.

5. Tiwarkhed village of Multai Tahsil, about 22½ km. away from it.

6. Ellichpur town in Amravati District.

7. *The Classical Age*, p. 201.

time around the middle of the 7th century. Nannaraja, who ruled perhaps between C. 690-735 A. D., selected the eagle as the insignia of his family.¹

At the same time Dantivarman I, founder of the imperial line of the Rashtrakutas was growing powerful somewhere in the northern part of the Deccan. He too was appointed a district governor in the northern part of the Deccan by the same Chalukya monarch.² It is stated in Nanna's charter that the traveller used to feel sad to witness beautiful paintings on the desolate wall of the deserted palaces of his enemies.³ It is asserted that the original home of the Rashtrakutas of Vidharbha was Lattarula, modern Latur in the former Hyderabad State,⁴ it is also believed that these princes were originally feudatories of the early Kalachuris and later transferred their allegiance to the Chalukyas of Badami. They were at first ruling from Nandivardhana (near Nagpur) and afterwards migrated to Berar and shifted their capital to Achalapur.⁵

As stated in an inscription in the rock-cut temple of the Dasavataras at Ellora, Dantivarman was succeeded by his son, Indraraja.⁶ His son Govindaraja was a Saivite but his son Karkkaraja was a Vaisnava. Later panegyrist tell of his exploits as, tears and bracelets fell from the eyes and wrists of his enemies' wives at the mere mention of his name.⁷ His ambitious son, Indra, extended the area of his principality and soon brought under his sway most of the Marathi speaking Districts of old Madhya Pradesh⁸ i. e. Vidarbha. By C. 750 A. D. however, Dantidurga or Dantivarman II of the Rashtrakuta house of Manyakhet overthrew the last Chalukya king of Vatapi and became the master of Berar, and the whole of the Madhya Pradesh and Karnataka.⁹

Henceforward the destiny of this region must have been controlled by the mighty Rashtrakuta kings, till the last of them was overthrown by the Western Chalukya monarch Tail II, about 973 A.D.¹⁰ During the peak period of their fortune these rulers accomplished supreme military achievements against their equally strong neighbours. Among these, Vatsaraja Pratihara's and Dharmapala Gauda's defeat by Dhruva Nirupama are well known. Govinda III's victory over Nagabhatta II too is worth mentioning, so also is the victory of Amoghavarsha over Mihira Bhoja Pratihara. These Rashtrakuta rulers, whose regime constitutes one of the most brilliant chapters in the history of the

1. Ibid., p. 202.

2. Ibid.

3. Yazdani, The Early History of the Deccan, Parts I-IV, pp. 250-51.

4. Ibid; A. S. Altekar, The Rashtrakutas and their Times, pp. 22-23.

5. V.V. Mirashi, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, p. XLVIII and p. LXXXIII (footnote).

6. R. G. Bhandarkar, Early History of the Dekkan, p. 70.

7. Yazdani, op. cit., p. 251.

8. Ibid.

9. The Age of Imperial Kanauj, p. 2; R. C. Majumdar and others, An Advanced History of India, Part I, p. 178.

10. R. S. Tripathi, op. cit., p. 415.

Deccan, till the advent of the Marathas, were patrons of learning and tolerant in religion. As the Arab writers say *Islam* was honoured and protected by them. Even mosques were constructed by them and Muslims were appointed as Governors of cities.¹

Mediaeval Period

What was the condition of this region after the dissolution of the Rashtrakuta empire is not known. The next reference of Betul is found in *Vivek Sindhu*, said to be the earliest composition in Marathi language, now lost. The author of this religious work was Mukund Raj Swami, himself an ascetic, who lived about the end of the 13th century. The saint passed the later part of his life under the patronage of Jaitpal, the legendary ruler of Kherla,² about four miles east of Betul town, the headquarters of the modern District of Betul. There is a great deal of controversy regarding the date of Mukund Raja's death. According to the Marathi periodical, the *Grantha Mala*, it is 1330 or 1335 A. D., while according to the collection of Marathi poems, viz., *Navanit* his end came about 1000 A.D.³

Kherla Dynasty

King Jaitpal is described in *Vivek Sindhu* as the last member of a Rajput family ruling over Kherla. The dynasty sprang from a certain Raja II who, according to a legend gave his name to the Ellora caves and the Ellichpur town in Berar. It is not possible to give a connected account of the kings of the early Kherla dynasty, but it seems quite likely that these apparently unidentified rulers were the ancestors of the historical figure Narsingh Rai, whom we find ruling at Kherla subsequently.

As the local story goes, Jaitpal was a cruel whimsical monarch. He once called the holy men of his realm and ordered them to invoke their deities in person before him in as little time as was needed for a rider to mount his horse. After their sure failure they, numbering about 300, were forced to work as labourers on the Kherla fortification. Very much disgusted at this misbehaviour of the Raja, Mukund Raja came over from Benares to Kherla and performed the miracle; the pick-axes and crowbars went on working automatically at his mere touch, Awe-stricken, the ruler kept the saint at his court and after his death erected a temple over his tomb within the precincts of the fort. It is an object of pilgrimage; children are sometimes brought here to have their first cropping of hair.

The legend goes further to state that, after Mukund Raja's death, the Kherla fort was besieged by Rahman Shah Dulla, the General of a Muhamma-

1. The Age of Imperial Kanauj, p. 17.

2. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 26.

3. Betul Settlement Report, 1866, p. 32 mentions him as Rajah Jespal, the founder of a Kshatriya dynasty.

dan king of Delhi, to avenge the murder of a Muslim *fahir*. The siege lasted for 12 long years, after which the Rajput king was defeated. At the fag end of the attack, however, the Muslim General was killed and his head was cut off from his body. His crown was buried at Umri, below the fort, while his body was given similar honour at Ellichpur. The interpretation of the fatal injury, according to a local story is that when Rahman Shah Dull asacrificed his head to a goddess, the propitiated *Devi* helped his trunk to drive away the enemy from Kherla up to the river Tapti. The historical fact behind this story may possibly be the Bahamani invasion of Kherla in which the Muslim General was killed by its garrison.¹

The Kherla kingdom has been described as one of the four ancient Gond kingdoms, the other three being Deogarh Mandla and Chanda.² It is the assumption of several writers that Narsingh Rai and his successors, who "reigned at Kherla in the 14th and 15th centuries, were, if not pure Gonds, at any rate of mixed Gond and Rajput stock, and that the Kherla kingdom, was, therefore, a Raj-Gond kingdom on a par with Garha and Deogarh."³ But some other writers are not certain about the Gond Origin of the Kherla dynasty and describe it as a Hindu dynasty.⁴ Richard Jenkins in his Report writes, "The Muhammadan Princes of the Deccan carried their dominion over most of the country between the Wardha and Wainganga, and close upon the present western boundary of Deogarh above the Ghats. Kherla, near Betul, which was also subdued by them, seems to have been the seat of a Hindu Prince, probably a remnant of the Maratha family of Deograh.....In Aurangzeb's time, we find three Gond Princes, of considerable power, established in Mandla, Deogarh and Chanda."⁵

Another writer on the history of Gond rulers has described Jaitpal as a Rajput king. He writes, "Jaitpal was succeeded by Narsingh Rai, who was the first Gond king to rule in Kherla. It is, however, open to question whether he was a pure Gond, as one tradition has it that he was the son of a marriage between a Rajput father and a Gond mother."⁶

From all those statements it is possible to conclude that the Kherla rulers had their origin in Rajputs and that they were neither pure Gonds nor

1. Ferishta, History of the Rise of the Mohomedan Power in India, Tr. by John Briggs, Vol. II, p. 480; Betul District Gazetteer, pp. 26-27.
2. The Gazetteer of the Central Provinces, 1870, p. 46.
3. C. U. Wills, The Raj-Gond Maharajas of the Satpura Hills, p. 200.
4. Hoshangabad Settlement Report, 1867, pp. 21-22; Charles Grant, The Gazetteer of the Central Provinces, 1870, p. LXXIV, f. n.
5. Richard Jenkins, Report on the Territories of the Raja of Nagpur, p. 16.

Ferishta, the famous historian, has not given even a shadow of evidence to suggest that the rulers of Kherla in the 14th and 15th centuries were of Gond origin. See Ferishta's Vol. II, pp. 375-78; Vol. IV, pp. 230-32.

6. E. Chatterton, The Story of Gondwana, p. 50.

at any rate, of mixed Gond and Rajput stock. Probably, the Raja of Kherla was "one of the hereditary provincial governors of the Court of Deogarh (Deogiri-Daulatabad) before the conquest of the Deccan by the Mahomedans."¹

Narsingh Rai, the Raja of Kherla, proved himself an ambitious and shrewd ruler. He had great wealth and power, and had possession of all the hills of Gondwana and other countries.² Kherla once had been a powerful kingdom and had extended her sway over Nimar driving away the Chauhans to Sajni or Piplauda where the Chauhans established a new seat of the family power.³

Taking advantage of the troubles in the Bahmani kingdom, in 1398 A.D. Narsingh Rai was induced by the then Sultan of Malwa and Khandesh to invade Berar. Firoz Shah, the ruler of Bahmani kingdom, was at that time preparing to proceed against Vijaynagar, so he could only detach the Daulatabad division to oppose Narsingh Rai.⁴ But very soon Narsingh Rai had to face the Bahmani Sultan who marched in person to punish him after settling the affairs in the South.

In the beginning of the year 1399 A. D. Firoz Shan turned towards north and reoccupied Mahur. He halted there for nearly 35 days and then proceeded towards Kherla. Narsingh Rai, fearing the attack on Kherla, sent rich presents to the Kings of Malwa and Khandesh, entreating their assistance; but though they had on former occasion furnished him with aid, yet, wishing in reality his destruction, they on the present occasion declined joining his cause. Narsingh-Rai, therefor, resolved to engage the Bahmani forces himself and marched from Kherla. He halted at a distance of two *Coss* from Kherla, assembled his troops there and waited for the approach of Firoz Shah.⁵

Firoz Shah was eager to lead the army in person, but allowed Khan Khanan and Mir Fuzl Ullah Anjoo to lead the army. They wrote a letter to Narsingh Rai reminding him of his late conduct and advised him to compromise by agreeing to pay a tribute to the Bahmani King. Narsingh Rai, however, did not agree to this proposal and instead made greater preparations for war. The Muhammadan army then attacked his lions but were repulsed and some Muhammadan officers of rank were slain in the strife. But soon the Muhammadan army under Mir Fuzl Ullah and Khan Khanan put them to flight and took prisoner Gopal Rai, the son of Narsingh Rai. The latter was closely pursued to the Kherla fort, leaving more than ten thousand slain on the field. He was soon after besieged by the victorious army.

1. C. U. Wills, op. cit., p. 205.
2. Ferishta, Vol. II, p. 376.
3. Hiralal, *Madhya Pradesh Ka Itihas*, p. 72.
4. Ferishta, Vol. II, pp. 370-71.
5. *Ibid.*, p. 376.

After a siege of two months Narsingh Rai, being reduced to great distress, offered terms, which were not acceded to seeing no alternative, Narsingh Rai went with his family to the king's camp at Ellichpur, wher, expressing contrition for his conduct, and acknowledging himself Firuz's vassal; he offered to surrender Kherla itself. He also promised to pay every year the tribute fixed by Ala-ud-din Hasan Gungoo.¹ He gave his daughter in marriage to Firuz Shah and presented him with forty-five elephants, five maunds of gold and fifty maunds of silver.² Firuz Shah gave him a dress of honour, embroidered with gold, restored him to Kherla and recognised him as one of the *Amirs* of the Bahmani Kingdom. Thus, the territory of Kherla, which undoubtedly included Betul, was reduced to the vassalage of the Bahmani Kingdom.

After this Kherla remained tranquil for nearly two decades. In the meantime Sultan Hoshang Shah of Malwa had received repeated defeats at the hands of Sultan Ahmad Shah of Gujarat. Hoshang Shah, therefore, adopted some measures to improve his position. One of his measures was to secure more elephants as he was convinced that the scarcity of elephants in the Malwa army was the chief cause of his repeated defeats. For this purpose he looked to Kherla.³ But his relation with the ruler of Kherla had political bearings too. To him, the existence of a chief who owed allegiance to Bahmani Kingdom, which claimed to have once exercised suzerainty over Malwa, was extremely distasteful. The subjugation of Kherla was, therefore, to Hoshang Shah a matter of political necessity.⁴

Getting some respite from the attacks of Sultan Ahmad Shah in 1420 A. D., Hoshang Shah marched towards Kherla fort with the intention of subduing Narsingh Rai's territory and also enriching himself with the treasures and elephants of the Kherla country. Narsingh Rai came out of the fort and opposed him with an army of 50,000 but was defeated by the Muhammadan army. Consequently, he accepted the suzerainty of Hoshang Shah and gave him 84 elephants and much gold as war indemnity. This victory strengthened the army of Hoshang Shah not only by the acquisition of 84 elephants, but also by enriching his treasury which had become depleted on account of constant wars with the Sultan of Gujarat. Hoshang Shah, however, did not take possession of the fort of Kherla and allowed Narsingh Rai to have it under his control.⁵

Kherla enjoyed comparative peace for the next two years. While returning from the Jainagar campaign,⁶ Hoshang Shah learnt that Sultan Ahmad had

1. Ibid., pp. 376-78.
2. Ibid., p. 378; U. N. Day, *Medieval Malwa*, p. 44.
3. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 43.
4. Ibid., p. 44.
5. Ibid., pp. 44-45 and f. n. 6; Regarding controversy about the death of Narsingh Rai in 1420 A. D. (823 A. H.) See Ferishta, Vol. IV, p. 178 and Vol. II, p. 415; *The Tabqat-i-Akbari*, Tr. by B. De, Vol. III, p. 475, f. n. 1 and p. 480.
6. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 45; *The Tabqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. III, pp. 475-77; Ferishta, Vol. IV, pp. 178-79.

again invaded Malwa and had besieged the fort of Mandu. Hoshang Shah was then in the neighbourhood of Kherla fort. He at once resolved to have a second shelter in the Kherla fort and therefore, induced Narsingh Rai to join him with his army. He deceitfully placed Narsingh Rai in close confinement and garrisoned the fort with his own troops¹. However, Hoshang Shah, after the departure of Ahmad Shah, restored Kherla to Narsingh Rai², who became his ally, and sent his two sons, Chandji and Khemji, in the expedition and the conquest of Gagraun.³

Kherla later became a bone of contention between Malwa and Bahmani Kingdoms. The conduct of Narsingh Rai of Kherla during this contest between Hoshang Shah and Ahmad Shah Bahmani was full of duplicity. Being wedged in between two powerful kingdoms, with equally ambitious rules, Narsingh Rai thought it best to keep friendly relations with both of them, and to call in aid the one whenever the other threatened his existence. Such a policy, however, could not prove successful for long.

In 1425 A. D., Hoshang Shah, apprehensive of the increasing power of Ahmad Shah Bahmani, made proposals to Narsingh Rai to combine with him against the Bahmani Sultan. But Narsingh Rai did not agree to his proposals. There upon Hoshang Shah invaded his country twice, but was repulsed with severe losses. In a third attack in the year 1426⁴, he came so unexpectedly that Narsingh Rai was unable to collect his forces and was obliged to take shelter in the fort of Kherla. He then requested Ahmad Shah Bahmani for assistance at this critical juncture, reminding him of his continued loyalty to the Bahmani throne. Ahmad Shah, accordingly, resolved to assist him and directed Khan Jahan, governor of Berar, to march to the assistance of Narsingh Rai. Moreover, he himself moved with an army of 7,000 horsemen to Ellichpur to support him, if such an occasion arose⁵.

Hoshang Shah, supposing that the Bahmani king's absence from his army arose out of fear, advanced to Kherla and plundering the surrounding country, was pleased to allude tauntingly to Ahmad's inactivity; in consequence of which the latter marched rapidly to relieve Kherla. At this time Ahmad Shah was advised by some holy men not to fight against the Sultan belonging to his own religion. Ahmad Shah, therefore, wrote to Hoshang Shah that "it would

1. Ferishta, Vol. IV, p. 180; *The Tabqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. III, pp. 477-78.
2. Wolsey Haig says that Hoshang Shah carried off the Raja as prisoner—*Cambridge History of India*, Vol. III, p. 351.
3. Shivdas Charan, *Achaldas Khichi Ki Vachanika*, p. 7.
4. Ferishta, Vol. II, pp. 407-08. But the *Cambridge History of India*, Vol. III, p. 351-52, gives the year as 830 A. H., i. e. 1428 A. D.
5. Ferishta, Vol. II, p. 408. The story of Hoshang Shah's attack is, however, disputed by others who assert that the attack was launched by Ahmad Shah who besieged the fort of Kherla; on Hoshang Shah's marching to its relief, Ahmad retired southwards. See *Tabqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. III, p. 480; *The Delhi Sultanate*, p. 175; Ferishta, Vol. IV, p. 183.

be the means of promoting mutual friendship, if Sooltan Hoshung should desist from attacking him and return to his own country."¹ But Hoshang Shah treated the note of Ahmad Shah with contempt and, aware of his own superiority in numerical strength, followed Ahmad Shah's army so closely that he daily encamped on the ground that the Deccanis had left in the morning. Ahmad then made preparations for a battle. He, with 2000 chosen horse and 12 war elephants, ambushed Hoshang Shah, who, panic stricken, was obliged to flee from the battle field. The Deccan army pursued Hoshang Shah and killed nearly two thousand of his men, and took all their baggage. Narsingh Rai, seeing the flight of Hoshang Shah's army, quitted the fort of Kherla and killed a large number of his army. He then paid his respects to Ahmad Shah and congratulated him on his timely assistance. He even entertained him at the Kherla fort and made rich offerings which included besides other things, one maund of diamond, ruby and pearls of Aden.²

Hoshang Shah's rout was so complete that he fled towards Mandu. His wife with all the inmates of the harem fell into Ahmad's hands. Ahmad Shah, however, treated them with respect and, having conferred handsome presents on them, sent them to Mandu with an escort of 500 horsemen. Ahmad Shah then shared the plunder and divided the country among the *Jagirdar* Amirs.³

Hoshang Shah's defeat at the hands of Ahmad Shah Bahmani compelled Narsingh Rai to transfer his allegiance to Ahmad Shah Bahmani. The Malwa Sultan, however, could not tolerate this position for long. He soon got an opportunity in 1433 A. D., when the Bahmani Sultan was busy in struggle against the king of Gujarat. Hoshang again invaded the country of Narsingh Rai and killed him in the battle. The fort of Kherla was also reduced along with its dependent territory.⁴ He annexed the territory of Kherla to his kingdom. Narsingh Rai's son, Kosal Rai,⁵ accepted his suzerainty and was, therefore, made the Feudatory Chief of Kherla.⁶

On receiving the news of these events, Ahmad Shah Bahmani marched towards the Malwa army, but Nasir Khan Faruqi, the ruler of Khandesh, intervened and asked them to forego hostilities. At length, it was negotiated that the fort of Kherla should go to the Sultan of Malwa and the province of Berar to the Bahmani kingdom.⁷ A treaty was accordingly concluded and the two kings returned to their respective capitals.⁸

1. Ferishta, Vol. II, pp. 408-09.
2. Ibid., p. 410; U. N. Day, op. cit., pp. 44-45, f. n. 2.
3. The Tabakat-i-Akbari, Vol. III, pp. 51-52 and f. n. and p. 480; Ferishta, Vol. IV, pp. 183-84; The Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p. 352.
4. John Malcolm, A Memoir of Central India, Vol. I, p. 25; Ferishta, Vol. II, p. 415.
5. The Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p. 390.
6. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 46.
7. The Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p. 402.
8. Ferishta, Vol. II, p. 416.

Thus ended the independent dynasty of Narsingh Rai in 1433-34 and the Betul District came under the sway of the Malwa kings. There are now no records available to ascertain the extent, prosperity or method of government of the Kherla State. But it is clear from the above description that it must have been in existence for a considerable period and "have attained a fairly large measure of wealth and power."¹

Commenting on the fluctuating fortunes of this dynasty, Sir Alfred Lyall says, "It may be granted that Narsingh Rai and his caterans lived by plundering the lowlands like their Scottish contemporaries, and must have been very troublesome neighbours. Yet in those days the main object of all governments was rapine and conquest, with a difference only in the scale of operations; and there is something painful in the fate of these petty tribal Chiefs who disappeared under the conquering sweep of the Pathan adventurer's scimitar."²

The District of Betul thus passed under the sway of the Sultans of Malwa since the year 1433 A. D. Hoshang Shah died in July, 1445 and was succeeded by his eldest son Ghazni Khan. He assumed the title of Sultan Muhammad Shah Ghuri in which name the *khutba* was read and coins were struck.³ His rule lasted only for nine month. Mahmud Khan Khalji got him poisoned.⁴ Some *amirs* of the Sultan Muhammad Shah made an attempt to raise Shahzada Masud Khan, the eldest son of Muhammad Shah, to the throne.⁵ But Mahmud Khan was very cautious and succeeded in completely breaking down the party of the *amirs* which had organised the accession of Shahzada Masud Khan. He then ascended the throne of Malwa on 14 the May, 1436.⁶ This brought to an end in 1436 A. D., the Ghuri dynasty of Malwa.

The accession of Sultan Mahmud I on the throne of Malwa established Khalji rule in Malwa. In 1440-41 A. D. he started from his capital to subdue the petty chiefs on the borders of his kingdom, because, with their war elephants, they defied everyone and could also attack at any moment. But the real motive of Mahmud was to secure from these chief's elephants for his own army. He had with him a well equipped army and fifty war elephants. He reduced Khandwa and Khirki and then directed his march towards the ruler of the territory then called Ajhra (Kherla). The territory of Kherla, situated on the northern border of the Bahmani kingdom, was of great strategic importance; besides through it lay the access to the regions in the east where elephants were found in abundance.⁷

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 33.
2. Quoted from Berar Gazetteer (p. 114) in Betul District Gazetteer, p. 33.
3. U. N. Day, op. cit., pp. 93-94.
4. Ibid., p. 81.
5. Ibid., p. 82.
6. Ibid., pp. 110-11.
7. Ibid., p. 112 and f. n. I.

The ruler of Kherla, who had earlier accepted the suzerainty of Malwa, declared his independence after the death of Sultan Hoshang Shah. On receiving the news of Sultan Mahmud's advance towards his capital, he came out of the fort and personally attended upon him with six elephants. He gave five more elephants to the Sultan as the price of his safety. The Sultan accepted his submission and was also pleased with him as he considered this a good beginning for increasing the strength of elephants in his army. The ruler of Kherla also accompanied the Sultan in his march towards Surguja.¹

In January or February, 1453 A.D., Mahmud Khalji made an attempt to conquer the territory of Berar and Telingana. He started from Hoshangabad with a force of 50,000 for Mahur via Kherla. But he failed in this first attempt and returned with his army without fighting a single battle against the Bahmani ruler.² After his failure in the previous attempt Sultan Mahmud Khalji led his army again against the Bahmani ruler on 25 October, 1461 and defeated the Deccan army at the battle of Maheskar on the river Manajar.³

In the following year Mahmud Khalji made another attempt for the conquest of Berar. He captured Daultabad and then suddenly turned towards Ellichpur. On hearing that Sultan Mahmud Begada of Gujarat had invaded Malwa, he returned to his capital by way of Gondwana, reaching Shadiabad (Mandu) on 10 May, 1463.⁴

Thus Mahmud failed thrice to take any advantage from the Bahmani Kingdom. Henceforth he concentrated on the Berar front and started strengthening Kherla and sending punitive raids against Ellichpur.⁵

Though Mahmud was putting pressure on the Ellichpur front, yet there were many refractory petty Chiefs who needed his attention. Besides, Kherla was still in the possession of the descendants of Narsingh Rai whose loyalty was very doubtful. Kherla being of great strategic importance, he first of all removed Harnaik *Junnardar* and started improving its fortifications. Then he renamed it as Mahmudabad and sent Siraj-ul-mulk to take up the charge of Mahmudabad fort. As there was shortage of provisions of locality, he sent him along with provisions and asked him to store grain in the fort. Thus, Mahmudabad fort was created as a base for sending raids against Ellichpur.⁶ He also captured the fort of Bairagarh and collected the booty which included diamonds.⁷

1. Ibid.
2. Ibid., p. 149; The *Tabaqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. III, pp. 70-71 and 526-27.
3. U.N. Day, op. cit., pp. 154-55; Ferishta, Vol. IV, pp. 225-27; The *Tabaqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. III, pp. 87-91 and 533-36.
4. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 158.
5. Ibid.
6. Ibid., p. 159.
7. Ibid., p. 263.

Sultan Mahmud, however, fell ill before he could launch an attack on Ellichpur. In the meantime Bahmani Sultan had also despatched an army of 20,000 men for strengthening the borders of his kingdom and its defences on the side of Malwa.

In the meantime, Mahmud Shah Lashkari, the Bahmani ruler, also took measures to check the onward encroachment of Malwa Sultan. Kherla (Mahmudabad), therefore, again became a scene of another conflict between the Malwa and Bahmani kings. In 1466 A.D. Muhammad Shah Bahmani embarked on schemes of conquest, and commanded Nizam-ul-Mulk, governor of Berar, to invade and destroy the fort of Kherla. Sultan Mahmud received this information while resting at Nalcha. He immediately ordered *Ariz-i-Mamalik* to collect the forces and put them on purpose. He also appointed Taj Khan as *Ariz* for this army which was to proceed towards Mahmudabad.¹ The cause of this attack on Kherla was to wipe out the disgrace of the previous defeat at Bidar; now the Deccan ruler was trying to pick up quarrel with the territories which were under the suzerainty of Mahmud.

Siraj-ul-Mulk, the *Killedar* of the fort of Mahmudabad (Kherla), proved himself indolent and did not pay proper attention to strengthening his army, and to keep it in readiness for unforeseen eventualities.² Besides, he used to drink wine heavily. It was in this state of negligence and intoxication that he received the news of the attack of the Deccan army under the command of Nizam-ul-Mulk.³ Siraj-ul-Mulk's son came out of the fort and fought bravely, but he was killed in the battle.⁴ According to the statement of Mahmud Gawan, Siraj-ul-Mulk was defeated in the first attack and five thousand soldiers were killed and Nizam-ul-Mulk acquired twenty-three elephants and occupied Kherla, which was for the time being lost to the Malwa kingdom.⁵

But he could not hold the fort for long. Nizam-ul-Mulk had never achieved such success in his life and as a result of it he grew conceited and did not care to crush his enemy completely. He even neglected his personal safety and one of the soldiers of his own army killed him, in revenge.⁶ Then Nizam-ul-Mulk's two adopted sons, Adil Khan and Darya Khan, made some hasty arrangements for establishing a strong garrison in the fort and carried the corpse of

1. Ibid; Ferishta, Vol. II, p. 479; Vol. IV, p. 229; The *Tabaqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. III, pp. 95, 536; The *Cambridge History of India*, Vol. III, pp. 359-414.
2. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 160.
3. Ibid., pp. 160-61; The *Tabaqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. III, p. 536.
4. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 161. Nizamuddin Ahmad writes that he fled after putting up some fight (The *Tabaqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. III, p. 536).
5. Ibid. For details of this campaign See The *Tabaqat-i-Akbari*, Vol. III, pp. 95-97, 536; Ferishta, Vol. II, pp. 479-81; Vol. IV, p. 229.
6. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 161, f. n. 6. According to Ferishta Nizam-ul-Mulk was killed by two Rajput defenders of the citadel (Ferishta, Vol. II, p. 480).

Nizam-ul-Mulk to Bidar.¹ The Bahmani ruler approved their services and "raised each of them to the rank of commanders of a thousand, with the fortress of Kherla and its dependencies in Jaggeer."² The loss of Kherla agitated Mahmud Khalji so much that in spite of his illness and inability to ride, he at once moved out in a *palki* towards Kherla. He also ordered Taj Khan to proceed at once to Kherla to settle its affairs. The death of Nizam-ul-Mulk had weakened the position of the Deccan army in Kherla, and Taj Khan, driving them out easily, occupied the fort. Kherla was then placed in charge of Maqbul Khan who was given four lakhs of *tankas*, 50 horses, 15 elephants, baggages, etc. to further strengthen the fort against any attack by the Deccan army.³

During the supremacy of the Malwa Sultans Kherla was in charge of a Muhammadan governor. We do not find any account of the descendants of Narsingh Rai. An undated inscription on a piece of sandstone, graven in Hindi and Persian, is found at the village of Somaripet close to the Kherla fort. It states that "During the rule of Hazrat Nizam Shah this inscription was graven by the order of the king."⁴ None of the Sultans of Malwa bore the name of Nizam Shah, which may, therefore, have been that of a subordinate governor placed in charge of Kherla fort.

In the year 1531, the last Sultan of Malwa, Mahmud Khalji II, was besieged in the fort of Mandu by Sultan Bahadur Shah of Gujarat. In the beginning, Mahmud showed great energy in defending the fort but ultimately he was arrested on account of treachery and hostility in his own camp.⁵ On 31 March, 1531 A. D. Bahadur Shah caused the *Khutba* to be read in his own name and thus Malwa was annexed to Gujarat.⁶

The next day chains were put on Sultan Mahmud's feet, and he and his seven sons were sent to the fort of Champaner as prisoners. On their way to Champaner Mahmud tried to escape, but before he could do so he was killed along with his sons. Thus, the Khalji dynasty of Malwa came to an end.⁷ Henceforth for a period of a little more than three decades, her history became a long painful story of struggle for re-establishment of her independence on the one side and the total domination by Imperial power of Delhi on the other till the final conquest of Malwa by Akbar in 1562 A. D. closed the issue.

1. Ibid.

2. Ferishta, Vol. II, pp. 480-81.

3. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 162. Ferishta gives a different account of the recovery of the fort by Sultan Mahmud Khalji, Ferishta, Vol. II, pp. 481-83.

4. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 36.

5. The Tabaqat-i-Akbari, Vol. III, pp. 352-55 and 612-14; Ferishta, Vol. IV, pp. 114-15, 268-69.

6. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 308; The Tabaqat-i-Akbari, Vol. III, p. 614

7. U. N. Day, op. cit., p. 309; The Tabaqat-i-Akbari, Vol. III, pp. 614-16. Nizamuddin Ahmad says that only Mahmud was killed by the guards and his seven sons were kept in imprisonment in Champaner.

With her incorporation as a *Subah* of the Mughal Empire, peace was again restored. Although Malwa was occupied by Akbar in 1562 A. D., it is not known whether Kherla was incorporated in the Mughal Empire immediately or at some subsequent date. The latter is, perhaps, the more probable hypothesis, as it was included in the *Subah* of Berar which was constituted about 1596 A. D.¹

During Akbar's rule, Kherla was the headquarters of a *sarkar* or district subordinate to the *Subah* of Ellichpur or Berar. The Kherla *sarkar* included 25 *parganas*, embracing the central and southern parts of Betul District, and some tracts of Chhindwara and Wardha.² The north of the District was mostly covered with forest and was only nominally under the sway of the Mughal officers. To the east of Kherla fort, *Ain-i-Akbari* tells us, resided a *Zamindar* named Chatwa who was in possession of 2,000 cavalry, 50,000 foot and more than 100 elephants.³ This reference is undoubtedly to Jatba who was the first famous Gond king of Deogarh dynasty in Chhindwara.⁴ The revenue of the twelve *parganas* that were mainly situated in Multai, Bhainsdehi and the open parts of Betul tahsil was more than 1,76,00,000 *Dams*.⁵ Forty *Akbari Dams* went to the rupee, so that this would be equivalent to over four and a half lakhs of rupees.⁶

The development of the Deogarh dynasty in the last decade of the 16th century was rapid. There were signs of its territorial expansion, for we read in the account of the Berar *Subah*, of the "twenty-two *parganahs* of the *Sarkar* of Kherla, held by Chatwa (Jatiba) and some few other *Zamindars*", which paid no revenue to Akbar.⁷ But "Kherla fort was, in Akbar's time, on the borderline between Berar and Gondwana, and it remained under direct Mahomedan control throughout the Mogul period."⁸ In 1655 A. D. Prince Aurangzeb compelled the Deogarh Chief to cede certain *parganas* to Kartalab Khan, the *thanedar* of Kherla fort.⁹

On the decline of the Mughal Empire, Bakht Buland, the Raja of Deogarh in Chhindwara, extended his jurisdiction over Betul.¹⁰ After an illustrious career of 38 years, Bakht Buland died in 1706 A. D. He left behind him five sons, Chand Sultan Shah, Mehat Shah *alias* Muhammad Shah and Yusuf Shah by his married wife and two illegitimate sons, Ali¹¹ Shah and Wali Shah,

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 36.

2. *Ain-i-Akbari*, Tr. by H. S. Jarrett, Vol. II, p. 241.

3. Ibid., p. 237.

4. C. U. Wills, op. cit., p. 178.

5. *Ain-i-Akbari*, Vol. II, p. 233; Betul District Gazetteer, p. 36.

6. Ibid., p. 239, f. n. 1.

7. Ibid., p. 240.

8. C. U. Wills, op. cit., p. 179.

9. Ibid., p. 154.

10. E. Chatterton, op. cit., p. 52.

11. C. U. Wills, op. cit., p. 160.

by two Muhammadan mistresses. After the death of Bakht Buland, Chand Sultan ascended the *gaddi* and ruled till 1739 A. D.¹

Two interesting Persian documents dated 1719 A. D. show that Chand Sultan was at that time in high favour with Syed Husain Ali, the then *Subehdar* of the Deccan. One of these documents confers upon Chand Sultan the Berar *Parganah* of Amner in the Kherla *Sarkar* as a *jagir*.²

During the reign of Chand Sultan there were in-roads of Marathas and Muhammadans in his territory. Grand Duff speaks of partial conquests in Gondwana by Kanoji Bhonsle and the Sena Saheb Subah.³ We also learn that during Chand Sultan's reign the *Chauth* was levied by Kanoji Bhonsle and other Maratha Officers.⁴

After the death of Chand Sultan in 1739 A. D. the quarrel broke out between his sons, Mir Bahadur, Akbar Shah and Burhan Shah (legitimate) on one side and Wali Shah (illegitimate) on the other. Wali Shah was successful in the usurpation of the *gaddi* after killing Mir Bahadur. Chand Sultan's widow Rani Ratan Kaur, thereupon invited the Maratha Chieftain Raghuji Bhonsle to come from Berar to the assistance of her son Burhan Shah. Raghuji came readily enough, captured Wali Shah, placed Burhan Shah on the throne and retired to Berar. The Rani Ratana Kaur was grateful for Raghuji's timely assistance. She divided her possessions into three equal parts, and one of them, containing Gondwana, Panni, Marud, Barghat and Multai was given to Raghuji,⁵ and the other two parts to her sons. But two years later, Burhan Shah and his brother Akbar Shah fell out. Raghuji's intervention was once more sought who managed to get Akbar Shah poisoned. This pleased the surviving brother Burhan Shah and he handed over his deceased brother's share of the kingdom to the Sena Saheb Subah in 1742 A. D.⁶ Thus the District passed with the rest of the Deogarh territories to Raghuji Bhonsle. The story of this event is told in some detail in the *bakhars* or family chronicles of the Bhonsle Raja's of Nagpur.⁷

Before we proceed further to trace the political history, we may stop to examine the local condition of the District at this time. During the quarrel between Burhan Shah and his brother which led to Raghuji's intervention, the Gonds rose in rebellion and plundered the country for a year. It is said that the Gonds frequently used to make a dash into the rich country of the Berar

1. Ibid., p. 168.

2. Ibid., p. 169.

3. Grant Duff, History of the Marathas, Vol. I, pp. 378 and 442.

4. Richard Jenkins, op. cit., p. 54.

5. C. U. Wills, op. cit., p. 171.

6. Ibid.

7. Waman Daji Oak, The Bakhars of the Bhonslas of Nagpur, pp. 35-44.

or the Narmada valley, and after looting and killing all night return straight across the country to their jungle fortresses, guided by the light of a bonfire on some commanding peak. Besides the fort of Kherla, they built a number of strongholds on the most inaccessible hills in the jungle. By the turn of the present century most of these crumbled away, but at half a dozen places their ruins were still to be seen.

Nor were they the only plunderers in the District. A Muhammadan Chief by name Sher Shah, said to have been originally a religious fanatic, established himself at Borgaon on the Wardha river and levied tribute from the neighbouring rich country in the Multai Tahsil. His son eventually became such a scourge to the country that the Raja of Nagpur sent an army against him, and after taking his castle deported the inhabitants of the village. The Pindaris under Gafur Khan also passed through the Multai Tahsil more than once and bands of Thugs frequently traversed the District on their way to the rich villages of the Nagpur country and the Nizam's dominions.¹

Raghuji however, suppressed the uprisings. But this time he had not the heart to give back to the weaker Gond a second time the country he held within his grasp. He constituted himself protector, took all real power into his own hands, and making Nagpur his capital, quickly reduced all Deogarh under his own authority. But still, he studiously preserved the show of Burhan Shah's dignity; whilst in reality he reduced him to the condition of a dependent, having a fixed share of the revenue, and the empty title of Raja.² The capital was removed from Kherla to Betul and the fort of Kherla was destroyed, the inhabitants of the neighbourhood being encouraged to remove the cut stones from it to build their own houses.³ Burhan Shah's descendants continued to occupy the position of state pensioners since then, and the representative of the family resided at Nagpur with the title of Raja. The Deogarh family received at first one-fourth of the state revenues but later it was converted into annual cash payment.⁴

From the year 1743 A. D.⁵ the history of Betul coincides with that of Nagpur under the Bhonslas. Raghuji established himself in Nagpur, where he reigned nominally as the representative of the Gond prince from 1743 to 1755 A. D.⁶ The Gond Raja, by concession of a nominal authority used to confer *Tika* on the Bhonslas on their accession and had right of putting his seal to certain revenue papers. By this way, Raghuji had to his hand a pretext

1. Betul Settlement Report, 1901, p. 5.

2. Nagpur District Gazetteer, 1908, p. 33.

3. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 38.

4. Chhindwara District Gazetteer, p. 31; C. U. Wills, op. cit., p. 174.

5. Jenkins gives 1743 A.D. as the date of Raghuji's final establishment in Deogarh, but Grant Duff differs from it and gives 1745 A.D.

6. Nagpur District Gazetteer, p. 33.

for disavowing, if expedient, the right of the Peshwa as his overlord, so far as his authority in Nagpur territory was concerned.

In 1785, the next Raja, Madhoji, obtained the cession of Mandla and the upper valley of the Narmada from the Poona Court in return for a payment of 27 lakhs.¹ During that time the district of Multai roughly corresponded with the Betul District plus a portion of the Hoshangabad district. The District then consisted of 21 *mahals*, viz., Multai, Patan, Astha, Salburdi, Masod, Sainkhera, Panni, Mandwi, Atnair, Satnair, Betul, Dhaul, Amla, Bhawargarh, Zamani, Nandarwara, Jamgarh, Seoni, Babai, Boreheda and Bhainsdehi. It was held by a *Subahdar* of the name of Senbala Hazari from 1776 to 1780 A. D., and the country flourished and yielded a revenue of two lakhs of rupees. It continued as a single administrative unit, but in different hands, till 1792 A.D., when it was divided up among a number of holders.²

Meanwhile, Burhan Shah, the old Gond king of Deogarh was continuing to enjoy a pension of Rs. 3 lakhs from Madhoji Bhonsle. Madhoji died in 1788 leaving his dominions in a perfect state of tranquility and bequeathing a considerable treasure, both in cash and jewels, to his son Raghoji II.³

During Raghoji II's reign the first important event took place in the year 1795 with regard to Betul. In that year hostilities broke out between Nagpur and the Bhopal State. The Maratha *Subahdar* of Bhanwargarh in Betul was one Beni Singh, ancestor of the Bordha family. He marched against Hoshangabad which was held by a Bhopal garrison, and after a siege of two or three months the fort was evacuated by the Bhopal garrison. Beni Singh, leaving a Maratha force to hold it, returned to Bhanwargarh.⁴

About the condition of the District at this time it is said that, previous to the peace of Deogaon in 1803, the District of Betul was in a tolerably flourishing condition, the people were well-off and the revenue could be realized without difficulty from them.⁵

Before 1803, the Maratha administration was on the whole successful. The introduction of direct Maratha rule laid the first foundation of a regular revenue system; it encouraged immigration, it fostered trade as a necessary means of converting raw produce into specie, and it stimulated the economic development of the country. The territory which formed the Central Provinces was in pre-Maratha times a back-water, but remotely connected with trade conditions

1. Central Provinces and Berar Gazetteer, 1908, p. 17.
2. C. U. Wills, British Relations with the Nagpur State in the 18th Century, p. 143.
3. Richard Jenkins, op. cit., p. 61.
4. Hoshangabad District Gazetteer, p. 30.
5. Betul Settlement Report, 1866, p. 81.

and political movements in other parts of India. Bhonslas brought this back-water into the broad stream of Indian economics and history.¹

However, bad days of the Nagpur kingdom, including Betul, had started. In the year 1808, the hostilities between Nagpur and Bhopal State again broke out. At this time Ganpat Rao was stationed with a force at Shahpur in the Betul District. On hearing a report that part of the Hoshangabad fort, occupied by Bhopal garrison, had been washed away in the rains, he made a rapid march against it, and after the rains were over, crossed to the north side of the Narmada and cut off its communications with Bhopal. After a six month's siege the garrison capitulated and were allowed to march with their property.²

But the real trouble to the District came from the Pindaries. All through the period, from 1803 to 1818, the sufferings of the people were aggravated by the ravages of the wandering robber-bands who had obtained a terrible notoriety under the name of the Pindaries.³ A notable incident in the District took place on 22 November 1810, when Kalfa Durrah of the Sindhia Shahee and Holkar Shahee-Pindaries crossed the Narmada at the Buglateer-Ghat and entered Berar. They plundered Teewasgaon, burnt a few houses at Parseoni and passing the Beroli Ghat near Betul, came and encamped at Temlhagaon near Saoligarh. Jairam Pant with Bhadu Gond, Roop Shah Thakur and Chandra Shah Thakur came upon them unaware, retook from them two elephants and 25 horses which they had carried off from Kellode and made one Pindari prisoner; while some of the Pindaries recrossed the Narmada at the Buglateer-Ghat, that night.⁴ On another occasion, on 15 or 16 December, 1810 a body of Pindaries, 6000 strong had appeared at Betul and some had even plundered a place 4 kos from Nagpur.⁵

Apart from the menace of the Pindaries, the inhabitants began to suffer from misrule and oppressive assessment. For want of finance, Raghuji II was inclined to view his subjects as mere money-producing machines. Not only did he rack-rent and screw the farming and cultivating classes but he took advantage of the necessities which his own act had created, to lend money at high rates of interests to his troops. When all the other means of making money failed, he organised regular house-breaking expeditions against the stores of men whom his spies had reported to be wealthy, and who "had declined the honour of becoming his Highness's creditors." Even grass and wood for building and fuel were publicly sold by him.⁶

1. British Relations with the Nagpur State, p. 221.
2. Hoshangabad District Gazetteer, p. 32.
3. Charles Grant, op. cit., 1870, p. xci.
4. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. II, pp. 157-58.
5. Ibid., p. 158.
6. Richard Jenkins, op. cit., p. 83.

The effect of these measures upon the inhabitants of the District, like other parts of the kingdom, were extortive and immense. So we find that the average assessment of 13 years from 1803 to 1816 marked the increase from Rs. 1,66,490 in 1803 to Rs. 2,46,649 in 1816 i.e., no less than Rs. 80,000, besides the effect of the misgovernment and oppression. It may well be imagined that collections often amounted to but a small portion of the nominal revenue, and had frequently to be levied by actual force.¹

Of the deplorable condition to which this territory was reduced, we have a vivid picture from the pen of Charles Grant who later officiated as the Chief Commissioner of Central Provinces. "The taxes levied in different places varied with the idiosyncrasies of the Government or of the individual tax collector; but among them it may be noticed that people were mulcted for having houses to live in or if they had no houses, for their temporary sheds or huts; if they ate again, their food was taxed at every stage in its progress through the country; if they eat meat, they paid duty on it through their butchers. When they married, they paid for beating drums or putting up marquees. If they rejoiced at the set Hindu festivals, they paid again at the *Holi*, for instance, on the red powder which they threw at each other, at the *Pola*, on the ornaments which they tied to the horns of their cattle. Drinkers were mulcted by an excise, and smokers by a tobacco duty. Weavers, oil-pressures, fishermen, and such low caste industrials had as a matter of course to bear a special burden. No houses or slaves or cattle could be sold, no cloth could be stamped, no money could be changed, even prayers for rain could not be offered without paying on each operation its special and peculiar tax. In short a poor man could not shelter himself, or earn his bread, or eat it, or marry, or rejoice, or even ask his gods for better weather, without contributing separately on each individual act to the necessities of the State."²

This state of affairs adversely affected the living conditions of the people. The price of grain rose too high. In the time of Raghuji I the price of jowar was one *khandi* or 400 lbs. per rupee; under Janoji the rate was 200 lbs per rupee; under Mudhoji, it was 150 lbs per rupee; while under Raghuji II it went gradually from 80 to 50 lbs. per rupee.³

Raghuji Bhonsle died on the 22 March 1816 and his son Parsojee succeeded him. But on account of Parsojee's infirmities and incapacity to rule, his cousin Appa Saheb was invested by him with the entire administration of his Government.⁴ Shortly after this a treaty of Subsidiary Alliance was concluded with the British by Appa Saheb secretly at night on 27 April 1868. Appa Saheb had evil designs on the Nagpur throne. On 1 February, 1817 Parsojee

1. Betul Settlement Report, 1866, p. 82.

2. Charles Grant, op. cit., p. ci.

3. British Relations with the Nagpur State, p. 221.

4. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. III, p. 60.

was strangled to death by the secret order of Appa Saheb.¹ The territories of Betul thus passed under the rule of Appa Saheb. Meanwhile Pindaries and other robber bands continued to lay waste the District.²

In 1817, Appa Saheb attempted to throw off the dependence resulting from the Subsidiary Alliance. This endeavour culminated in the Battle of Sitabaldi on 26 and 27 November of that year. The British gained victory and imposed a new treaty. To make the subordination complete and tangible, the Sitabaldi hills were to be fortified by the British and the whole country placed practically under a military occupation. In addition the Raja was required to cede in perpetuity territories equal to the full charge of the subsidiary force. The districts demanded were those to the north of the Narmada, besides Surguja, Jashpur, Sohagpur and Sambalpur to the east, all the valley to the south of the river Narmada and as far as Chhapana, together with Multai, Betul, Gawilgarh and all the remaining possessions of the Raja in Berar.³ These terms were agreed to by Appa Saheb and thus the District passed into the hands of the Britishers. The fort of Saoligarh could not be taken possession of immediately. As the Bhonsla ruler was apprehensive of resistance by the garrison on the pretext of arrears, a little more time was requested by him from the British Residency at Nagpur. The request was acceded to.⁴

In the beginning, Major Mcpherson, commanding at Hoshangabad, was put in charge of Betul District. Later, in April 1818 the Governor-General appointed Charles Arthur Molony to take charge of the District. Consequently, the Resident at Nagpur directed Macpherson to transfer all records, accounts and cash to Molony and to afford all possible assistance to him.⁵

The District was shortly to become the theatre of war. Appa Saheb had not been able to accept meekly conditions so galling and suicidal, and he began to explore the means to retrieve his lost fortunes and rehabilitate his independence. In making such attempt, he was arrested on the 16 March 1818 for confinement in the fort of Allahabad. However, enroute to Allahabad in custody, he escaped from his guards on 12 May 1818 at Raichur,⁶ near Jabalpur and effected his retreat to the Mahadeo hills where he was joined by a large number of Gonds and the Pindaris.⁷ With their assistance Appa Saheb attempted to gain possession of the open part of the Satpura plateau. And some military operations at this time were undertaken in the District.

1. Ibid., p. VI.

2. G. S. Sardesai, A New History of the Marathas, Vol. III, p. 475.

3. History of Freedom Movement in M. P., p. 7.

4. Betul District Office Records, 1818, File No. 2.

5. Ibid., File No. 3.

6. Adventures of Appa Sahib, p. 6.

7. G. S. Sardesai, op. cit., Vol. III, p. 475.

At that time the Resident at Nagpur directed Captain Sparkes, who was commanding the British force in Betul District, to intercept Appa Saheb, should he pass westwards with a view to joining the Peshwa and encouraging the Gonds. The Resident also authorised him to proclaim a reward of Rs. one lakh, which was later enhanced to Rs. two lakhs, for the apprehension of Appa Saheb.¹

In June 1818, a body of Arabs entered the District from Melghat and proceeded to levy contributions. Captain Sparkes, with one hundred-and-seven men of the 10th Bengal Native Infantry marched on the 19 July to check these incursions.² He proceeded against the marauders and on crossing the Tapti near Bheran he was attacked and surrounded by a superior force. Captain Sparkes was attacked by a force of 2000 horse and 1500 Arabs. He fought till the ammunition lasted, when Captain Sparkes, with the whole of his detachment, was killed.³ A party of six sepoy who were left at some distance from the field of action for the protection of the sepoy's baggage, etc. could only manage to reach Betul and deliver the news. After annihilating Sparkes's detachment, the marauders intended to attack Betul, but hearing of the approach of other troops they made direct for the Hills.⁴

On 23 July 1818, Lt. Wardlaw, commanding at Betul, reported to Jenkins, Resident at Nagpur, that 1500 Arabs, Sikhs and Gonds had assembled near village Ruttawrie, 20 miles from Betul. The Arabs had called upon the villagers to supply grains and money and threatened, in case of refusal, to attack them. About 4000 *sowars*, under the command of Jury Put, were also reported to have arrived at Melghat on their way to Ruttawrie. The situation of the villages thus had become deplorable and the headmen of several villages wrote to Lt. Wardlaw for assistance.⁵ Consequently, to assist the troops at Betul, military detachments were sent to the District from Hoshangabad through Shahpur and from Nagpur to Chhindwara and Pandhurna.

Major Mcpherson, who advanced from Hoshangabad with four companies and a squadron,⁶ left at Shahpur a posse of 29 sepoy, which was subsequently attacked and destroyed by a body of 400 Arabs.⁷ On 25 July, 1818 Mcpherson wrote to Lt. Becher from Betul that the men who fought Sparkes, and the greatest part, if not the whole of the first batch that entered the British territory had the hills and joined Appa Saheb's party.⁸ They had occupied a number of

1. Betul District Office Records, 1818, File Nos. 4 and 5.
2. Valentine Blacker, *Memoirs of the Operations of the British Army during the Maratha war of 1817, 1818 and 1819*, p. 383.
3. *Adventures of Appa Sahib, 1818-40*, pp. 52-55.
4. Selection from Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. IV, pp. 106-108.
5. *Ibid.*, pp. 108-10.
6. Valentine Blacker, *op. cit.*, p. 384.
7. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. IV, p. 111.
8. *Ibid.*, p. 113.

thanas. The British felt that a considerable force would be required at Betul with a view to reoccupying those *thanas* as well as to keep in check those parties which had joined Appa Saheb. There were other parties of considerable strength said to be at and on the way from Melghat for the same purpose.

Major Mcpherson's detachments subsequently suffered more reverses. The Shahpur Ghat was strongly stockaded, having a party of 500 Arabs and 1000 Gonds. Besides, there were about 1,000 Arabs on the Betul side of it, between the Ghat and Neempany. On 28 July 1818, Major Mcpherson had a skirmish with the enemy in which he lost 50 men. This action took place near the village of Gickarrie.¹

While having these skirmishes, the Britishers were attempting for the confinement of Appa Saheb in his present circumscribed situation and to prevent any considerable bodies from effecting a junction. They (Britishers) considered Betul as offering every advantage, from its central position, for cutting off any body that might attempt to pass from the south-west, and to face any opposition.²

By 6 August, 1818, "the marauders comprising 1000 Arabs and 3000 Gonds, who were about 13 *kos* from Betul were subsisting on contribution in grain and money taken forcibly from the villages round about Multai and Sainkheda. Considerable numbers of people of the ceded district and the man in charge of Amla with 100 Sebundies also joined the marauders."³ The marauders continued their advances and succeeded in capturing Multai.⁴

On receiving tidings of those occurrences at Mutali, the Britishers had to rush from several directions to retrieve the situation. The parties of Major Mcpherson and Cumming combined and proceeded to Multai. The detachments from Hoshangabad and Wardha and 6th Madras Cavalry was also directed to reach Multai, and to halt at Pandhurna.

As Major Cumming approached Multai he sent on a reconnoitring party of a troop of cavalry, who were on the 18 August encountered near the place by a body of 300 horse and foot, which came out to oppose them. They were soon dispersed with 30 killed.⁵ The Major awaited the arrival of the Pandhurna detachment before launching an attack for reoccupation of Multai. In the meanwhile, on 23 August, 1818 the Arabs and the Gonds of their own accord evacuated the place and fled to the north. They were pursued by the cavalry. One section was overtaken on the Bel river and 171 killed, while another was dispersed with the loss of 50 men twelve miles north of Mutai.⁶

1. Betul District Office Records, 1818, File No. 10.
2. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. IV, p. 118.
3. *Ibid.*, p. 121.
4. *Ibid.*, p. 122.
5. Valentine Blacker, *op. cit.*, p. 387-88.
6. *Ibid.*

Having failed to capture Appa Saheb, the British Commander arrested the Patel, Deshmukh and Deshpande of Multai, who had been known to help Appa Saheb, summarily tried them by court martial and hanged them¹.

A detachment of a squadron of cavalry and two companies of infantry was subsequently sent against Amla, which was also held by 500 marauders. Colonel Blacker describes the position as follow, "This *garhi*, contemptible as a place of strength owing to the dilapidated state of its walls, was, however, situated between two deep *nullahs*. These suddenly beginning to fill, as soon as the detachment crossed, Captain Jones, the commanding officer, was apprehensive of being cut off from his baggage before he had completed the projected service. He, therefore, preferred to recross the *nullah* and encamp out of reach of the fire of the garrison, rather than to attempt an assault by a *coup de main*, and accordingly remained inactive throughout the remainder of the day" During the night, however, the garrison lost confidence, and evacuated Amla before day-break when the place was peacefully occupied by the British troops. Another party of the marauders was surrounded by Major Bawer's detachment at Bordehi and killed about 300 of them.

These events occurred mainly in July and August 1818. Meanwhile, Appa Saheb's adherents had been everywhere defeated and driven out of their position in Narsimhapur and Bandara, and position of that Chief became desperate. A double line of posts, chiefly of irregular force, extended for the purpose of intercepting stragglers from the Wainganga below the Ghats to the Machna above; and the British forces occupied the open country on all sides of the Pachmarhi hills. On 1 February, 1819, Appa Saheb, perceiving that his position was untenable, left Pachmarhi. He passed Bordeni, accompanied by Chhitu Pindari with 500 Arabs and Indian soldiers, and managed to break through the British posts. The party reached Saoligarh and after remaining there for a short time tried to make their way to Asirgarh in Nimar. They were intercepted, however, by a British picket and Appa Saheb made his escape by dashing his horse into a deep ravine. He subsequently escaped towards the Punjab and the disturbances in the region came to an end.

In consequence of the ruinous war, convulsions excited by Appa Saheb and the irregular exactions, much land had fallen out of cultivation and the *patels* and *ryots* were universally involved in debts and embarrassments from which they could not long recover². In such a state of affairs, General Marshall took possession of the territories of Sagar and the districts of Betul, Mandla, Seoni and the Nerbudda valley as its dependencies³.

In 1820, the districts ceded by Appa Saheb and the Peshwa were consolidated under the title of "the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories" and placed

1. History of Freedom Movement in M. P., p. 16.
2. Richard Jenkins, op. cit., p. 96.
3. History of Freedom Movement in M. P., p. 29.

under an Agent to the Governor-General, residing at Jabalpur. The officers incharge of District were at first called Principal Assistants to the Agent and from 1843 were designated as Deputy Commissioner. The Deputy Commissioner originally resided at Betul, but in 1822 removed his residence to Badnur.

For smooth running of the administration, in the year 1834, the Sudder Board of Revenue, North-West Provinces recommended amalgamation of three districts of Betul, Hoshangabad and Narsimhapur into one.¹ Consequently in 1835, all the three districts were incorporated into one district with headquarters at Hoshangabad and assistants at outstations. In 1843 they were again separated into three districts as before.²

The first eruption, caused by the political, economic and social unsettlement, took place among the dispossessed landlords and Chieftains of Saugor Nerbudda Territories which is known as Bundela Rising of 1842. The spirit of revolt spread rapidly and the alarm was so great that the District authorities were instructed to institute an enquiry to ascertain whether any insurgents were located near Tapti. They were also directed to report to the Lt. Governor the progress of events on the Tapti,³ and to augment the police force in Betul District to enable them to face danger, if any.

Thereupon, Bolland, First Junior Assistant at Betul, established *Chaukies* at different *ghats* leading into Berar to prevent entry of any insurgents from that quarter. He also established a line of patrol near the Tapti who reported daily all that passed. He visited the Tapti on 19 April, 1842 and found every thing quiet.⁴ Thus, no incident occurred in the District during the period.

The Great Revolt of 1857

Although there was no direct reason for a revolt at Betul, the masses gradually began to feel the burden of foreign rule, especially as the land revenue demands began to increase five-fold and eight-fold. At a time, a number of cultivators had even to leave the District, especially those of the Atnair *pargana*, who migrated to the Berar District.⁵

Signs of the approaching storm had begun to appear at least six months before it actually burst. Erskine describes how as early as in January small *chapatties* were sent round in a mysterious way from village to village in most of the districts.⁶

1. R. M. Bird, Note on the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, 1834, p. 5.
2. Hoshangabad District Gazetteer, p. 36.
3. Betul District Office Records, 1842, File No. 104.
4. Ibid., File No. 105.
5. Betul Settlement Report, 1866, pp. 86-87.
6. W. C. Erskine, Narrative of Events attending the out-break of Disturbances and the Restoration of Authority in the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories in 1857-58, p. 2.

For some time nothing worth mentioning occurred in Betul District. Captain Maclean, Deputy Commissioner of Betul, reported to Major Erskine, Commissioner of Saugor Division, on 5 July 1857 that Betul District was perfectly quiet and he did not anticipate any disturbance. As a precaution, he stopped all persons who could not give a good account of themselves, passing through the District, and demanded security from them. Because of absolute tranquility, Maclean did not consider it necessary to raise extra-police for the District.¹

But soon the scene changed. With the exception of a few instances, the police in Saugor Division abandoned their posts on hearing of rebels coming near. They joined their ranks² so much so that the Commissioner Erskine had to report to the Secretary to Government, Central Provinces, in his letter dated 30 September 1847 that "none of the residents of the plains of the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories are now to be depended upon."³

Under these circumstances, the Deputy Commissioner of Betul was asked to raise a body of 500 hill men from Gonds and other hill tribes, who would serve anywhere in the disturbed territories. These men were to take the place of the ordinary police. Their pay was to be Rs. 6 for privates, and officers to be paid in proportion.⁴

Rumblings of the Great Revolt in the District became audible when some arms belonging to Sheodeen *Malguzar* were discovered hidden in a village near Betul, upon which, on 5 October 1857 Sheodeen and his brother Ramdeen were arrested and confined on suspicion of conspiracy.⁵ Later, on 21 October, 1857, having been found guilty of rebellion, they were sentenced for seven years' imprisonment.⁶

In addition, property of both the brothers was confiscated. Sheodeen was deprived of Mulkapur and Tekaree villages, about 922 acres of land in Betul and pucca houses in the city of Betul and at Tekaree and Shahpur villages. Ramdeen lost 335 acres of land. Both the brothers also lost 17 kuchcha houses.⁷ The villages confiscated from Sheodeen Patel were given on contract to one Himmatt Singh, whose ancestors had formerly held the village at a distant period.⁸ It may be mentioned here that Sheodeen originally started his career as a British spy in 1817 for the Maratha war, but in the distance of time, due to British atrocities, this faithful British servant rebelled against his masters.

1. Betul District Office Records, 1857, File No. 182.
2. Ibid., File No. 188.
3. Parliamentary Papers Regarding Mutiny of 1857-58, Vol. I, p. 267.
4. Ibid., Betul District Office Records, 1857, File No. 197.
5. Parliamentary Papers Regarding Mutiny, Vol. I, p. 271.
6. Ibid., p. 575.
7. Betul District Office Records, 1858, File No. 215; Miscellaneous Correspondence to and from Deputy Commissioner, Betul.
8. Betul Settlement Report, 1866, p. 54.

The hill force raised by the Deputy Commissioner was found to be very useful.¹ The Deputy Commissioner reported most favourably of their services. He had every confidence in them and he could, through their connections, receive most minute and valuable informations.² Later on, the strength of this force was raised to 800 for service at Jhansi.³

An incident of note, connected with the Great Revolt, occurred in October, 1858. On the 28th of that month, the *kotwar* of village Itawah in Chhindwara District brought to the *thana* of Assair (ten miles from Chhindwara on the Betul frontier in a direct line from Bhopal and Hoshangabad), a flag of red-ochre colour, a coconut, a betelnut and a green betel leaf. It was thought that the flag and its accompaniments, which were being taken from village to village to arouse the people, were put into circulation through an emissary of Nana Saheb Peshwa and Tatyatope to signify their arrival in that direction. The British took immediate measures. The Commissioner of Nagpur alerted the officers of the neighbouring districts to be ready to meet the situation. This incident was considered by the Britishers to be so important that it was reported to the Governor-General.⁴

As had been imagined, Tatyatope, one of the foremost leaders of the Great Revolt, following in the wake of the red-ochre flag, crossed the Narmada with a great force, reported to be 2,500 strong at Sooraila or Sariah Ghat, near Fatehpur (about midway between Hoshangabad and Narsimhapur), towards the end of October, 1858. So sudden and unexpected was this eruption of the rebels across the Narmada that when the first information of it was received by the Deputy Commissioner Narsimhapur from Nagpur on 3 November, the rebels were already in his district and in his close proximity.⁵

The rebel force marched almost straight to south by way of Pachmarhi Hills to Jamai, a police post 26 miles north-west of Chhindwara, where they killed 17 police men. From there, the rebels under Tatyatope reached Multai on 7 November via Bordehi, both in Betul District. Tatyatope perhaps intended to escape from the net that was closing round him in Central India towards the Nagpur country and incite the Marathas to revolt.⁶ Much apprehension was excited by this march and Colonel Malleon considered, that had

1. Parliamentary Papers Regarding Mutiny of 1857-58, Vol. I, p. 575.
2. Ibid., pp. 590-91.
3. Betul Settlement Report, 1901, p. 6.
4. Betul District Office Records, 1858, File No. 231.
5. Memo from the Commissioner of Nagpur to the Secretary of State for India, and the India Council, dated 21 November 1858; Jubbulpore Division Bundle Correspondence, Political Department, Case File No. 5 of 1858; Betul District Office Records, 1857, File Nos. 208, 227 and 228.
6. Jubbulpore Division Bundle Correspondence, Political Department, Case File No. 5 of 1858.

it happened fifteen months earlier the Great Revolt might have extended over the whole of Western India.¹

Tatya Tope halted for a day at Multai below the village with his troops. He took bath in the river Tapti. It is said that he called all the Brahmans at that place and gave them a golden *Asharfi* each which was afterwards confiscated by the Government. His troopers were directed to pay for their provisions and did so. Afterwards another trooper (probably from the Banda Nawab territories) came along and took away the money.² Though heads of Desmukh and Despande families of Multai with a number of villagers joined his army, yet he did not get that anticipated support which he expected from the people in general at Multai and elsewhere. An idea of their attitude may be gained from the fate which overtook Tatya Tope in the District as mentioned above. When he was finally defeated he resolved to struggle back across the Narmada into Madhya Pradesh. He was convinced that once he reached the Maratha region, the people would offer him support. With almost super-human courage and tenacity he eluded his pursuers and did cross the Narmada. When he reached the other bank, he could not find a single village which would give him shelter. Everybody turned against him so that he had to fly again and take resort in the forests.³

Tatya was shut out in Betul District by the Britishers from further progress towards west or south. Multai was completely plundered and all the Government buildings were burnt down. He made a turn north-west wards through Atner and Bhainsdehi into Nimar and reached Khargone on 19 November, 1858. Meanwhile Major General Michael, who had defeated Tatya at Khurai had pushed on in pursuit and had reached Hoshangabad with the cavalry and crossed the Narmada southwards. From there he reached Betul.⁴ But Tatya Tope was already off from the District.

The Commissioner of Nagpur endeavoured to inform the rebels of the amnesty offered by the Queen. A message was despatched on 5 November in search of the rebel camp with copies of the order of the Queen, and Governor-General's proclamation. The messenger was promised a reward of Rs. 5,000 if he could deliver the message and of Rs. 10,000 if he could succeed in its objects. He reached Chhindwara on 7th and followed the rebels as far as Multai but could never come up with them.⁵

The Aftermath of the Great Revolt

Of the results that flowed from the collapse of this popular revolt we may review only those that affected life in this District. The great uprising was put

1. Kaye and Malleon, History of Indian Mutiny, Vol. V, p. 239.
2. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 256.
3. S. N. Sen, Eighteen Fifty-Seven, pp. XV-XVI.
4. Kaye and Malleon, op. cit., Vol. V, p. 241-42.
5. Jubbulpore Division Bundle Correspondence, Political Department, Case File No. 5 of 1858.

down with a savage repression. The vestiges of movement, wherever they were found, were crushed ruthlessly by wreaking vengeance upon the people indiscriminately. A list of persons who helped Tatya Tope, was prepared by the local authorities and they were punished. The Shahpur *taluka* was confiscated for complicity on the part of the *malguzar* in rebellion.¹

Growth of Freedom Movement

In the years that followed the Great Revolt while the people sullenly nursed their resentment, and while the British officers and civilians were striding the land with arrogance India was being gradually transformed. The seething discontent, groping for an outlet, expressed itself first in movements for religious and social reforms. Of these there were several, mainly the proselytising organisations such as Brahmama Samaj and Arya Samaj, which hoped to check the Christian missionary activities by a dynamic Hinduism.

Though the Arya Samaj was formally established in 1902 only, these revivalist movements were opening out to the minds of the people a vision of the greatness of their heritage. A number of social and voluntary organisations sprang up in the District. They included societies, like the Betul Duyan Mul Sabha, Badnur, Duyan Mul Sabha, Multai Vidya Vardhan Shabha and Vachan Samaj, Multai.² All these institutions contributed to a great extent in the resurgence prevailing in the country, and led to the awakening of the people in the District.

The Political articulation of the resurgent India finally launched the Indian National Congress in 1885. Although there is nothing specific to report in the initial years so far as Betul District is concerned, when the political workers of Madhya Pradesh decided to close their ranks and form the "Central Provinces and Berar Provincial Association" in November, 1915, Betul was represented by Shri Bhale Rao, Pleader among the members of its Standing Committee.³ Similarly when the Home Rule League, started by Annie Besant, took up the cause of India's freedom, a branch of the League was established at Betul in 1917.⁴

Meanwhile, the First World War had already started. During the days of War District officers began recruitment of persons for the war services and collections of war loan. The Deputy Commissioner came to Pattan in 1916 for war loan. On refusal of the same by Deo Rao Patel, he was insulted by the Deputy Commissioner in the presence of a number of *malguzars*. This aroused a spirit of self-respect amongst the *malguzars*, all of whom refused to render any help.

1. Betul Settlement Report, 1866, p. 55.
2. C. P. Administration Reports, 1876 to 1883.
3. Prayag Dutt Shukul, *Kranti ka Charan*, p. 130.
4. Ibid., p. 136.

Another important occurrence of that year was the holding of a conference at Pattan under the Presidentship of Baba Saheb Khaparde in order to condemn the Government method of recruitment. The conference attracted about ten thousand persons of the District. The spirit of nationalism once aroused went on swelling unabated. In the session of the All India Congress Committee at Nagpur, Betul District was represented by no less than 50 volunteers. Later, the District Congress Committee was formed in Betul in the year 1920. Ramdin Awasthi was the first President of the Betul District Congress. During 1921 to 1922, Krishna Rao Dharmadhikari worked as President.

In the year 1922, at the instance of Narayan Swami, a renowned religious and national speaker from U. P., Seva Samiti was established in Betul Bazar. About 100 volunteers were at work in the Samiti. These volunteers were working like police constables and investigating theft and other offences. Like policemen they were moving in the city at night and performing vigilance duties. Following the principles of Non-co-operation with the British a national court was set up for Betul Bazar and nearby area. Dinanath Patel was elected *Sarpanch* while Diwakar Rao Patel and Gajanan Patel were *panchas* of the court. This court continued for about one and a half years. So great was the impact of this national court that Government cases were reduced to one-fourth within six months. The Samiti played a very important role in social reforms also. *Khaddar* propaganda, use of Charkha and boycott of foreign cloth were other items of work of the Samiti.

With the help of the Seva-Samiti, the District Congress gained great momentum. In 1922, provincial session of the Congress was held at Bhanora, a village on the bank of the Tapti river, under the presidentship of Kasturba Gandhi. Consequently, a well-organised provincial political conference was arranged in the following year at Betul, with E. Raghvendra Rao in the chair. So far as the provincial politics is concerned, this conference had its own importance. Well known persons like Ravishankar Shukla, Seth Govindas, Jammalal Bajaj, Makhantal Chaturvedi, Pt. Sunderlal and Subhadra Kumari Chauhan attended the conference.

An episode of note occurred here. The Madhya Pradesh Congress Committee was divided into two parties, known as Rao Party and Sunderlal Party. A hot discussion took place on the platform regarding the Congress policy. At last Sunderlal's group captured power and the persons of Rao group were compelled to clear the dais. Pt. Sunderlal was elected President in place of Rao and the procedure of the Conference was continued. Sunderlal announced his programme about the famous Flag Satyagraha which was put into action subsequently. When the centre of this National Flag agitation which originated in Jabalpur, was shifted to Nagpur on 10 May, 1923, a large batch of volunteers was sent from Betul under Seth Jethmal Tated. The batch played a very important role in the *Satyagraha*. The women-folk did not lag behind

in this *Satyagraha*. The wife of Jethmal and Savitri Bai, a school teacher of Betul, led a procession through the streets. The *Satyagraha* was ultimately brought to a successful conclusion.

The Betul District Council played a remarkable role during the 'twenties and the 'thirties in the struggle for freedom. The Council took active interest in the freedom movement from the year 1924, when Bramhadin Sharma was the President of both the District Council and the District Congress Committee. The Government took objection and the grant of Rs. 1000/- was reduced. The Council remained silent till 1930 as there was no active movement. Meanwhile Biharilal Patel was elected as President of the District Congress in 1925 and continued as President till 1936. During his tenure the District Council played unique role in the struggle for freedom, which is unparalleled in the history of Madhya Pradesh. Subsequently, Raipur District Council alone continued with the movement.

On 26 January, 1930, which was named as Independence Day, a big procession was taken out and a meeting was held in Betul. The following two months were spent in necessary crucial preparations. The month of March, 1930 saw an intensification of the Congress campaign. At that juncture the machinery of the District Council was utilized for carrying forward the message of freedom in rural areas. Through a circular the Council exhorted the teachers, serving in the institution managed by it, to take an active part in freedom movement.¹ The British Government was alarmed by this development. F. C. Turner, Commissioner of Nerbudda Division, while issuing a warning on 29 March 1930 to the President of the Council said.

"I have seen some of the circulars and it is obvious from the arrests of school masters in recent criminal cases connected with picketing and assaults that the school masters are following the instructions issued by you. It is improper both on Public grounds and because of the detriment to their proper duties that the agency of school master should be utilised for the propagation of the political views..... I therefore, warn you that this propaganda by the agency of school master must cease and your instructions cancelled and circular withdrawn..... by the 15 April 1930. Failing which, disciplinary action against the Council in the shape of withholding the grant or dissolving of the Council will be considered".

Subsequently, on the refusal to the carrying out the instructions the District Council was dissolved and management taken over by the Government on 12 May, 1930.²

1. Note on the Civil Disobedience Movement in the Central Provinces and Berar, 31st December, 1930, p. 2.

2. Ibid., p. 3.

Meanwhile, in the beginning of April, 1930, the Central Provinces War Council, at the instance of Mahatma Gandhi, passed resolution in favour of starting Salt *Satyagraha*, and the District threw itself whole-heartedly into the fray. There was a further marked increase in Congress propaganda.¹ However, there were no natural facilities for the breach of the Salt Law in the District. The Salt-War was called off in May and its place was taken by spasmodic efforts at picketing of liquor and foreign cloth shops.² The interesting point to note is about the fresh elections to the District Council. The same Chairman and Vice-Chairman were re-elected, and they again refused to alter their attitude. Thus, the District Council was again superseded on 11 November, 1930 for a period of two years.³

From the month of August, 1930, the place of Salt War was taken by the "Forest *Satyagraha*" and this marked a turning point in the political history of the District. Seth Deepchand led a procession of about 5000 Tribal people, mainly consisting of the Gonds and Korkus, armed with axes and lathis, to the government reserved forest at Chikhar on 1 August, 1930. On reaching the spot he along with 100 others offered *Satyagraha*.

Three days later he was sentenced to one year's rigorous imprisonment.⁴ Ganjan Korku was the next to offer the *Satyagraha*. On 22 August, 1930 he addressed a crowd of nearly 500 men and women at Banjardhal. When the Shahpur police attempted to arrest him, a clash took place between the police and the mob resulting in severe injuries to the policemen, one of whom later died. The Superintendent of police Betul rushed with reinforcement, and on the following day another clash occurred between the police and a mob of 800, with Ganjan Korku as their leader. The police resorted to firing in which one person, named Koba Gond died and several others were injured. The police arrested and convicted 23 persons.⁵ Ganjan Korku was, however, able to escape. A reward of Rs. 500 was proclaimed for his arrest. For sometime, all efforts to arrest him proved futile, as he was changing his hideouts. Ultimately, after a month, as he was arrested by the Pachmarhi police and was sentenced to 5 years rigorous imprisonment.⁶

The Forest *Satyagraha* took more serious turn in the month of September, 1930. In view of the unsettled conditions in various areas, punitive armed police consisting of an Inspector, 4 Head Constables, and 50 Constables was foisted on the District on 9 September, at the cost of the inhabitants of the District.⁷

1. Ibid., p. 2.
2. Ibid., p. 3.
3. Ibid., p. 19.
4. A Compilation of Important Political Trials in the C. P. & Berar, p. 2.
5. Betul District, Case File No. 77 of 1930.
6. Ibid., Case File No. 101 of 1930.
7. Note on the Civil Disobedience Movement in the C. P. & Berar, 1930, p. 23.

This force under the Superintendent of Police, Betul marched through the disaffected villages of Chikhar, Baranguari, Jamdehi and Barakhari making a number of arrests. This provoked the people of those villages. On 19 September, therefore, they attacked the police party at Chikhar village with a view to setting the arrested people free. The Police opened fire, killing two persons and injuring about forty. Subsequently, as a sequel to this clash ten persons were arrested and convicted.¹

By the middle of October, 1930 Forest *Satyagraha* started abating but the picketing of liquor shops and foreign cloth shops continued with its old vigour.² With the calling off of the Civil Disobedience Movement after the conclusion of Gandhi-Irwin Pact on 5 March, 1931 the agitation in Betul District also ended.

The martyrdom of Bhagat Singh and the courageous bearing of Jatindra Nath Das, roused the people to an emotional pitch of patriotism and hatred against the Government. A meeting was held in this connection at Betul on 30 May, 1931. S. T. Dharmadhikari, a teacher in Tilak Vidyalaya, Nagpur addressed the meeting. He announced that his goal was revolution and his religion the preaching of hatred against the Government. Consequently, on 27 November, he was sentenced to pay a fine of Rs. 500.³ Similarly, a fiery speech was made by Babu Rao Dhote, a lad of 14 years. He was also prosecuted, but due to his tender age the case was withdrawn.⁴

The second Civil Disobedience Movement began in the District, as in the rest of the country, soon after the re-arrest of Mahatma Gandhi on 4 January 1932, on his return from the Round Table Conference in England. But this time the Government was ready with all necessary punitive measures. The Unlawful Association Ordinance (iv of 1932) was applied to ten districts of Central provinces,⁵ and The Mahakoshal Congress Committee as well as all the district Congress Committees were declared illegal.⁶

Attempts were made to revive Forest *Satyagraha* in Betul in March, 1932 but the movement collapsed with the arrest of the leader. A tour of the Governor was organised in the same month by the local authorities. To make this tour a success, all the Tribal prisoners, with the exception of three leaders who were serving sentences for offences of violence, were released in honour of his visit.⁷ However, things were not to remain quiet. Attempts

1. Ibid., p. 8; and Betul District, Case File No. 93 of 1930.
2. Note on the Civil Disobedience Movement within C. P. and Berar, 1930, p. 9.
3. A Compilation of Important Political Trials in the C. P. & Berar, p. 10.
4. Betul District, Case File No. 74 of 1940.
5. C.P. Gazette Extra-ordinary, Political and Military Department Notification No. 224 C.D., dated 19th January, 1932.
6. Ibid., No. 59, C. D., dated 8 January, 1932.
7. Note on the Civil Disobedience Movement of C. P. & Berar, January 1932 to 17th March 1933, p. 2.

were made by Beharilal, the District Congress President to revive the movement amongst the Tribal people. He was prosecuted for the same.

Side by side, Gandhiji launched a programme for the amelioration of the *Harijans*. In November, 1933, he commenced a countrywide ten months long *Harijan* tour in course of which he visited Betul, Betul-Bazar, Khedi, Baroling and Multai. His tour had a stimulating effect upon the District, wearied out by a bitter struggle.

Multai was the venue of the District Political Conference, under the presidentship of Ravishankar Shukla, on 13 April, 1935. Meanwhile, the District Council was again revived on 11 November, 1932 after its two years suppression. The Congress party again captured the Council in the fresh elections and continued taking active interest in the freedom-fight till the resignation of the Congress Ministry in 1939.

The 52nd Session of the All India Congress Committee took place in March, 1939 under the Presidentship of Subhas Chandra Bose at Tripuri. The Session was marked by abuse and anxious atmosphere due to a sharp division of opinion among the members on fundamental issues. The Bengal Congress wanted to give an ultimatum with a time limit to Britain. But the majority did not endorse it. Tripuri, thus inevitably, led to the breaking away of Subhas Chandra Bose and his followers from the Congress who later formed the Forward Block. A conference of the Forward Block was held at Betul in that year.

The resignation of the Congress ministry in the province was followed by Individual *Satyagraha* in 1940 and Betul once more became active. On 28 April, 1940 Babu Rao Dhote started distribution of some leaflets, captioned 'Inquilab Zindabad' in Hindi at Betul near the motor-stand. He himself was the author of the leaflet and the President of the War Committee and a worker of the Forward Block. The leaflet exhorted the people to rise against the British Government. He further distributed the leaflets in the interior of Bhainsdehi and Multai tahsils. He was arrested on 27 May, 1940 at Tainkheda in Multai Tahsil.

The effect of his message in the leaflet was tremendous: so much so that the Magistrate, Betul had to record in his judgement of the case No. 74 of 1940 that "the illiterate Gonds have been incited and two of them trespassed into the court-room of Tahsildar, Bhainsadehi, and occupied seats in the dais including the chair of the Magistrate himself." The other interesting remark of the Magistrate was that "the passenger train coming to Betul was held up by Sumrat and a few other Gonds, who pulled up the alarm chain. As a result, the train had to be brought to Betul as some risk at the vacuum brake had to be disconnected."

Considering the above facts and circumstance, Babu Rao Dhote was sentenced to three years,¹ imprisonment. The above leaflets were distributed by a number of other Forward Block workers, who were similarly prosecuted and convicted. Thus, by May, 1941 the total number of *Satyagrahis* in the District reached an impressive total of 229.²

From now onwards the country moved irresistibly to a final clash. On 8 August, 1942 the All India Congress Committee launched the 'Quit India' Movement. The Government reacted vigorously by declaring the Congress illegal and arrested its top leaders. Its consequence was wide-spread riot and sabotage throughout the country. The situation in the District became such that at some places even the police could not be relied upon, due to the effect of powerful national speeches.³

The mass movement in the District started with meetings and speeches from 9 August onwards. Soon it gathered momentum and led to the burning of the government records and property and mass processions at various places, including Pattan, Chicholi, Jewarkhed, Deogaon, Amla, Nahia. Ghoradongri was the scene of peoples' vigorous movement and consequent government repression. Forward Block workers, who had some pockets of influence in the rural areas, toured the country side to enlist mass support. On 19 August, 1942 they had an informal meeting at Ghoradongri and decided to burn the local timber depot, to uproot the rails near the tunnels, to cut the telegraph and other wires by the side of railway and burn the railway stations and police *thana* Ranipur.⁴

The decision was implemented and the timber depot of Ghoradongri was burnt as a result of which the police opened fire. On 21 and 22 August, a number of villagers went to the village Sarkawadi and started cutting wires and damaging the railway lines. For these acts of sabotage eleven persons were prosecuted and convicted.⁵ The police also opened fire at Pattan and Nahia killing many persons ruthlessly. The Congress Party was so much indignant at the repressive policy of the government that an Atrocity Enquiry Committee, with Seth Govind Das as Chairman was set-up. The Enquiry Committee later reported that although the Deputy Commissioner was himself at Ghoradongri, orders for firing were given by the Divisional Forest Officer, Betul resulting in the death of one Veer Singh Gond. That was not all. The Divisional Forest Officer kicked the wounded Veer Singh till he succumbed to his injuries. By the end of 1942 the number of persons convicted for participating in the movement reached a total of 155.

1. Betul District, Case File No. 74 of 1940.
2. Ibid., Nos. 33 and 34 of 1940.
3. Ibid., No. 346 of 1940.
4. Ibid., No. 287 of 1942.
5. Ibid., No. 319 of 1942.

From this time onwards, the movement slowly lost its violence. Months passed by; sullen, suppressed people now and then erupted in brief outbursts of anger. So the matter rested till the end of 1944. After the Second World War the British Empire was no longer the invincible leviathan it had formally appeared to be, and this brought about a radical change. In May, 1945 Mahatma Gandhi was released from detention on the ground of ill health. Shortly afterwards the Labour Government came to power in Britain. The new Government decided to hold elections, which were held in the beginning of 1946. The results were overwhelmingly in favour of the Congress.

About this time the trial of the Indian National Army prisoners created another wave of popular demonstration. Still more dangerous was the mutiny in Royal Indian Navy with their slogan as "Down with British Imperialism" in 1945, besides the Police strike of Bihar. These developments in the background, and the world opinion in general made the British Government declare its intention of leaving India by June 1948 and they appointed Lord Mountbatten as Viceroy to carry out the transfer of power. Indian Independence Act was passed on 1 July 1947. The country gained Independence on 15 August, 1947.

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

Lying on the extreme south of the Bhopal Commissioner's Division, Betul has a population of 5,60,412 on a land area of 3,891.2 sq. miles (10,078.1 sq. km.), according to Census 1961. Betul District ranked 29th in descending order of population in the State, while it stood 18th in area-ranking. This District which is the western-most on the Satpura Plateau has three tahsils—Betul in the north, Multai in the south-east, and Bhainsdehi in the south-west. Since 1901 the population of the District has almost doubled. The last decade 1951-61, however, showed an increase of 24.1 per cent.

The Tahsil-wise break-up of population according to Census 1961 is shown in the Table below.

Tahsil	Area in sq. miles (1961)	1951			1961			No. of Villages	No. of Towns
		Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females		
Betul	933.3 (2,417.1 sq. km)	1,57,670	79,541	78,129	1,92,824	97,235	95,589	337	2
Multai	902.1 (2,336.4 sq. km)	1,86,669	93,083	93,586	2,30,547	1,15,112	1,15,435	424	3
Bhainsdehi	891.7 (2,309.4 sq. km)	1,07,316	53,551	53,765	1,37,041	68,708	68,333	402	—
Betul District	2,891.2 (10,078.1 sq. km)	4,51,655	2,26,175	2,25,480	5,60,412	2,81,055	2,79,357	1,163	5

[Note: The District area includes 1,164.1 sq. miles of forest area, the tahsil-wise break-up of which is not available.]

Density

With a population of 5.60 lakhs on a land area of 3891.2 square miles (10,078.1 sq. km.), Betul recorded roughly a density of 144 persons per sq. mile in 1961. Like other Satpura Plateau districts, it is a low-density area in the State. In fact, only seven districts in the State have lower population densities than Betul. Multai which lies on the trap soil, and is relatively more open and densely cultivated is the most densely populated tahsil. Bhainsdehi, which mostly

consists of broken and hilly country is the most sparsely populated. Betul Tahsil, which is comparatively a sparsely inhabited sandstone tract, registered a density of 207 persons per sq. mile. During the last decade (1951-61) on an average, there were 28 persons more on a sq. mile in the District.

Sex-Ratio

Since 1901 there had always been the preponderance of females over males in the District. It is interesting to note that for the first time in 1951, the number of males have exceeded that of females. The District registered 994 females per 1000 males in 1961. It varied slightly among the tahsils. The lowest value (982) was in Betul Tahsil, the highest value (1,005) was found in Multai Tahsil where, as well as in Bhainsdehi Tahsil, almost equality of sexes was attained. The following table presents the variation in the number of females per 1,000 males for general as well as for rural and urban population of the District since 1901.

	No. of Females per 1,000 Males in Census year					
	1961	1951	1941	1931	1921	1911
Total	994	997	1,003	1,020	1,025	1,011
Rural	1,004	1,005	1,005	1,024	1,026	1,011
Urban	887	904	967	926	1,004	1,001

This shows that during the last 60 years there has been a gradual decline in the proportion of sexes in the District, to which the year 1921 is an exception. This is probably due to the return of migrant labour in the decade (1911-21) from the construction project of Itarsi-Nagpur railway line to their homes. In 1951, the number of females per 1000 males stood at 997. Thus there was almost parity of sexes in this decade, which further declined to 994 in 1961.

Generally, in urban areas sex-ratio has been disadvantageous to the fair sex. It tends towards a parity of sexes in rural areas. However, in 1961 Betul rural registered a sex-ratio of 1,004 showing a little female excess, compared to 994 for all areas. The urban sex-ratio was lowest in Multai Tahsil, i.e., 863, while in Betul Tahsil its value was 903. The high female deficiency in urban areas mostly stem from migration of men in search of employment in towns. There is a considerable time-lag before their families join them. The low sex-ratio in Multai Tahsil is mainly to be ascribed to the growth of air staff colony in Amla town, where the sex-ratio is as low as 826.¹

Sex-ratio classified by the age indicates a deficiency of females at the lowest ages, which shows that less females are born than males in the District. In the age-group 0-4, the sex-ratio was 993 and in 5-9 age-group the sex-ratio

1. Betul District Census Hand Book, 1961, p. 1.

was 1,001. Hence, it appears from these figures that male-infant mortality is higher in the District than female.

Growth of Population

The first Census in the District was taken in the year 1866 when its area was 3,600 sq. miles and population 2,44,854 persons. In 1872 the area was recorded to be 4,118 sq. miles, about 518 square miles more than in 1866. The only transfer of territory found on record was that of the country between Amla and Bordehi with an area of 160 square miles, and population of 13,481 persons, from Chhindwara District. The remainder of the increase in area appears to be due to corrections of survey. The population in 1872 was 2,84,055 persons, showing an increase of 10 per cent since 1866, after excluding the gains in population by accession of territory. Between 1872 and 1881, the area was reduced to 3,905 sq. miles in consequence of the transfer of Bardha and Kesla *parganas* of the District to Hoshangabad in 1873. This reduced the area by 213 sq. miles, and population by 10,032 persons. In 1881, the District recorded a population of 3,04,905 persons. On a land area of 3,824 square miles in 1891, the Census enumerated a population of 3,23,196 persons. The growth of District population and its variation during the last 60 years since 1901 is given as under:—

Year	Persons	Net Variation	Percentage decade Variation
1901	2,87,807	—	—
1911	3,90,386	+ 1,02,579	+ 35.64
1921	3,63,737	— 26,649	— 6.83
1931	4,06,252	+ 42,515	+ 11.69
1941	4,38,342	+ 32,090	+ 7.90
1951	4,51,655	+ 13,313	+ 3.04
1961	5,60,412	+ 1,08,757	+ 24.08

* The decade 1901-1911 showed an abnormal growth of population, i.e. 35.64 per cent, which was highest among the four plateau districts of Chhindwara, Mandla, Seoni and Betul as stated by Martin in 1911 Census Report.¹ It was also recorded that in the Plateau Division the average birth-rate was well above the Provincial average. Thus, large natural increase owing to high birth-rate and low death-rate, and considerable migration of labour into the District in connection with the construction of Itarsi—Nagpur railway line were mainly responsible for the spectacular increase in the District population during this decade. The unhealthy years of 1903, 1906, 1907 and 1910 seem to have had little effect on the growth of population, comprising mainly of aboriginals.² The Deputy Commissioner in 1911 estimated the volume of immigrant labourers for

1. Census of India, 1911, C.P. and Berar, Pt. I, p. 38.

2. Ibid.

railway construction work as 25,000 persons. The District was profited by the exploration of coal and other minerals which also attracted the population from the neighbouring parts. Yet another factor responsible for the high growth of population is that a fairly good number of people who had emigrated during the period of famine returned to the District during the decade. The increase in population was most marked, i.e., 49 per cent in the newly constituted Tahsil of Bhainsdehi.

The period following a prosperous decade was one of distress when agricultural and economic conditions were considerably complex. A fall in the population of the District by 6.83 per cent was due to the devastating influenza epidemic, which to quote the official famine report, "struck the Province with lightning suddenness and violence, spreading rapidly and leaving behind it a melancholy wake of decimated villages and destitute orphans."¹ This caused more than 30,000 deaths. Like other districts it was followed by low birth-rate in 1919, and there was a further loss of 6,000 persons. In the wake of this, it is little surprising that vital statistics showed an increase of nearly 5,000 persons, which indicates the probability of considerable loss by migration. The total births recorded during the decade were 1,69,692, while the deaths numbered 1,64,942. At the time of Census of 1921, famine was prevailing, as a consequence of which an unusually large exodus of *Chaittharas* (wheat harvesters) moved out to the Narmada valley.

The population of the District during the decade of 1921-31 increased by 42,515 persons or 11.69 per cent. The decade on the whole was healthy and the number of births was 1,61,192 while the number of deaths was 1,16,273. Commenting upon the growth-rates of the Plateau Sub-Division in which Betul District lies, the Superintendent of Census Operation in 1951 remarked, that the trend of growth-rates of these districts (of Plateau Sub-Division) is similar to Nimar where there is a large increase in the decade following the influenza epidemic, and a levelling off tendency in the subsequent two decades. Commenting upon the post-influenza growth of population in Betul, the Census 1961 remarks: "It may be observed that pattern of growth is remarkably similar in case of Betul and Seoni districts." Where as the aforesaid remarks of Census 1951 "partly explain the peculiar behaviour of the growth-pattern in the District, the existence of some other contributory factors like low birth-rates, higher mortality and emigration is also indicated by the low levels of rate of increase."²

As said earlier, the following two decades of 1931-41 and 1941-51 witnessed the levelling off tendencies. As such, the percentage rate of increase of population during these two decades gradually went down from 7.9 in 1931-41 to only 3.04 in 1941-51. The margin of births also narrowed during the latter decade, and registered 1,67,869 births and 1,38,051 deaths.

1. Ibid., 1921, Pt. I, p.5 (quoted).

2. Betul District Census Hand Book, 1961, p. XLIX.

The following decade of 1951-61 witnessed an increase of unprecedentedly high character since 1911. The population was recorded as 5,60,412, about 24.8 per cent higher than a decade ago, an increase parallel to that of the State as a whole. While the entirely rural Tahsil of Bhainsdehi increased by far the most, i.e., 27.7 per cent, Multai and Betul trailed closely with 23.5 per cent and 22.3 per cent increase in their respective population over the last decade (1951-61).

While analysing the causes of an abnormal growth during the decade just gone by, the Census of 1961 recorded that from the sample age-data a minimum birth rate of 33 was arrived at during the year 1951. The corresponding rate in 1961 in Betul was recorded to be 39. This explains the improvement in fertility levels in 1961.

Considering the period of 60 years since 1901, it may be observed that the District has grown a little faster than the other parts of the State as a whole. During this period the population of Betul increased by about 94.7 per cent.

Migration

The old Gazetteer records that, "No considerable immigration takes place into the District, nearly 95 per cent of the population having been returned as born within its limits in 1901. The majority of those born elsewhere came from Hoshangabad, Chhindwara, and Berar." Emigration of an equal value with these districts was also recorded. Berar returned about 20,000 persons of Betul origin. It was also noted that "a large temporary exodus takes place from the south of the District to Berar for harvesting the *juar* crop, and from the north labourers go to the Nerbudda Valley to cut the wheat."¹

During the following decade of 1901-11 about 29 thousand persons immigrated from other parts. Amongst the immigrants, about 13 thousand came from the contiguous districts in the then Province, while five thousand came from other parts thereof. Others parts of the country contributed about eleven thousand persons. The number of males amongst the immigrants, in general, was comparatively more but it was exceptionally high in case of immigrants coming from non-contiguous parts of other Provinces which reflects temporary migration tendency. While considering the migration between this District and the contiguous districts—Hoshangabad and Chhindwara, whose contribution during the decade was 6,179 and 2,973 persons, respectively, are worth mentioning.

Emigration during the decade was limited to the then Province. From the District, during the decade, about twenty-five thousand persons emigrated to contiguous and non-contiguous districts in the Province. Of these, the districts of Chhindwara and Amravati (now in Maharashtra), which attracted 6,803 and 11,324 persons, respectively, are worth mentioning.

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 47.

During the decade of 1911-21, about sixteen thousand persons migrated into the District from various parts of the country. On the whole the migration in general was of casual nature, and mainly owing to the Nagpur-Itarsi railway line. Total number of immigrants from the contiguous districts was about eleven thousand in which the contribution of the districts like Hoshangabad, Chhindwara and Amravati was 4,549, 2,987 and 2601, respectively.

As for emigration, contiguous districts in the Province attracted about 23 thousand persons while other parts of the Province drew about three thousand persons from the District. Chhindwara and Amravati districts alone drew 14,490 persons, while Hoshangabad attracted 6,605 persons. Emigration towards Berar side, particularly to Amravati District was comparatively less, mainly due to the closure of seasonal cotton-ginning factories at the time of Census.

During the following decade of 1921-31, the pattern of migration almost remained unchanged. Except for contiguous areas of the Province, the entire migration was from the districts within the Province itself. Amongst the immigrants from other Provinces, fairly a good number, i.e., about 1,400 persons came from the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh alone and the rest from Central India Agency. Because of lack of details in 1941 Census about the migration, we come to 1951 Census when 18,529 persons, born elsewhere, were recorded as immigrants. Amongst the immigrants, 1,465, 4,127 and 3,882 persons came from the contiguous Districts of Nagpur, Chhindwara and Amravati, respectively.

Immigrants from Chhindwara settled more in Multai Tahsil, while those from Hoshangabad and Amravati in Betul, and Bhainsdehi Tahsil, respectively. About two thousand immigrants came from outside the Province of Madhya Pradesh. Thus the total contribution of the districts of the then Province works out to 14,437 in which the share of the districts of Plateau Division was 7,497. Amongst the immigrants from the districts of the Plateau Division, the number of females is higher.

The magnitude of migration obtaining according to 1961 Census is given as under:—

Where born	Total		
	Persons	Males	Females
(a) Born in other districts of State	17,789	7,419	10,370
(i) Born in districts contiguous to Betul	12,256	4,466	7,490
Chhindwara	5,877	1,822	4,055
Hoshangabad	5,370	2,394	2,976
East Nimar	1,009	550	459
(ii) Non-contiguous districts of State	5,533	2,653	2,880

1	2	3	4
(b) State in India beyond Madhya Pradesh	18,122	8,601	9,521
(c) Born in countries in Asia beyond India (including USSR)	729	416	313
(d) Countries in Europe (Excluding USSR)	5	1	4
(e) Countries in Africa	5	—	5
(f) Countries in America	1	—	1
(g) Unclassified	50	23	27

Rural and Urban Population

Of the three Tahsils in the District, Bhainsdehi, a south-western Tahsil of Betul, is entirely rural. Betul and Multai have two towns each. Roughly one in every 12 persons lived in urban area. The State proportion is, however, one in every seven, which shows that Betul is comparatively less urbanized. According to Census 1961 there were 1,276 inhabited and 87 uninhabited villages, and four towns, viz., Betul, Betul-Bazar, Multai and Amla. The township of Amla comprising mainly railways and air staff colony was classed as a town only in the Census 1961. Betul contains 1.8 per cent of the State's total inhabited villages, and an equal proportion of its rural population. The following table gives the proportion of villages of various sizes and their population in 1951 and 1961.

Size of Villages (Population)	Percentage each class to total	No. of villages in total No. of villages	Percentage of population in each class to total population	
	1961	1951	1961	1951
Less than 500	75.24	81.53	43.30	51.40
500-999	18.26	14.46	31.32	29.89
1,000-1,999	5.64	3.46	19.08	13.53
2,000-2,999	0.78	0.55	5.18	5.18
5,000-9,999	0.08	—	1.12	—
10,000 and above	—	—	—	—

Betul is predominantly a District of small villages. Roughly three-fourths of its villages have a population less than 500 each. These account for about 43.30 per cent of the District population. The medium-sized villages (500 to 999 persons) which constitute 18.26 per cent of the total number of villages accounted for about 31.32 per cent of the population. The rest of 6.50 per cent villages of big-size (more than 1000 population) accounted for the rest of 25.38 per cent of the District population. A salient feature of the District is that Multai Tahsil has greater frequency of bigger and medium-sized villages, while Betul and Bhainsdehi Tahsils contain greater proportion of small villages.

With only 8.40 per cent of the urban component in the District population in 1961, Betul during the last 60 years since 1901, registered 356.93 per cent increase in its urban population. The variation in urban and rural population since 1901 may be seen in the Table as under:—

Year	Population			Rural	Percentage Variation	Percentage of population to total population
	Total	Urban	Percentage Variation			
1901	287,807	10,305	..	277,502	..	3.58
1911	390,386	12,927	+ 25.44	377,459	+ 36.02	3.42
1921	363,737	12,727	— 1.55	351,010	— 7.01	3.63
1931	406,252	14,992	+ 17.80	391,260	+ 11.47	3.83
1941	438,342	22,421	+ 49.55	415,921	+ 6.30	5.39
1951	451,655	33,754	+ 50.55	417,901	+ 0.48	8.08
1961	560,412	47,087	+ 39.50	513,325	+ 22.83	8.40

From 1901 to 1941, the District had only two towns, viz., Betul and Betul-Bazar, when Multai was also classed as a town in the Census 1941. In Census 1961 there emerged the fourth town, i.e., Amla. The population of these towns since 1901 or from when they were classed as towns is shown in the following Table alongwith variation thereof.

Year	Betul		Multai		Betul-Bazar		Amla	
	Population	Percentage Variation	Population	Percentage Variation	Population	Percentage Variation	Population	Percentage Variation
1901	5,566	..	..	..	4,739	..	..	..
1911	7,454	+ 33.92	..	..	5,473	+ 15.49	..	..
1921	6,954	— 6.71	..	..	5,773	+ 5.48	..	..
1931	9,614	+ 38.25	..	..	5,378	— 6.84	..	..
1941	11,841	+ 23.16	5,196	..	5,384	+ 0.11	..	..
1951	15,563	+ 31.43	11,767	+126.46	6,424	+ 19.32	..	..
1961	19,860	+ 27.61	8,232	—30.04	6,736	+ 4.05	12,259	..

From the foregoing table, it may be seen that there was sudden spurt in the population of Multai and Betul in 1941-51 decade. Betul is the District headquarters, and was known as Badnur formerly. Betul-Bazar and Betul have had a continued existencesince 1901. The former, however, had almost static growth between 1911 to 1941. It may be noticed that Multai town suffered a loss in population since 1951 which comes to about 30.40 per cent of 1951 population. In Census 1961, it has been recorded that the 1951 population figures of Multai were inflated because of the incorporation of certain villages that do not belong to it.¹ The railway and air-staff colony of Amla was also elevated as town in Census 1961 with a population of 12,259 persons.

1. Betul District Census Hand Book, 1961, p. XLIII.

Lack of commercial and industrial growth of the District, has perhaps been largely responsible for the comparative less urbanization of the District. The agriculture and forest-oriented economy of the District offord less attraction and allurements for immigration. However, the urban population still contains 34.47 per cent of the immigrant population in the District in 1961. The following Table shows the rural-urban break-up of immigrant population in 1961:—

Born in	Enumerated in Betul District	
	Rural Area	Urban Area
Born in other districts of State	12,985	4,804
States in India beyond Madhya Pradesh	10,957	7,165
Born in other Countries	108	682
Total Immigrants in the District	24,050	12,651

Displaced Persons

Consequent upon the Partition of the Country in 1947, a small section of the lengthy caravan of completely uprooted and totally shattered humanity, which was forced to leave Pakistan, was also received in Betul as in other parts of the Country. The number of these persons was 605 as recorded in 1951 Census. Majority of them came from the districts of Gujarat, Rawalpindi, Thang, and Larkhana of West-Pakistan. Out of these 605 persons, 368 displaced persons settled in Betul and 129 in Multai town. Rest of the persons settled in the rural areas of the District. It is interesting to note that the refugees settling in rural and urban areas engaged themselves in occupations of 'production other than cultivation.' Only 182 refugees, however, were classified as engaged in 'other services and miscellaneous sources' by the Census 1951.

Considerable displaced population emigrated from East-Pakistan after January 1964, for whom the Government drafted the Rehabilitation Scheme under Shahpur Project in Betul District. This envisages settlement of 2,750 families, who migrated from East-Pakistan after the 1st January, 1964. In all 32 villages will be set up in the Rehabilitation Zone, and each village will have adequate facilities of wells and Nistar tanks.

Each family will be provided with five acres of cultivable land. Ten to twenty such families will form a group, and cultivation will be taken up group-wise. A village will comprise about 500 to 600 acres of land. In addition to five acres of cultivable land, each family will get 1/3rd to 1/2 acres of homestead land for vegetable growing and plantation of fruit trees.

In 1966, there were 1,555 families or 6,959 persons. Of these 1,555 families, 1,101 are agriculturists and the remaining 454 families are non-agriculturists. Their categorisation is as under:—

i. S.T. (small traders) families	301
ii. Fishermen families	63
iii. Weavers	7
iv. Unskilled labourers	38
v. Single member families	11
vi. P.L. (Permanent Liability Families, i.e., old, infirm, etc.) families	34
Total	454

LANGUAGE

The principal mother-tongues of the people of the District are Hindi, Marathi, Gondi and Korku. According to the Census of 1951, Hindi claims about 47 per cent of the population or 1,92,908 persons. Close to Hindi comes Marathi amongst the non-tribal languages as the mother-tongue of 19.5 per cent of the total population. Amongst the tribal languages, Gondi and Korku are the mother-tongues of 26.9 and 9.2 per cent of the population, respectively. Concentration of the people with Marathi as mother-tongue is more in the southern border areas which are adjacent to Berar of Maharashtra, a part of Multai Tahsil, and Athnair and Bhainsdehi R.I. Circles of Bhainsdehi Tahsil. Korku predominates in Bhimpur and Bhainsdehi R.I. Circles of Bhainsdehi Tahsil, particularly on the border areas, although some scattered Korku villages are found in Betul Tahsil also. Gondi villages predominate in Betul Tahsil and Jhallar, and northern part of Athnair R.I. Circle of Bhainsdehi Tahsil, and also scattered in other parts of Bhainsdehi and Multai tahsils. The rest of the area has the preponderance of people with Hindi as their mother-tongue.

The position has not changed in 1961, when 97 per cent of the population in Betul returned only four speeches as their mother-tongues, namely, Hindi, Gondi, Marathi and Korku. Urdu with 0.7 per cent, Katia and Golari with 0.5 per cent each and Banjari with 0.2 per cent were other mother-tongues significant in Betul. These eight speeches accounted for about 99 per cent of the District population. The remaining one per cent of population speak as many as 37 languages.

The linguistic pattern of the District clearly bears the stamp of its being a border district. The following Table shows the important mother-tongues of the District according to Census 1961, accounting for 97 per cent of District population.

Mother-Tongues	Population			Percentage to total speakers
	Total	Rural	Urban	
Hindi	2,32,510	2,02,345	30,165	41.5
Gondi	1,45,734	1,44,658	1,076	26.0
Marathi	1,23,041	1,12,093	10,948	22.0
Korku	43,125	43,091	34	7.7

In Bhainsdehi Tahsil (rural), Hindi constitutes the mother-tongue of 31.4 per cent, and Gondi and Korku 25.3 per cent and 20.4 per cent, respectively. Marathi is spoken by about 18.5 per cent persons. In Multai Tahsil (rural), Hindi (47.0 per cent), Marathi (35.5 per cent) and Gondi (15.2 per cent) were prominent speeches. Similarly, Gondi (46.9 per cent), Hindi (36.4 per cent) and Korku (7.8 per cent) are important speeches in Betul Tahsil.

It may be interesting to record here that Malvi, which was recorded to be the mother-tongue of about 40 per cent of the District population in 1901 in the old Gazetteer of Betul has almost disappeared in 1961 Census. Only two speakers of the same were recorded. Obviously, this is connected with the emergence of Hindi as the mother-tongue of about the same proportion of population. However, Gondi and Korku have thus far successfully withstood the onslaught of the mother-tongues of more acculturated section of the population. Gondi and Korku have gone down since 1901 by two and one per cent, respectively, in 1961.¹

The above is just the distribution of population based merely on the mother-tongues. But if the factor of bilingualism is taken into consideration, Hindi is spoken by an overwhelming majority of the population. To be more precise, Hindi is spoken by 59 per cent of people whose mother-tongue is Gondi, and 42 per cent of those having Marathi as mother-tongue according to 1951 Census. Thus, Hindi could be said to be the *lingua franca* of the District. Out of the total population having Hindi as mother-tongue, 7.6 per cent spoke Marathi 9 per cent Gondi, and 7 per cent Korki as a subsidiary language.

RELIGION AND CASTE

The population of the District is predominantly Hindu. The percentage of followers of this faith works out to 96.7 per cent of the total population. Amongst the rest of the population there is majority of followers of Islam who constitute 1.6 per cent of the total population. Followers of Jainism and Christianity accounted for 0.3 per cent each. In 1961 Census tribals, who profess Hindu religion, were included under the fold of Hinduism. They numbered 1,79,739 in 1961. Of the total Scheduled Castes (52,799), only 10 persons returned under Sikh religion in Census 1961. The Census 1951, however, enumerated 1,37,456 persons as belonging to Scheduled Tribes, professing Hindu religion. However, the Census 1931 and 1941 had classified them, separately, as 1,21,883 and 1,68,299 persons, respectively.

The religious composition of the District population is given in the

1. Ibid., p. LVIII.

following Table for Census 1961 and 1951.

Year	Total Rural Urban	Number and Proportion of those who are					
		Hindu	Sikh	Jain	Muslim	Christian	Buddhist
1951	T	4,41,888	456	1,370	6,845	1,068	Nil
		(97.8)	(0.1)	(0.3)	(1.5)	(0.2)	—
	R	4,12,756	188	769	3,620	565	Nil
	U	29,132	268	601	3,225	503	Nil
1961	T	5,41,965	551	1,858	8,953	1,439	5,644
		(96.7)	(0.1)	(0.3)	(1.6)	(0.3)	(1.0)
	R	5,01,817	238	876	4,441	616	5,337
	U	40,148	313	982	4,512	823	307

[Note: Figures in brackets are percentages.]

A clear line of demarcation between the Hindu religion and tribal faith of the animism is difficult to be drawn. This is particularly so in an area where the process of acculturation between the animists and the Hindus had set in long back. Both these faiths have come so close that their original colour is completely lost. This is so, particularly in rural areas where the people, both tribal and non-tribal, would offer even now some sacrifice or perform some religious worship to avert any calamity without knowing whom they worship. This state is not the result of the contact of the recent times, but it is the outcome of more than a century. Shoobert in the Census Report 1931 says: the results of the contact of Hinduism with the animistic beliefs of the aboriginal tribes were in fact very apparent even in the time of Forsyth, who has dealt it at some length on the subject.¹ The *Highlands of Central India*, a book written between 1866 and 1870 remarked that the religion of Hindu villagers has been greatly influenced by the age-long beliefs of the primitive tribes.

Thus, the pantheon of both urban and rural people has a mixed combination of gods from both Animism and the Hinduism, and are propitiated without distinction. The laxity in the faiths has also given liberty to people to give various names to particular gods to be worshipped on various occasions. The Mata is also termed as Mata-Mai, Devi, Bhavani Mai, Mari-Hai, Mata-Devi and Chandi. The Bhavani-Mai is worshipped in Navratri, twice every year; Mata-Mai is offered special veneration at the time of a smallpox epidemic; similarly, Mari Mai is also offered sacrifices at the time of cholera epidemic. Devi, according to Hindu religion, is the embodiment of power or Shakti, who as a result of acculturation has assumed various names and forms suitable to various occasions. Every village has the platform or the *Otta* of Mata. Similarly, the Bara Deo of Gonds is equated with Maha Deo. All clans amongst Gonds possess their individual shrine of Bara Deo. Bhainsasur, the God of Field, is represented by a heap of stones placed in the field. Maha Deo is especially venerated by Korkus.

1. Census of India, 1931, C. P. and Berar, Pt. I, p. 324.

Bhimsen or Bhima is another god of Gonds who is propitiated at the time of difficulties. The Dongar Deo, the God of Hills has probably, recently acquired a synonym as Rateda Deo, another god of Gonds, and for the temples of whom on the hill, *Rateda* funds are being collected by the people of vicinity. Narayan Deo is another God of Gonds. The God Holera like Mari-Mata is also worshipped on Diwali day. Diyat Baba or Dait and Sati or Sati Devi are the dissatisfied human beings whose spirits are also propitiated for getting various desires fulfilled. Mutua Deo is the typical god of Gond and Korku villages, receiving veneration, and often sacrifices, and is lodged in the centre of the village just by erection of a pole and a few stones placed beneath. Many of the villages also possess Gudi to celebrate the 10th day ceremony of the dead. At this place on other occasions also, *puja* is offered in the name of the ancestors. With these gods, Gods like Bajrang or Bajrangi or Mahavir or Hanuman (whose temple is the largest banyan or *pipal* tree). Rama, Krishna, Maha Deo, Vishnu, etc., are also worshipped on appropriate occasions. Apart from these, every household has its Lares and Penates consulted on affairs peculiarly concerning the family. The residents of the urban areas hold more to the pre-recognised members of the Hindu Pantheon.

Islam appears to have entered this District with Firoz Shah, who during the last decade of the 14th Century attached Kherla, the head quarters of Gond-Rajput dynasty near Betul, and received the daughter of Narsingh Rao in marriage. Later by 1596, Kherla is shown as included in the newly constituted Mughal Subah of Berar; Kherla itself was the headquarters of *Sarkar* or district. In 1961, Muslim population was 8,953.

The advent of Christianity coincided with that of British Rule. Betul formally became a part of British Dominions in 1826 under a treaty. In 1961 the Christians numbered 1,439. Their holy book is the *Bible*. The Mission of the Evangelical Lutheran Church, Sweden, was perhaps the first to establish four stations, viz., at Badnur (Betul), Nimpani, Bordehi and Kondhar.¹ A station of the Central India Hill Mission belonging to the Church of England was also opened at Bhainsdehi in 1891. Betul was under the Anglican diocese of Nagpur.

The old Gazetteer refers to the insignificant population of Jains in Betul, who principally were Saitwal Banias. In 1961 they numbered 1,350. Muktagiri, which is famous for its fair in the month of Kartika is an important Jain place of pilgrimage in Bhainsdehi Tahsil. There is a group of about 52 Jain temples at the end of the deep ravine where a nullah enhances the beauty of the place by forming a pretty high water fall.

Buddhism seems to enjoy an important position in the District. Persons professing faith in Buddhism were enumerated in Census 1961 as 5,644, the third

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 62.

according to the numerical ranking. Buddhism is founded on what is called the four sublime varieties of the faith. The first is "pain predominate life; the second that desire is the cause of pain; the third that pain can be ended in *Nirwan*, annihilation of individuality; and the fourth is the path that leads to *Nirwan*. The eight-fold path of Buddhism that leads to *Nirwan* is a code of morality." These are right understanding, right mindedness, right speech, right action, right living, right effort, right attentiveness and right concentration.

Castes and Tribes

District population, as stated earlier is composed predominantly of Hindus who comprise Gonds and Korkus, etc., and the immigrants from Malwa through Hoshangabad in the north and from Berar in the south. The northern settlers had probably migrated with Hoshangshah Ghorī of Malwa in the 15th Century while the immigrants from south migrated with the rise of the Bhonslas in the 17th Century. Immigrants from north mainly comprise Bhoyars, Kurmis, Mehras, Rajputs while those from south are mainly Kunbis, and Gwalis. Korkus and Gonds are the tribes of Satpura range.

The Hindu population mainly comprises Gonds, Korkus, Kurmis, Kunbis, Bhoyars, Mehras, Chamars, Baniyas and Rajputs. Apart from these there are various other castes also, but from the point of numerical importance, they are insignificant. Important castes and tribes have been discussed separately in the following pages.

Mehra or Mahar

Mehras, the most numerous Scheduled Caste of the District accounting for 71.4 per cent of the District's Scheduled Castes population numbered 37,706 in 1961. The old Gazetteer of Betul describes them as mostly immigrants from Maratha country which possibly explains their concentration in Multai Tahsil to the extent of 59 per cent of their rural population. Betul and Bhainsdehi Tahsils contain 22.8 and 18.2 per cent of the rural population of the caste, respectively.

Mehra is a caste from the lower strata of Hindu caste-hierarchy, but they are not considered untouchables and are usually employed as Kotwar or the Village Watchman. To work as tenants and also to cultivate their little land, whatever, are the means of livelihood to them. A few of them take to weaving as a secondary occupation.

There are six sub-castes known as Noneharia, Daharia, Somasi, Laduad, Baonia and Katia. The Mehras have a large number of exogamous groups, the names of which are usually derived from the names of plants, animals, and natural objects. Some of them are Ubnere, Bammarkar, Malwe, Chourasia, Kanware, Barware, Mirapure, Nangle, Gulbake Balanjpure, Khatarkar, Oikar,

1. P. Thomas, Hindu Religion, Customs and Manners, p. 45.

Choukikar, Khadipure, Patele, Atnere, Surajbansi, Yeturkar, Rajwekar, Lokhande, Guthare.

The customs and manners of this caste are almost the same as are prevalent amongst other castes, particularly Bhoyars and Kunbis. Marriage amongst them is generally performed between the ages 12 to 14 years for girls and 16 to 18 years for boys. Some of the families now perform the marriage within an hour or so by simple exchange of garlands by the bride and bridegroom and the ceremony is concluded by a feast arranged for those assembled on the occasion.

Chamar and Synonymous Castes

The second most numerous Scheduled Caste in the District is that of Chamars who are concentrated to the extent of 89.2 per cent of its population (5,171) in rural areas of the District. Of the rural population of Chamars, about 56.7 per cent live in Multai, 24.0 per cent in Betul and 19.3 per cent in Bhainsdehi tahsils. Unlike other castes, economy of Chamars is dominated by their traditional leather goods industry. Only 626 Chamars were enumerated in urban areas. The Chamar population also includes Chamari, Mochi, Nona, Rohidas, Ramnami, Satnami, Surjyabanshi or Surjyarnami.

Bhoyars

The population of Bhoyars as enumerated at various censuses is as under:—

1901	18,109
1911	22,792
1921	22,014
1931	26,051

Since caste-wise classification was abandoned since 1941, figures of the caste, thenceforth, are not available.

Bhoyar caste, besides its numerical importance, is also a typical caste of the State, concentrated in this area. This is a cultivating caste like Kurmi and Kunbi. It is little surprising that in Census 1961, this caste has not been enumerated. The possibility of their having returned under Rajputs, can be considered a probable reason, in the light of the move about two decades back when they started calling themselves as Ponwar, the name of a sub-caste amongst them. The change seems to be a natural desire for social ascendancy, emerging out of the spread of literacy among them. A conference of the caste was held on 9th February, 1963 at the village Seoni in Saunsar Tahsil of Chhindwara District. The Presidential address throws light on their descent and claimed Kshatriya origin. The word Ponwar is said to have been derived from the word Parmar, and the *gotras* of Ponwars are claimed to be exactly like those of Kshatriyas. The earlier Gazetteer of Betul recorded that Ponwars "are the descendants of Ponwar-Rajputs" who fled at the time of the invasion of Aurangzeb on Dhara-Nagari or Ujjain. As they were seen running in the morning, or *bhor*, they were

called Bhoyars.¹ "But there is little doubt that their ancestors did come from Rajputana, probably in the 15th Century with Hoshangshah."² Their *Bhats* or genealogists even today maintain the various family trees, and visit their clients, regularly, once in three-four years' time. Bhoyars, as they say, used to wear sacred thread but now they simply tie a cord on their waist.

Of the two main divisions of the caste, viz., Ponwar and Dholewar, the latter are said to have come from Dhola in Malwa. Apart from these, there are two more sub-divisions of the caste, viz., Chaurasia and Daharia.

Widows among Bhoyars are allowed to remarry by the ceremony of *path lagana*. A Brahmin or *Joshi* is not needed in a widow's marriage. Amongst Bhoyars the system of levirate is not prevalent. The funeral rites amongst Bhoyars are as prevalent amongst other Hindu castes.

Kunbi

The population of Kunbis in the District as enumerated at various censuses is given below:—

1901	31,404
1911	45,192
1921	35,356
1931	58,021

Russell while tracing the origin of Kunbis observes: "In Sanskrit inscriptions it is given as *Kutumbika* (householder), and hence it has been derived from *Kutumba* a family. A chronicle of the eleventh Century quoted by Forbes speaks of the *Kutumbiks* or cultivators of the *grams* or small villages. Another writer describing the early Rajput dynasties says: "the villagers were *Koutombiks* (householder) or husbandmen (*Karshuks*); the village headmen were *Puakeels* (patels). Another suggested derivation is from the Dravidian root *kul*, a husbandman or labourer; while that favoured by the caste and their neighbours is from *kun*, a root or *kan*, grain, and *bi* seed; but this is too ingenious to be probable."³

Kunbis like Bhoyars are cultivating caste. Most of the sub-groups have Marathi as their mother-tongue while Dholewars speak Hindi. Most of their customs and manners are almost like those of Bhoyars and a few other castes of the District. They do not have the custom of sending the women in pregnancy to her parents for any rite, but like Bhoyars, the delivery is usually conducted at father-in-law's place. Similarly, the dress-pattern is also the same except for women. The women amongst Kunbis wear the *lagra* and *choli* on the pattern prevalent amongst the people of Berar. The only typical thing

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 69.

2. Ibid.

3. R.V. Russell and Hiralal The Tribes and Castes of the Central Provinces of India, Vol. IV, p. 17.

among Kunbis, regarding their attire, is that the traditional custom of wearing glass-bangles in the left hand, and rest of the metal ornaments in the right hand is still prevalent, mostly amongst elderly women. The marriage customs are also alike. The marriage-shed amongst Kunbis is prepared of eleven poles, with two small poles inside.

The practice of widow-marriage, *path lagana* is prevalent amongst Kunbis also. The demand for the widow comes from the person who intends to marry a widow, and her consent is absolutely necessary. She is given complete liberty to know the condition and the status of the person who offers himself. The bride price for the widow is not paid. In case the widow has children, they are left either with her deceased husband's family or with her parents. The babe-in-arms are carried by her to the new husband, and would stay with him so long as they are not grown up. The widow marriage is always conducted in the dark-fortnight, some time in the night. Married persons are not to see the marriage of a widow, it being a presumption they may lose their partner.

Both amongst Bhoyars and Kunbis the practice of *lamjhena* (marriage by service) is prevalent but in a slightly different form. The son-in-law would stay with his father-in-law, and would look property provided the latter does not have any male issue. His living with the father-in-law does not form a condition or a pre-requisite for the marriage, though the bride is always at premium. Unlike Gonds and Korkus he stays with father-in-law even after their marriage.

Generally, widows are not looked down upon amongst Bhoyars and Kunbis. The widows of the higher age-groups are treated with reverence. In their attire they do not differ in any way from the married women except for the absence of the necklace of black glass-beads in their neck. They also cannot put *nath* in their nose and *joriye* on the toes.

Kunbis cremate the dead. However, the children upto the age of six or seven years, and those who die of smallpox are given a burial. Their funeral rites are exactly like those of other Hindu castes except for the difference that the bones are collected the same day after the corpse is burnt completely, and are immersed into the lake or stream nearby. They are not taken to the place of religious importance like *Triveni*, Banaras, etc. In general, the mourning period lasts for ten days for the death of an adult, and three days for a child.

Kurmis

Like Kunbis, they are cultivating caste who migrated to the District from north Malwa and Oudh. Kurmis from Oudh probably settled in the District a little more than 160 years ago on the grant of an estate to the ancestors of the Betul proprietary family. These Kurmis were termed as *Pardesi*-Kurmis while those coming from north were Dholewar Kunbis. They were the earliest immigrants.

Brahmins

In the caste composition of the population, Brahmins do not figure much from the point of view of numerical importance. Most of the families as Russell states, belong to Malwi sub-castes, who migrated to the District about the 13th Century on the invitation of Raja of Kherla to perform sacrifices for him¹. Amongst the northern Brahmins, the Kanyakubja sub-caste, and amongst the Maratha Brahmins, the Konkansatha are in majority. The customs and manners of these sub-groups are almost the same as are prevalent in the regions from where they migrated.

Gonds

The population of Gonds since 1881 increased from 87,128 to 1,17,199 in 1941. In 1961 Gond^a population in rural areas was enumerated as 1,21,051, constituted of 58,791 males and 62,260 females.

Earlier Gazetteer of the District claims three-fourths of the Gonds as Raj-Gonds, probably for their possession of land, as Raj-Gonds are considered to be the land-holding sub-division.

Gonds in the villages in general are localized in one particular *dhana* or ward. Typical Gond houses like those of Korkus are constructed on two sides of the road in one straight line. But in some villages they are also constructed in a haphazard way. Their houses are usually of mud, and tiles on the roof. A few houses of bricks could also be found in some of the bigger villages. Each of the houses, whether of a rich or a poor person would also contain a *mandha*, i.e., a shed erected just in front of the house, thatched with leaves. The shed is constructed for many purposes. The house would usually contain a verandah and a small room to store grains and to keep other things. Behind this would be a small rectangular kitchen containing *chulahst*, hearth, and a few earthen pots or *handis*. In general, a dozen of *handis* would be found in every house. The kitchen also contains small *kothis* to store grains of daily consumption. Grain which is for future consumption or for sale is stored in *banda* which is made of bamboo-mat, and is kept over a raised platform of bamboos as a protection from insects.

Other artefacts and the food habits of Gonds are exactly like those of Korkus. However, the traditional articles like *tooma* to take out water from the pitcher, *katori* a sort of big wooden-bowl, or a wooden *thali* to eat food, and *sasa* a net to catch fish are worth mentioning.

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 64.

2. Gond includes:—Arakh or Arakh, Agaria, Asur, Badi Maria or Bada Maria, Bhatola, Bhimma, Bhuta, Koilabhuta or Koilabhuti, Bhar, Bisonhorn Maria, Chota-Maria, Dandami Maria, Dhuru or Dhurwa, Dhoba, Dhulia, Doral Gaiki, Gatta or Gatti, Gatta, Gond Gowari, Hill Maria, Kandra, Kalanga, Khatola, Koitar, Koya, Khirwar or Khir, Kucha Maria, Kuchaki Maria, Madia (Maria), Mana, Mannewar, Moghya or Mogia or Monghya, Mudia (Muria), Nagarchi, Nagwanshi, Ojha, Raj, Sonjhari, Jharska, Thatia or Thotya, Wade Maria or Vade Maria.

The apparel of a Gond women is typical, which distinguishes her from the rest of the women. On the upper-part they wear *choli*, a small blouse, keeping the back almost bare. There is another blouse-like garment which is much longer than *choli* and is buttoned in the back, and is loose. In the lower-part, a piece of cloth, usually of red or white colour is worn, but it remains only in the lower-part up to the knees and is tucked in the back between the loins. The upper-part is then covered with another cloth known as *chintz* which is put over the head and then draped over the shoulders. The entire attire is made of mill-cloth but is locally printed by Kori or Katia to the taste of the people. Red colour is the most preferred one. The *choli* is usually or multi-coloured. Girls wear *chintz*, a small piece of printed cloth, and *angia* or *jhago* as upper-garment.

The ornaments of Gond women in structure are the same as those of other castes in the District. *Bankadya* of silver is worn just above the elbow, *nadya* of brass or plated with silver or of german-silver, *galota* and *patli* of silver are worn as armlets, alongwith glass bangles. In the feet, *paidi* which is made of brass and plated with silver is the typical ornament of Gonds. Over *paidi* is worn *chura* of brass. A few women, who can afford, also wear *kadi* made of silver. Another typical ornament of Gond women is *muddi*, which is nothing but a sort of checknut of iron, worn on the first finger of feet. In rest of the fingers are worn *bichhiya* of german-silver.

Alongwith ornaments, Gond women attach special significance to tattooing. Tatto marks are generally worn by them at the age of 10-12 years. It is done by an expert woman with three needles fixed together. However, the practice of wearing tattoo marks has now declined. The muscular part of legs, right from heel to thigh is sometimes tattooed even today. Besides, forehead, cheeks, chin and some part of hands also wear these marks.

Gonds of the District have the joint family system. But in comparison to Korkus, the size of the family is small. The married brothers may separate themselves during the life time of the father. Thus, in general, a Gond family comprises husband, wife, unmarried children, married sons and daughters (as the system of *lamjhena* is prevalent amongst them), and their children. The eldest member who is usually father is the head of the house-hold and the manager of the property who is esteemed high in all family and social affairs.

Child Birth

No functions or celebrations are held during the first or subsequent pregnancies. The delivery is usually conducted by the elderly women of the caste. The umbilical cord is cut by sickle or *hansia*. A pit is dug close to the bed of the mother in which the *mottan missa* or the umbilical cord is buried. The woman is given only liquid diet. After the delivery the mid-wife throws away the entire set of bangles on her hands and is given new bangles. The room where the delivery is conducted is cleaned on the 5th day, but final purification

tion ceremony is performed on the 12th day known as *barsa*. On this day, once again the entire house along with the clothes would be cleaned by the woman who conducted the delivery. A feast would be offered to friends and relatives, and liquor would also be served to the guests. There would be singing and dancing on this day. The mid-wife would keep two names for the child. The house would be considered pure henceforth. Some of the old superstitions connected with the child-birth are still prevalent amongst Gonds. In the case of prolonged labour, the water from a rapidly flowing stream is given to the woman, or a talisman prepared out of the wood struck by the lightning is tied over the neck of the woman for easy labour and quick delivery. The *Bhumka*, the Gond priest, is also summoned to ascertain the reason for the delay, and the God or the ancestor as directed by the *Bhumka* is propitiated.

Marriage among Gonds

Marriage of the children who are adult are generally arranged by the parents. Child marriage is never performed. Love marriages are not of uncommon occurrence in which the girl may elope with the boy, usually from the market-place or fair. The boy and the girl are then formally married with all the marriage rites including the bride-price which the boy or his parents have to pay. Marriage by capture, which does not invite the consent of either girl or the parents, is also prevalent, but is of unusual occurrence. This sort of marriage, usually, results into feuds and disputes between the villages from both the sides. The code of marital relations, though claimed to be strict, appears to be liberal in practice, and the crimes of extra and pre-marital relation are expunged by enjoying a feast with liquor from the guilty.

In the settlement of a marriage, the first ceremony is of *daru dalna*, serving of liquor. A certain amount is paid to the parents of the daughter. On this day, a few persons come from the boy's side to fix-up the day of *sagai* in consultation with the girl's side. This party also includes the *Bhumka*, the priest with whose consultation the day is fixed. The *Bhumka* is also consulted before the performance of *daru dalna* ceremony regarding the suitability of match. If the ceremony of *daru dalna* has been performed on Saturday, *sagai* should come on the following Monday or Friday. In *sagai* the boy's parents supply *kudai dal*, chillies, *lugra*, *angia*, coconut and *batesa*. The quantity of the grain is decided at the time of *daru dalna*. In general, the quantity of grains to be supplied at the time of *sagai* is *kudai* five *kuro*, *dal* ten *pal*, wheat four *pal*, oil one seer, and rupees seven in cash. The quantity so brought would be measured by the *Panchas*. A *chowk* of *atta*, i.e., of flour is made and the girl is seated over it. A *kalash*, i.e., a pitcher filled with water is placed before her. The father or the elder member of his family washes her feet, and offers *batesa* (sugar), and her *oli*, the lap is filled. Every one accompanying the boy's party washes her feet, and offers a small present to her. The guests are given a feast before returning to their village. The girl's party is again visited by the two representatives, i.e., *sarvata* to fix up the date for *dej*, the final betrothal ceremony.

A day before the day for *dej*, the boy is made *dulha*, the bridegroom, in the formal sense of the term by performing certain rites. *Puja* is offered to *Matua*, who is also offered chicken, lemon, and coconut. A *chowk* is made in the house, and boy is seated over it facing west. He is dressed in the ceremonial attire and given ornaments of females, like *potmal*, *hamel* and *sari*. He is also given *katari* or a dagger. Relatives and friends offer him *tika*. A feast is also arranged for friends, and the *barat* sets out for the bride's place. Women also accompany the *barat* party. The *barat* is received at the *guthan*, (a place at the outskirts of the village where animals are assembled before they are taken out for the day's grazing) of the village by the bride's party. They come to the *guthan* on the intimation received through *sarvata* with pitchers filled with water, placed over the head of unmarried girls. The feet of every *barati* are washed by the members of girl's party. The *barat* is then escorted to the *janvata*, where they are lodged. The *dej* brought is sent to the bride's house where it is measured by the *panchas*. Generally, the *dej* contains 25 *kuro* of *kodon*, five *kuro* of *dal* and rupees twelve. *Panch-kharcha*, i.e., expenses to be incurred on the *Panchas*, amounting to rupees nine is also received. Apart from these gifts many a time the girl's father also gets *dubba*, i.e., something more than what is given in *sagai* and *dej*, but this is done with mutual consent of the father of bride and bride-groom, and this is not publicly announced or exhibited.

In the evening the girl is brought to the house as she remains hidden throughout the day. Her father washes her feet. The girl touches the feet of all the persons of the *barat* party while covering herself in a blanket. In return of which she is given presents, usually cash. The *barat* party then goes back to their village. The marriage now may take place after a fortnight, or even a month, but the bride and the groom continue to be termed as *dulha* and *dulhin*.

The *sarvatas* are again sent by the boy's party with an invitation to bring the girl for final marriage on a particular day. One of the *sarvatas* stays at girl's place while the other comes back.

For the marriage, a *mandha* is erected, thatched with *jamun* or *gullar* leaves. All the rites connected with the erection of *mandha* are almost like those of other Hindu castes. On the second day of the *mandha* erection the *barat* of the bride comes. In the *janvata*, where the bride's party is lodged, oil and turmeric is smeared on the body of the girl. She is dressed in the ceremonial attire, including ornaments presented to her by her parents-in-law. The ceremony of *bhanwar*, i.e., taking seven rounds of the *salia*-pole under the *mandha* is then performed both by the groom and the bride. The feet of the couple are washed by all present, and presents offered to them. This then is followed by singing and dancing by the people. In the last ceremony of *chhota mandi* is performed, which amounts to the immersion of *toran*, the leaves of *mandha*, and untying the *kankan* from the wrist of the couple. This ceremony is conducted by only the young boys and girls, and that is why it is a sort of drollery. Finally, there is another interesting ceremony. The father of the groom is placed in a swing

and swings are given by the newly wedded couple. The father or the elder member in the swing would mimic as a weeping infant. The couple make certain promises. This ceremony is just to remind the couple that they were brought up in this way, and that they would not forget the parents after marriage.

In the case of the elopement, the woman would continue to live with her new husband but if she is unmarried the formal marriage is performed after sometime. After the elopement when the whereabouts of the girl are known to her parents, they would invite the boy's parents with his *Panchas* or the elders to resolve the dispute or *jhagra*, arising as a result of the elopement. The settlement of the dispute depends on the versions of the girl, i.e., whether she accompanied the boy willingly or she was abducted. In case the girl had gone with her consent the matter is generally settled amicably by paying monetary compensation by the boy's side to the girl's parents, and also the feast to the *Panchas* otherwise the meeting for settlement turns into a serious feud.

Ceremony of widow marriage is termed as *path-lagana*, and the procedure is exactly like that in other castes of Hindus. The prevalence of widow marriage has probably not placed various social taboos over a Gond widow. As far as her ornaments and clothes are concerned, there is not much difference between a married woman and a widow except that a widow would not put *paidi* in her legs. She may out of disgust and sorrow throw off all her ornaments immediately after her husband's death. But this has temporary effect, and gradually with the passing of time she may again start putting on the ornaments.

Polygamy is rarely practised. It is only out of necessity that people go for more than one wife. Only a few wealthy Gonds may possess more than one wife.

System of *lamjhena*, as described amongst Korkus, is also prevalent amongst Gonds. Cases of separation or divorce, as the Gonds of the District feel, are decreasing day by day owing to as much for economic reasons as the acculturation with other Hindu castes who have influenced them.

Death Rites

As a rule the dead body is buried, but, as reported, they also cremate well-off persons or persons of outstanding merits. After the death, the corpse is given bath and smeared with oil and turmeric and covered with cloth. It is buried with a little quantity of flour of *birra*, i.e., wheat and gram, and *pej* in *dabulia*, an earthen pot. After the burial no purificatory rites are performed. The 10th day is observed only in well-off families. Later on, in the name of the dead a small pole on a platform is erected, and offered various articles of personal consumption on various festivities. *Puja* is also performed during festivities.

Korkus

The second most populous tribe of the District is Korku who increased from 23,868 in 1901, about 8 per cent of the District population then, to 42,455

in 1941, and to 54,253 in 1961¹. About 65.5 per cent of Korkus live in Bhainsdehi Tahsil and 33.5 per cent in Betul Tahsil.

Korkus are a tribe, belonging to the western part of the Satpura range and especially the Mahadeo hills. They are confined to a few pockets in the District, generally in the dense forests. Their concentration is more towards north and western side of the District. Korku is a Munda or Kolarian tribe akin to the Korwas with whom they have been identified in Census 1901. "The word Korku means simply men or tribesmen; *Koru* being their term for a man and *ku* a plural termination."² An average Korku is a simple being. Though a few may be industrious but in general, a languid attitude to the ways of the world, with a light heart, is the true character of a Korku. Liquor drains out most of their money to the last coin. Liquor is not an instrument in the social milieu but also a tool in the religious affairs to gain favour of God. Liquor on such occasions must be procured either through illicit distillation or through licenced shop. Because of the poverty and the high price of liquor, illicit distillation is rampant. Probably for this reason also, they present unconcerned and timid appearance to any foreigner in their village.

A Korku's house is a one-room tenement, constructed with bamboo-spills, plastered with mud from both the sides. The room is invariably partitioned by two *kothis*, the earthen pots for storing the grains placed in the centre. One part is used as the living room in which there would be two doors facing each other, and the other is used as kitchen with complete darkness. In a kitchen, hearth is constructed exactly in the centre as a precaution against fire. The roof is generally thatched with *sukul*-grass or country-made tiles, and is supported by *ballies*. In front, there would also be a small verandah, sometimes closed with bamboo-nets but unplastered, and sometimes left open. In the back, invariably, there is small courtyard, fenced by bamboo-spills. Korkus call it *barwari*. The cattle-shed is also constructed in the rows of the houses. Every Korku house has a sort of geometrical figure made on each side of the entrance, drawn by *tatya* or the cowherd at the time of Diwali.

Because of the poverty in general and the extravagance in particular the household possessions of a Korku are negligible. *Handis*, earthen-wares to cook meals, a few brass-wares to store drinking water, deep *thali* to eat meals and *kothis* to store grains are the artifacts possessed by an average Korku. Apart from these possessions there would be a little bedding and the clothes. Korkus in general also keep poultry. Every house has *tukhu* to husk paddy, *ghatti* to grind grains and a swing made of ropes, if there are children in the house. The houses are devoid of the provisions for bath and lavatory.

As for furniture they possess cots made of bamboos and knitted with thin bamboo-spills. The brass utensil would be shining all the day, and so also their

1. Only rural areas.

2. R. V. Russell and Hiratal, op. cit., Vol. III, p. 550.

thali and *lota*. The people, particularly the women, always give a tidy and neat appearance as far as their clothes are concerned, but in the matter of personal hygiene they are not fastidious. *Dhoti*, *bandi* and a little of cloth as head-gear, and a sort of coat termed as *anga* used in place of *bandi*, or over the *bandi* are clothes of men. Readymade clothes like shirts could also be seen.

The Korku male attire also includes a few ornaments like *kada* or *bavtha* of silver as armlet. *Muddi* or ring in the finger, *murki* and *bali* of gold or silver in the upper and lower lobes of the ear, and silver buttons with a number of coins in the shirt are used. Women attire comprises two pieces, viz., sari or *lungra* of the length of nine yards and *churgi* a sort of blouse, cut and stitched usually by hands. The ornaments of the women are all in common with the rest of the women of the District except for one or two, e.g., *dandra*, the thick brass-rings, worn three in each foot, are a typical ornament which produces rhythmic sound while dancing. Glass beads of various colours in their neck and *sutra*, an armlet of brass are their typical ornaments. Ornaments amongst them are no doubt as in general, the precious possession, but they carry more a decorative value rather than wealth. Majority of the pieces of ornaments are either made of brass or of german-silver, a sort of white metal, and a few could even have silver or gold ornaments.

Korku's concept of beauty apart from ornaments has also a set place for tattooing. Tattooing in general is commonly worn by women but occasionally men may also resort to it inscribing their own or of friend's name on the arm. Women have these marks in one hand only on the wrist. In the centre of the forehead they place a mark and three dots on the temple bone on each side. The designs so inscribed are nothing but geometrical representations, made by the professionals, who visit the village periodically. Tattooing marks are inscribed usually in the infant age or in the childhood till 8 to 9 years.

The use of foot-wear which is country-made and prepared out of leather is very limited. Women use *bayna*, a half-covered slipper made of leather.

Korkus being a poor community, the food pattern of theirs is very simple, and mainly comprises coarse grains cooked in various manners to suit the taste and occasions. *Kodon*, *kuiki*, jowar, maize and *godmal dal* are the chief components of their food. Wheat and rice are no doubt produced by them, but their consumption is kept limited to festivities in the form of *puri*, fried *chapati*. *Pej*, a gruel prepared out of flour, is an article of frequent acceptance, but never in breakfast. There does not exist any difference in their lunch and dinner articles. Food is generally, cooked once for the lunch, and left-over of lunch constitutes dinner and the breakfast for the next day. *Chapati* of jowar and maize, *bhat* of *kodon* and *kuiki*, and *dal* of *godmal* form their square meals.

On special occasions they would of course have most of the fried food articles, particularly the *puries*, which would be relished with some meat or fowl

The main source of entertainment for the Korkus is nothing but to sit together and gossip. Dancing occasionally is another source which is usually accompanied with liquor consumed liberally. Dances are arranged on festive occasions, marriages, and *sidoli*, the funeral function. In the dances, *susum* and *gadli* are the favourite which are performed with the accompaniment of drums and flute, the most liked musical instruments of the Korkus.

Family and Marriage

The traditional joint-family is the mode amongst Korkus consisting mainly of husband, wife, children—married and unmarried, and their children, and sometimes sons-in-law and brothers. The presence of married daughter and son-in-law is because of the prevalence of the system of *lamjhena*, i.e., son-in-law serving the bride's family. The family property is held jointly, and the elder is usually responsible for the management of the property. Brothers, however, separate themselves on the event of father's death. A grandson can inherit the property of his grand-father. Similarly, a married son living separately from his father would also get share in the family's property. A daughter could also inherit property through her husband, working as *lamjhena*. *Lamjhena* would get half the share of a son in the property of the father-in-law.

The typical thing amongst Korkus is that every adult member in the family has subsidiary source of income which is held individually by the member concerned. A wife would have her own poultry, independent of her husband and other members of the family. She may of her own accord spend the money on any other member of the family. Similarly, the *lamjhena* after having worked for the family may also go to forest, either for the collection of forest produce, or to work as forest labour. The earning so augmented would be his own. In general, the economy of Korku revolves round cultivation, collection of forest produce, working as agricultural and non-agricultural labourer and the bamboo-works.

Korkus have four sub-castes, viz., Mawasis, Bawaria, Ruma and Bondoya. The former two are considered higher than the latter two. "The term Mawasi means a resident of Mowas, the name given by Marathas to the Western Satpura Hills, and meaning the troubled country. This is a reminiscence of the time when the Korkus were notorious robbers and free-booters."¹

Bawarias are said to be the dwellers in the Bhanwargarh tract of the District. Rumas hail from the Amraoti District, while Bondoyas were the residents of Jitgarh and Pachmarhi tract. In the present times it is difficult to assess the number of sub-septs of each of the castes as most of the people have absolutely no information regarding the number and also about the meaning of each of the sept. However, as Russell and Hiralal have said, there are 36 septs of each of the sub-castes. Among Ruma, sub-castes are Bhuri Ruma, Dewda, Jambu, Kasada,

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 74.

Takhar, Sakum, Basam or Baoria. Most of the septs are totemistic, like *Tandil*, a rat, *Akandi*, the benighted one, *Chuthar*, the flying black-bug.

Child Birth

The delivery amongst Korkus is generally conducted by the elderly women of the caste in the village. The umbilical cord, like other castes of the District, is cut by the *darati*, or the sickle. The entire family remains impure for a period of seven to twelve days. On the 12th day, the ceremony of *barsa*, like other castes is conducted. On *barsa* day, entire house is cleaned, and a feast offered. The child and its mother are offered presents.

Marriage amongst Korkus

Marriages are usually adult, and are never arranged in the same sept. Marriage between the first cousins is also prohibited. Generally marriages are arranged, and the consent of the boy and the girl for the settlement is immaterial as the parents' will prevail. Boys and girls of the ages of 18-20, and 14-16 years, respectively are considered suitable for marriage.

A Korku marriage is a very costly affair, and the bride is always at premium. In view of this, and the general poverty of the tribe, the practice of *lamjhena* is widely preferred. The practice demands the boy to serve the in-laws for a period of twelve years, and the marriage is performed at the expense of the father-in-law after the expiry of the term. *Lamjhena* is treated like a servant in household as far as the work of the house is concerned but otherwise he is just as a member of the family and no distinction is made. The *lamjhena*, however, remains independent for the earnings which he would secure by any means after having done the assigned work of the family. The marriage under such practice, though said to be performed by the parents of the girl, is rarely performed, and the *lamjhena* and his wife are socially recognised as husband and wife. The recognition is usually given by the *Panchas* by taking feast from the parents of the wife.

The hard labour to which a *lamjhena* is put, many a time forces him to flee away from the girl's house. In such a case the parents would either keep another person as *lamjhena* or give away his daughter in marriage to some one else, taking the price in the form of *dej* and *sagai*.

The bride being at premium, the demand comes from the boy's side. The custom of asking for a girl is a typical one. Two persons from boy's side go to the father of the girl twice or thrice till a meeting with him is arranged. The girl's father places the demand before the *Panchas* and usually insists on accepting the boy as *lamjhena*. He asks for a pretty good bride-price of his daughter. If negotiations are settled for marriage, a feast would be offered by the representatives to the boy's side. On the *sagai* day, the boy's party would come with 12 *pao kutki* and some other material. A feast is prepared and offered to the *Panchas*. On this day the amount of *dej* to be given by the boy's party is

also settled. Usually one *khandi* (10 Mds.) of grains, *dal*, chillies, wheat, rice, oil, tobacco, *gur*, liquor, clothes for the mother and father of the girl, and about Rs. 500 are settled as *dej*. On the appointed day *dej* is brought by the boy's party which is announced and the people see the quantity and quality of the *dej* received.

When the date for the marriage is fixed the preparation for *barat* procession is set a day or two before the marriage day. The groom would be taken to perform the *puja* of Mutua Deo and the *ber* tree, where the father and son would sit together tied by a thread. On the arrival at bride's village the procession is taken to the bride's place where the groom touches the *mandha* with bamboo-fan. The entire *barat* party would be lodged at a *janwasa*. The bride's party on the next day invites the groom who is taken either on the shoulder or back of some one. On *barat's* arrival, the bride comes to the door with lighted lamp over her head which she throws in a cloth held by either the father or the elder brother of the groom. The lamp while falling extinguishes, and is tied inside the cloth by the father. The bride and the groom are then seated under the *mandha* facing each other. The groom then ties black-bead necklace or *garsari* on the neck of the girl. The couple is then lifted up and taken round the *mandha* three times. The people present throw coloured rice over them. While taking rounds of the *mandha*, the clothes of the couple are tied together and they are seated together side by side. Invitees then offer presents. Feast is offered by the bride's party and then there would be rejoicing and merry-making. Marriages are self-conducted and *Bhumka* or *Parihar* is never engaged.

Pre-marital relations under the system of *lamjhena* as is obvious are difficult to avoid. Extra-marital relations as a rule of conduct are severely viewed, and are supposed to result in the expulsion of the guilty from the caste. But this rule is rarely adhered to, and the people generally return in the fold of caste by offering a feast. System of levirate is also present but is voluntary and not a compulsion.

Marriage by capture is not traditional amongst Korkus. But probably due to the contacts with Gonds, stray cases of this type also occur. It cannot, however, be strictly called marriage by capture because it carries the will of the girl, and such marriages could be better termed as love marriages.

Widows are allowed to marry, and the entire procedure of the widow marriage is known as *path-lagana*. In case a widow has children they would either stay with the family of her previous husband or may be accepted by her new husband. In case they are accepted by the new husband, the children would have no claim over the property of the step-father. Infants with the widow generally go with her to new husband. For the widow marriage the consent of the widow is absolutely necessary. The procedure of *path-lagana* is exactly the same as prevalent amongst other Hindus. The demand for the widow's marriage is initiated by the man who intends to marry a widow.

Death Rites

When it is known that a man is dying he is immediately removed from the cot and is placed on the ground. The dead body is given bath and smeared with turmeric and oil. It is covered with new cloth which is very essential. The disposal of the corpse would wait even for a day or so till the cloth is brought. Two bamboos on each side of the cot on which the Korku died are tied and the corpse is taken for burial on it. A big pit is dug and paddy spread in it. The corpse is placed inside the pit and covered with some paddy, *kodon* and finally with earth. The persons attending the burial return after a bath to deceased's house where they would be served with liquor and *gur*. They do not have any fixed days of mourning, nor do they consider themselves impure after the burial of the corpse. But they certainly observe *dasva*, the tenth day, not exactly on the 10th day but on any day convenient afterwards. On *dasva* day a feast is thrown to all including non-relatives. *Kutki*, a lamp and water in pot would be placed near the *dharna*, the main pole in the house supporting the centre beam. The relatives in the house come one by one to the *dharna* and perform small *puja*.

The Korkus do not have any rite like *pind-dan*; instead they have *sidoli* which must be performed by every family when ever convenient. Unless the *sidoli* is performed, the ancestors would not rest in peace. The performance of *sidoli* is a costly affair and, therefore, the performance of this rite is decreasing.

SOCIAL LIFE

Property and Inheritance

The control of the father over the property, his behaviour towards dependents, the dependents' response to it, and the nature of inheritance are the categorical evidences of the existence of patriarchal system of families in the District. By and large joint family system continues to persist, though its structure has changed, and probably is in the transitory stage towards nuclear family. This transition appears to be the result of development activities, particularly in the field of education and communication. Small joint family, thus, is the most typical form, containing members in vertical extension. If a household is taken up as a family, which would not be inappropriate to compare with, then according to Census 1961, out of 22,379 sample households, 10,377 were having members upto the limit of 4-7 persons, which comes to about 46.3 per cent. Households having more than seven persons were only 5,202. Similarly, the households having just three or less persons, which are indicative of nuclear type of families, were 6,800. Thus about 76.7 per cent of the households are having less than seven members each and out of these the contribution of households having less than three members comes to about 30.4 per cent. Obviously, the large-size households are relatively less. The average size of household population, which is 5.17 persons in the District, is certainly not a reflector of traditional joint family.

The facts stated above further find an evidence if the composition of households is also analysed. The Census 1961 shows that out of the total sample population of 1,11,664 persons, the heads of households with their wife and unmarried children, etc., comprise 96,368 persons or 86.3 per cent.

In the urban areas, comparatively, the number of small joint families is less than in the rural sector. The liberalism in the ideological domain, the economic pressure and education have made people in urban areas more individualistic and developed liking for a nuclear family comprising chiefly self and wife and unmarried children. The increasing importance of self has affected the attitude of the younger generation to a considerable extent. As a result, the partition of the joint property at a period much earlier than in the past is of common occurrence. The co-parcenors insist on the partition of the joint property which is usually divided equally amongst them either during the life-time of the head or after his death. Any additional share to any member is not the rule but exceptions could be found. Co-parcenors, usually consist of sons only. The head, however, in his life-time might grant a share to a person other than the co-parcenors. The Hindu Law of Inheritance (Amendment Act) of 1929, and later the Hindu Women's Right to Property Act of 1937, recognised women's interest in the family property. Accordingly, she can claim partition as the male member could. Similarly, the Act recognized the widow of the pre-deceased grandson and that of the pre-deceased great-grandson as entitled to her husband's share in the family property. The acts carried forward the disintegration of the joint family.

Amongst Mohammedans the Islamic Law is followed, and the property is usually divided amongst the children of the deceased. If the deceased has not paid the *mehr*, and divorced the wife, the first claim in his property rests with the wife.

Transfer of property through will, particularly of the head of the family, is rare both amongst Hindus and Muslims.

Marriage and Morals

Monogamy is the rule, but deviation from the tenet cannot be said to be altogether absent. Such deviations are mainly from the point of view of begetting children, or a male heir, or for insanity or any serious physical defect. Polygamy is also to be found amongst wealthy tribal people, or amongst labour class where the spouse is given an economic value, and the contribution by wives increases the family income.

The District does not possess any tribe or caste having poly androus custom or habits. In general, marital relations are sought within the bonds of caste only. Exceptions, however, could be found, but they are negligible.

Traditional caste and sub-caste restrictions on the marriage are intact even today. A Malwi Brahmin would marry only in Malwi Brahmin's family, while a Kanyakubja will seek the marriage alliance amongst Kanyakubjas. However, the sub-caste restrictions are gradually loosening to some extent. Cases of inter-caste marriage could only be cited as exceptions. Similarly, *gotra* exogamy is the general rule but the feasibility of strict observance of this rule seems to be doubtful, particularly in castes at the lower-strata of the caste hierarchy and tribes where love marriage and widow marriage is a common practice.

The age at marriage varies not only from caste to caste but also within the caste, depending upon the educational standard and the economic condition of the families. Thus, amongst Brahmins, Rajputs, Telis, etc., marriage is performed both at an early age and also at maturity. Marriage amongst Korkus and Gonds, is always performed at maturity, while amongst Kunbis and Bhojars at adolescence. There are a few castes amongst whom child-marriage is still prevalent. However, in comparison to other districts in this District the intensity of child marriage is comparatively much less.

The typical caste composition of the District has three different types of marriage customs which evidently depending on the place of immigration from where the general population has migrated. First, people whose ancestors migrated to this District from north are having the customs prevalent in north. Next, those who immigrated from south, are having the customs of southern districts, i.e., Berar. Lastly the tribals having customs which are the acculturation of the customs of the north or south, or have their independent customs. Whatever may be the marriage rites, marriage amongst all is the most important and most engrossing event of the life requiring prolonged preparations. Marriage amongst all the castes have two connotations, i.e., *vivah* and *pat*. The former is the marriage of those who had never been married before by Vedic rites, and the latter is a simple ceremony by which a widow is married. Amongst people from north like northern Brahmins, Rajputs, etc., the *phaldan* rite symbolizes the culmination of negotiations for marriage. This ceremony is succeeded by the ceremony of *oli-bharna* and *lagun*, in which bride and the bridegroom are offered presents in confirmation of the settlement of marriage by their respective in-laws. The marriage, as traditional, is performed at the girl's house where the marriage party with the bridegroom reaches well in time. The honour and the prestige of the *barat* is well maintained by the girl's side by formal reception on its arrival at the latter's place. This is followed by the *kanyadan*, i.e., the formal submission of the girl by her father to the boy. The ceremony of *kanyadan* is succeeded by the ceremony of *bhanwar*, the most important rite in the entire procedure. The bridegroom, followed by the bride, goes round the sacred fire seven times with the accompaniment of recitation of *mantras* by the Brahmin priest. The bride and the bridegroom vow to each other certain code of conduct to be observed throughout their life. This ceremony of *bhanwar* seals the couple in the marriage bond. In addition to these there are various minor rites varying from caste to caste,

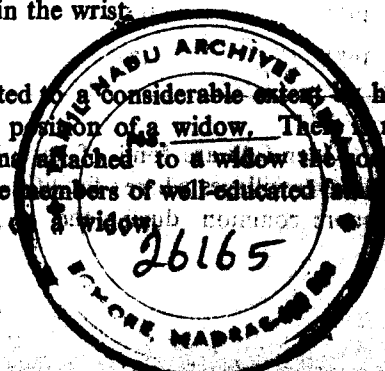
Amongst those whose ancestors migrated from south, like Kunbis and Gonds, the marriage customs are akin to those prevalent in the districts of Berar region. But some of the castes like Bhojars, though migrants from north, have also adopted the southern customs. Mehra also follow the same customs. Amongst these castes it is not the formal reception of the *barat* and the *bhanwar* which carry importance but the ceremony of *antrapat* which is given value. The formal culmination of negotiations, the reception of *barat*, precedes the rite of *antrapat*. At the time of *antrapat* the bride and the bridegroom are kept standing face to face, a curtain is drawn between the two, and there is the recitation of hymns by the priest. At a fixed time or the *mohurt*, the curtain is removed and the bride and the groom exchange garlands, or their heads are touched. The people witnessing the ceremony throw *akshat*, rice, over the couple. The couple are then offered presents by the relatives and friends. This is followed by the rite of *saptapadi* or walking around the sacred fire, and the marriage is concluded by a feast.

The system of dowry is prevalent and it varies according to the status of the families under negotiations. Amongst most of the castes it is the girl's side which pays the dowry to the groom's party. Amongst Brahmins, Baniyas and Rajputs of higher status the custom of paying the dowry to the groom is prevalent. The bride-price is paid amongst castes where bride is valued at premium. In the middle-strata of the caste hierarchy the dowry is not paid in this formal way but on the pretext of various other rites. As has already been said, in the lower-strata of the caste hierarchy, viz., Gond, Chamar, Mehra, etc., the bride is always at premium, and a price is paid for her, not strictly in shape of money but in kind sometimes.

Widows are permitted to marry as has already been stated amongst Gonds, Bhojars, Kunbis, Kurmis, Mehra, Korkus, etc. Castes at the higher-strata of the Hindu caste hierarchy like Brahmins, Kayasthas, Baniyas, and Rajputs of higher descent prohibit widow marriage. As far as the position of widows in the society is concerned not much of stigma is attached to their position in lower-strata. First, because of the prevalence of the practice of widow marriage and secondly because of the value attached to the institution of marriage. Widows from higher rungs of the Hindu caste-ladder are certainly at a depreciation. They are even today debarred from certain privileges. Generally, they are prohibited to wear coloured and fashionable clothes, and wear no ornaments except one or two bangles of silver or gold in the wrist.

The position of a widow is also affected to a considerable extent by her education. Better the education, higher the position of a widow. There is no doubt that because of the traditional stigma attached to a widow the social restriction of her may be self-imposed but the members of well-educated families in general, would not like to put restrictions on a widow.

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Divorce frequency is more amongst tribals and the castes at the lower rung of society. Amongst Gonds, Korkus, Dhobis, Nais, Dhimars, Telis, etc., it is effected more by respective Caste Panchayat than by the statutory courts. For this reason there was not a single application for divorce during the last decade to the Registrar of Marriages.

Prostitution, Drinking and Gambling

No prostitution or trafficking in women is in vogue in any caste or tribe in the District. Alcoholic drinks, however, are a common malady amongst Gonds and Korkus who are tipplers of the first rank, and the habit has permeated into other castes living in the rural areas in proximity of these people. It is a part of their daily routine, and on festivals and ceremonial occasions it is the most common mode of entertainment. Liquor is given to them immediately on their birth and also at the time of death. Women and children share this elixir of life. With such a strong habit, quite often illicit distillation in the villages is also resorted to. G.C. Trench, who had a thorough touch with the rural life of the District has written in this connection: 'They (Gonds) have money to burn, and annual drink bill of quite a sober tenant may be four or five times his rent. It is a pleasure to tour in this forbidden country of steep stoney hills, and to know that the doubling of rents would cause much less discontent than a four annas addition to the price of bottle of liquor'. The entire District is 'wet area' and there is no prohibition on drinking.

The offences registered under the opium and excise laws during the year 1952 and onwards are given as under:—

Year	No. of Cases under Excise and Opium Laws.	Year	No. of Cases under Excise and Opium Laws
1952	130	1959	131
1953	402	1960	181
1954	403	1961	160
1955	187	1962	159
1956	190	1963	121
1957	165	1964	197
1958	179	1965	358

Men-folk are fond of gambling and a number of *Murghi Bazar* are held in bigger villages where facilities for gambling are made available. Gambling is more common during the months of Magha and Paush. Number of cases

registered under the Gambling Act are as under:—

Year	No. of Cases under Gambling Act	Year	No. of Cases under Gambling Act
1951	13	1959	32
1952	17	1960	41
1953	25	1961	26
1954	34	1962	39
1955	12	1963	54
1956	26	1964	74
1957	38	1965	52
1958	32		

HOME LIFE

Dwellings

According to Census 1961, the District possesses 1,08,326 occupied residential houses, accommodating 1,11,924 households. The number of houses in the rural areas was 98,649 while those in urban areas was 9,677.

Except for two or three houses that belong to well-to-do persons in an average village, houses are single-roomed huts, with front and back verandahs. About 69 per cent of the households in the District live in such houses. Of the rest, 21 per cent live in two-room houses, leaving the rest of 10 per cent of households in houses with three rooms or more.

About three-fifths (58.4 per cent) households live in houses of mud raised in between wooden poles, and roofed with country made tiles. Even mud walls are also absent in about 23 per cent of the households according to Census 1961. They raise walls of bamboo or reed or wattled. Only 5.3 per cent of the households live in burnt-brick houses. In general, every house possesses a *badi* to grow a little of vegetables and creepers and also to keep the cattle. Apart from this a portion of *badi* is also used as lavatory.

Villages are usually divided on caste basis into two or three wards and sometimes six to seven even. Gond or Korku houses are built on two sides of road. The houses of other castes in the same village are found in cluster and in a haphazard way. The village usually depends for the water-supply on one or more wells situated in low lying land at a distance.

Even in urban areas, only 44 per cent households live in houses which have walls of burnt-bricks, 27.8 per cent households live in houses with mud walls, while about 17 per cent live in houses made of unburnt-bricks. As regards roofs, tiling seems to be the rule. More than four-fifths, (84 per cent) of the households live in tiled houses. In urban areas houses are generally

well ventilated and with adequate provision of other facilities. But in respect of sanitation probably they lack much. The lay-out of houses in Betul town is probably one of the best. Multai appears to be the most congested town of the District.

The construction of a house is preceded by religious rites to be performed either by the *Pandit*, i.e., Brahmin or the owner on an auspicious day. There are certain omens which are also kept into consideration during the construction which vary from region to region and also from caste to caste. Similarly, while entering a new house for occupation certain rites are to be performed. In general, people now perform *Satyanarayan Katha*, and they also throw feast either to virgin girls or to a few *Pandits*, relatives and friends.

In the rural area, in general, the household possessions usually comprise the utensils, clothes, and a few country made cots strung with *moonj*. In a few houses, cots of *niwar* usually strung by the village Katia or Mehra, could also be found. The cots amongst Korkus, are entirely made of bamboos and strung with bamboo spills. The number of utensils varies on the basis of the economic position of the household. Amongst poor section, the cooking utensils are usually of earth, and they would keep one or two *thalis* to eat meals, and a *lota* for drinking water. But amongst rich cultivators earthen-wares are generally discarded, irrespective of caste consideration, and all the utensils would be of brass and alloy. Besides, modern pieces of furniture could also occasionally be found with ex-*Malguzars*, school masters, village Patwari and other government officials working in the Development Blocks. Apart from these, most modern pieces of furniture are also visible in the house of educated and rich class of the people, and the Missionaries working in the rural areas.

The sense of decoration in rural areas is generally of primitive and crude nature. A few crude drawings on the main entrance of the house depicting geometrical designs and crude pictures of birds and animals are the common sight in the villages. Pictures of various Gods are commonly clipped on the wells. A few of them in the village, in their *badi* or *angan* keep flower plant of permanent nature, mainly as a depiction of their aesthetic sense. The houses in general are kept clean, and the metal utensils always shining.

Dress and Ornaments

Except for Gond women, the dress pattern of the people, in general, is similar to such as is prevalent in the south-western districts of the State. They are generally scantily dressed. Two or three sets of clothes fulfil their total requirement. On festive occasions the old clothes are washed and worn with new or old traditional *pagri*, a head-gear. Women of course, deck themselves with new clothes and ornaments on the occasion. Children usually have much less clothes than the adults, and on festive occasions they are bought new clothes from the nearby weekly market. Clothes, in general, are bought readymade in rural areas or got tailored if the

facility exists. The Kunbi and Mehra women wear different type of saris from that Bhojars and Rajputs. Thus, in northern parts, women wear *choli*, *orhni*, *sari*, *lahnga* or *petticoat*, while in the south of the District the sari is worn through the legs and tucked at the back with one end folded over the shoulders. The traditional *choli* or *angia* is gradually giving way to a crude form of blouse. The sari is locally termed as *lagra*. Korkus call the blouse as *churgi*, which they stitch at home. The Rajputs call *choli*, a *kachwa*. The *lagra* is usually of six or seven yards. The practice of wearing undergarment amongst women is typically absent amongst the rural-folk. In the towns, usage of these garments is common amongst females. The attire of an adult male is almost uniform throughout the District. *Dhoti* is a very common wear, both amongst rural and urban folk. Apart from the traditional styled clothes, shirts, bush-shirts and trousers have also come in vogue more among urban inhabitants. In the rural areas, *saluka* a sleeveless jacket and *bandi*, a full sleeves jacket are commonly worn. But with these, shirt, *kurta* are also very common. The half-sleeves jacket is also known as *phatoi*. As head-gear, *angochha*, *dupatta* and *pagri*, particularly in the southern region are common. Apart from *angochha* and *dupatta*, people also wear plain white or coloured cap. With shirt and the head-gear, coat forms the ceremonial dress. Boys put on *phatoi*, *neemastin* and shirts as upper-garment, and *dhoti* as lower-garment. But shirts and *chaddi* or under-wear are also very much in vogue. Girls wear coloured sari with *angia* on the upper-part. Small girls also wear *jhanga* which is a sort of frock. With these clothes, frocks and skirts are commonly worn, more in urban areas.

Footwear

Shoes in the rural areas are occasionally worn. They are made locally by the Chamars of the village. However, the traditional foot-wears are going out of fashion and people are drifting towards factory made shoes. Ladies occasionally wear *bayna*, the leather sandal.

Ornaments

Ornaments of men-folk are now only exception, except with Korkus who wear *murki* and *bali*, rings of silver and gold, respectively. *Chura* is the favourite armlet made of silver and german-silver. Besides, they also decorate their neck with a *potmala*, the necklace of coloured glass-beads. The chained silver-buttons of the *bandi* or shirt and silver or gold rings also are worn by those who can afford them.

Women are very much fond of ornaments. In general, gold, silver, alloy, brass, bronze, and iron also are used in the manufacture of ornaments. The popular ornaments of the village women are *bindiya*, a gold or silver pendent fixed with chains and tucked up on the forehead; *nath* a nose-ring of Kunbi and Korku women; *jhala*, *murki* and *nali*, the ear-rings; *hamel*, *hansli*, *sari*, (an old coins' necklace) *garsari*, *suhagmala* and *mangalsutra* are adorned on the neck. Alongwith these, glass-beads of various colours usually termed as *gatti*, are the

fascinating additions with Gond and Korku women. As armlets, *kada*, *banvanta*, *patli*, *kankan*, *guleta* and *churiya* or glass bangles are commonly worn. The elbows are adorned with *tadiya* and *bankadya* of silver. In the fingers are worn rings, locally termed as *mundri*. In the feet amongst Gond women, *paidi* is a typical ornament, usually of brass, plated with silver, which gives jingling sound while walking. Over *paidi* is worn *chuda* of brass, and a few women, who could afford wear *kadi* of silver. Korkus in general wear *dangre*, brass-rings worn in pair, in each foot, and *sootra*, tight clamps. Other women, particularly amongst Kunbi, *todi* and *pejan* are much in vogue. In the fingers of the feet married women wear *jodvi* amongst Kunbis, *bichhia* and *machchli* amongst Bhoyars, Rajputs and others, and *muddi* amongst Gonds which is like a check-nut of iron.

Tattooing

Tattooing is more prevalent amongst tribals like Gonds and Korkus rather than other castes. Gonds seem to attach more importance to it than Korkus, though all of these wear it in the sense of decoration. Amongst these tribes such marks are had by women-folk and occasionally by men. The arms, forearms, (amongst Korkus only one hand), chin, cheeks and legs are commonly tattooed. Korkus rarely get their feet tattooed. Apart from these, on the forehead a dot or three dots arranged in triangle on the forehead, and a dot on the cheek and chin are marked. The tattooing on the forehead is usually a floral or the geometrical design. Sometimes males get their friend's name tattooed. Gond women get their feet tattooed slightly above the knees. These marks are made by the professionals visiting the village occasionally or in the markets or fairs.

Food Habits

The majority of the people are non-vegetarians, only a few like Brahmins and castes under the fold of Vaishya being vegetarians. Generally people have two meals a day, one in the mid-day and another in the evening. The pastoral artisan and agricultural classes, however, usually require in the early hours of morning before setting-out for work one additional meal which consists of *chapatis*, the left-over from the previous day eaten with chillies, salt, etc. Tea has also occupied a place in their breakfast, not only in urban but also in the villages in the proximity of urban areas. In the interior of Bhainsdehi and Multai Tahsils tea has not yet had access so far. Food for breakfast is rarely cooked. Korkus in the morning also take *pej*, a gruel prepared out of flour of jowar or wheat.

The rural inhabitants usually take lunch between also, and *bhat*. *Chapaties*, 1 p.m. and 3 p.m., consisting chiefly of *chapatis*, *dal*, sometimes vegetable in general, are of wheat, jowar, *birra* (wheat and gram), *baira*, and *bhat* is of rice, *kodon*, or *kutki*. The poor section consumes wheat on festive occasions only. *Dal* amongst well-off sections is usually of arhar, mung and urd, but

amongst poor section *masoor* and *godmal* are consumed commonly. Vegetables are not regularly taken. In the mid-day meals amongst poor section *pej*, a gruel prepared out of jowar and wheat-flour is also consumed. This is generally done when there is nothing to accompany the *Chapaties*. *Bhat* is usually prepared of rice but Gonds and Korkus always consume *kodon* and *kutki*. Some of the people both in the urban and rural areas, particularly Kunbis, relish *besan*, preparation of gram-flour as a substitute for vegetables.

On special occasions *chapatis* are replaced by *puris*, fried *chapatis*, and articles like *bade*, a preparation of mung and urd pulse, *bhajia*, a preparation of gram-flour stuffed with vegetable, *halva* and *laddu* are added to the normal meals. Amongst non-vegetarians on festive occasions, the meals necessarily comprise one non-vegetarian dish.

The dietary of urban middle-class and also the ruralites is much more elaborate. Besides the usual cereals and pulses, dairy products, viz., curd, butter-milk and ghee are included quite often. Morning tea is 'must' for urbanites which is many a time followed by breakfast and two meals.

Amusement

The main source of amusement of the rural inhabitants is gossiping at the *choupal*, the common meeting place or an individual's house, particularly the house of well-off people. In the villages around the urban areas, movies and other social activities, occasionally add to their amusement. Weekly markets and fairs are sources of attractive means of amusement. The weekly markets are generally found full with young people of both the sexes enjoying the purchasing and village sports at times.

Generally, the ruralites have little time for amusement and recreation, though in off-season, in their leisure hours, they spend much of their time in gossiping, indoor games, listening of *Ramayan* and *bhajans*, devotional songs. The village-radio under the Community Listening Programme is increasingly resorted to as a popular entertainer.

The urban areas, however, have more elaborate sources of amusement. Here it would be worth mentioning that the sources of amusement in the rural areas are always collective but in urban areas it is more on the individual basis, excepting for the recreational clubs, in which the membership is restricted. The movies, sports, socio-religious festivals like Ganesh *Utsava*, Janamashtmi and other social functions conducted by various institutions form a major source of recreation.

Dances

Alongwith these are a few dances performed by the ruralites, particularly by Gonds, Korkus and a few other castes. Gonds are famous for their *Karma*, *dandhar* and *phag* dances, while Korkus for *godali* and *sutum*. The *Karma* is

repeated all through the cold weather. In the dance both men and women take part in two rows opposite each other. The musician plays on *timki*, a drum sitting just in the centre. The dance is performed with measured steps, and to the accompaniment of songs, one row answering the other. *Dandhar* is also performed by Kunbis and Telis after the Diwali. For *dandhar*, a pole is erected and men stand in line and dance, moving side-ways, front and backwards, and the sticks in the two hands are beaten in rhythm. The dance is performed with the accompaniment of music, and erotic songs. Like *dandhar*, *phag* is also performed and sung by many castes. Amongst Gonds, in the month of Phalgun (February-March), i.e., before and after Holi, the male-folk would sit together around the fire and sing songs with the accompaniment of *timki* and *nagara*. Quite close to the group of men-folk, women would stand in a circle, each one taking a bunch of peacock feathers in hand, and moving side-ways only and waving the bunch of peacock feathers up and down. While dancing they sing just one line of a song after the previous line is sung by the men-folk. They perform this dance for three to four hours. Ahirs on Diwali put on fantastic dress, wearing peacock feathers on their head-gear, and also on their arms, shoulders and hang strings of cowries round their neck. They wear hollow anklets filled with pebbles to make them rattle. Thus attired, they go round the houses of well-to-do persons, drinking and dancing. They also visit weekly markets of the vicinity, and get presents. In all these dances liquor is freely served.

Birth-rites, Mundan Sanskar and Thread Ceremony

The birth of a child in the house is always a moment of pleasure in all the families. The birth of the first child in the family is anxiously awaited. On the sixth day, ceremony of *chhatti* is celebrated by cleaning the house and giving bath to the child and mother. *Puja* is also offered to Devi on this day. The twelfth-day is the name-giving ceremony, during which a suitable name is given to the child in consultation with the Brahmin or *Joshi*. The ceremony of *mundan* or taking-off hair is conducted practically amongst all the castes, including Gonds. Generally, it is considered that the *mundan sanskar* should be performed before the child attains the age of three years. In majority of the castes it is performed on the first Shivratri after the birth of the child. The child is given new clothes and a little *puja* is performed. Oil and turmeric are smeared over his head. Hairs thus taken-off are kept carefully either inside a flour-dough or immersed in some river or stream.

Except for Brahmins none of the castes in the District perform the thread ceremony. The thread ceremony is the same as is prevalent amongst northern and southern districts of the State.

Festivals

The Hindu calendar year starts with the festival of Godi-padwa, the first day of Chaitra in which they raise banner of silk-and-gold cloth on a long pole

and pay homage to it. This is followed by the Ram Navami, the birthday celebrations of Rama. In the month of Vaisakh, Akhtij or Akshya-Tritiya is celebrated by all, particularly those engaged in cultivation as the agriculture year starts on this day. The Akhtij is followed by the festival of Jiroti in Asadha. This festival is of Gonds but it is celebrated by all the castes. Korkus offer feast in the name of ancestors. In general Goddess 'Devi' is worshipped. On Nagpanchmi day cobras are worshipped which are brought by the professional snake-charmers. Raksha Bhandhan falls on the full moon day of Shravan which is also associated with the festival of Bhujaria in which barley or wheat grains are sprouted and grown in earthen pots. After their worship they are taken out on the head of ladies, in attendance of band, for immersion in stream. Pola falls in the month of Bhadon when bullocks of the village are smeared with turmeric, their horns decorated and they are fed in new basket. This ceremony is known *khando-mandi*. The festival of Pola is followed by the festival by Ganesh Puja, Pitra Moksha and Durga Puja or Dussehra which fall in Kunwar. Gonds worship Dongar Deo, the God of Hills. Some sacrifices, either of goat or chicken, is offered to him alongwith lemon and coconut. Diwali, as is known, in the festival of lights, and Hindus offer *puja* to Goddess Lakshmi. Businessmen open their new accounts and ledgers. On the eve of Diwali entire house and premises are cleaned, white-washed and decorated. On the second day of Diwali people make a large figure of cow-dung called 'Gowardhan' together with representation of all household utensils. Ahirs go out dancing, singing the songs of Diwali from door to door. Gonds do not have any fixed day for the celebration of Diwali; instead the celebration of the festival is decided by a Committee of the village. The village Gaike (A Gond having grazing as profession) would visit each of his customer and dance before their house. He is accompanied by unmarried girls having *kalash* a water-pitcher, over their head in the attendance of drums and music.

On Shivratri, quite a good number of people go to Bade Mahadeo at Pachmarhi on pilgrimage. The festival of Holi is celebrated as elsewhere except for the difference of the performance of Meghnath and Jeri. Meghnath is chiefly the function of Gonds but alongwith Gonds other castes also participate in it. After the Holi, the ceremony of Meghnath is performed. "A high pole is erected and a cross-bar turning in a socket is secured to the top of it. The pole is cut from the forest in a place where two straight trees grow together, it being said that the place from which to cut it is revealed to the *Bhumka* in a dream. It is brought from the forest on a cart drawn by ten pairs of bullocks and a quantity of salt is placed in the hole dug for it to prevent the wood from rotting. When the ceremony is performed the *Bhumka* is tied to the cross-bar and ropes are secured to it and held by the people who pull the cross-bar round five times in a circle in its socket. In former times, the *Bhumka* was swung round, suspended by a hook fixed in his back, and the ceremony is supposed to exercise an important influence in the direction of securing success of the crops, but what

the idea underlying it is, cannot be stated."¹ However, local enquiry at village Bhaura in the District revealed that the person swung round the pole does so for the fulfilment of some cherished desire. The pole is left standing from year to year and if it falls down it is considered to be bad omen.

After the Meghnath another pole is also erected for the performance of Jeri. This pole is made slippery by frequent application of oil. A bag containing *gur* and little money is tied on the top. Men get around the Jeri pole and try to climb the pole and fetch the bag containing *gur*. The women around the pole beat the persons with sticks to prevent them from doing so. If no man succeeds in climbing the pole and getting the reward, the money and the *gur* is given to the women.

Fairs and Yatras

Important *Yatras* are held at a number of places in the District. In Betul Tahsil an important thirty-days' fair is held at Malajpur village near Chicholi. The pilgrims visit the fair in Pausa (January) to get the blessings of Deoji whose shrine is situated in the village. The fair is attended by about five thousand persons.

A religious fair is held at Bhopali, a small village in the north-east of Betul. In one of the three caves on a hill here an image of Mahadeo on which the water trickles from the roof is worshipped. The second cave contains an image of 'Parvati', and the third is known as *gaikotha* or the cow-house. The fair is held on the Shivratri day and the attendance varies between ten to fifteen thousand persons.

Local fairs are held on Kartika *Purnima* day at Multai, Theska (Baralinga) and Dhanora (Parasdoh) on the banks of the Tapti river. The attendance at these fairs is reported to be between five to ten thousand persons. Two important fairs are also held on the southern border of the District, one at Salbardi and another at Muktagiri. The fair at Muktagiri is held in the last week of Kartika, and the daily attendance is reported to be about ten thousand persons. There is a group of 25 Jain temples at the end of a deep ravine where a nullah enhances the beauty of the place by forming a pretty high waterfall. Majority of the visitors are Jains and other castes from the lower plains of Berar.

The fair at Salbardi, a small village on the Berar border on the banks of the Maru river, is held on Shivratri. There is a cave on a hill approached through a long narrow passage which contains an idol of Mahadeo. The fair lasts for 15 days and is attended by about 10,000 persons.

Other fairs of importance are the Guru Sahib Ka Mela (December-January) at Shahpur, which is held for five days and about 10,000 people attend it. It is managed by the Gram Panchayat. On the occasion of Holi, Meghnath Fair is

held in the month of Phalgun at Bajadehi, Dhodhramohar and Tara. At each place about a thousand persons assemble to witness the performance of Meghnath ceremony as described earlier.

Chhawal (March/April), Narera (October-November) and Tapti fairs (November) are held at Chhawal, Narera and Multai of Multai Tahsil. Their duration is a fortnight. However, the Narera fair is held for three days only and in which 1,000 people assemble. In the other two fairs the gathering is of about 5,000, and 10 to 15 thousand people, respectively, and these are arranged by Janapada Sabha, Gram-Panchayat and the Tahsildar, Multai, respectively.

A mention of Bairama fair would not be out of place at the moment. The fair is held at Bairam village on Betul-Ellichpur road just outside the District. The fair lasts for about a fortnight and is attended by a large number of people, particularly tribals of the Bhainsdehi Tahsil. The actual place is hardly a few furlongs from the District boundaries.

¹ Ibid., p. 37.

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

Agriculture is the mainstay of the economy of the District. Cultivation is of the settled type. According to the Census of 1961, out of 100 inhabitants of the District 91.6 lived in rural areas and the rest, viz., 8.4 in urban areas. At the earlier Census these proportions were 92.5 and 7.5, respectively. Although some shift to non-agricultural activities becomes apparent yet the basic rural character of the District remains undisturbed.

The bulk of the population draws its livelihood from agricultural occupations. Census 1961 reveals that 84 per cent of all workers in the District depend on agriculture. The highest degree of such dependence is observed in the entirely rural Bhainsdehi Tahsil, while Betul Tahsil has comparatively less dependence on agriculture. Multai Tahsil occupies intermediate position. In agriculture, cultivators are about four times as numerous as agricultural labourers. The statistics of 1961 Census are not strictly comparable with those of 1951 Census, but a look at the results of 1951 points out to the same trend, i.e., 81 per cent of the total population was deriving its livelihood from agricultural occupations.

Betul District with each of its tahsils is mainly a *kharif* area. The proportion under *kharif* is more than four-fifths of the total area cultivated in Bhainsdehi Tahsil. In Betul and Multai tahsils, there is considerable acreage under *rabi* also. On an average about two-fifths of the cultivated area in these two tahsils is under *rabi* crops. Wheat is the principal *rabi* crop while jowar is the *kharif* staple.

Foodgrains are sown in 93.7 per cent of the net sown area, the proportion separately for the tahsils being Multai—97.2, Betul—96.6 and Bhainsdehi—86.0 per cent. Food-crops which, besides foodgrains, include sugarcane, spices, etc., cover 95.2 per cent of the net sown area in the District and 99.3 per cent, 98 per cent, and 86.9 per cent of the corresponding net sown areas of Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi tahsils, respectively.

Betul District is self-sufficient with regard to its requirements of foodgrains with the exception of rice, pulses and edible oils which have to be brought from outside. Principal export commodities are groundnut, cotton and *gur*. The former two commodities have to be exported for want of oil mills and ginning factories, respectively.

Principal agricultural communities consist of Gond, Korku, Gauli, Kirad, Bhoyar and Kunbi. Out of these, the last three communities are skilled farmers and are first in the use of improved seeds, manures and fertilizers.

LAND UTILIZATION

Of the total area of the District amounting to 24,90,235 acres in 1964-65,¹ 10,34,857 acres or 41 per cent are included in forests. The forest area which stood at 7,45,179 acres in 1950-51, increased to 10,50,119 acres in the next year due to the inclusion of *malguzari* forests in the Government forest after the abolition of *malguzari* system. The variations in subsequent years have been due to reclassification of land, and reconciliation of forest area.

'Land not available for cultivation' comprising 'land put to non-agricultural uses' (97,534 acres) and 'barren and unculturable land' (65,034 acres) was recorded as 1,62,568 acres or six per cent of the District area. Variations in the area in the past have been attributed to correct classification of land use.

Land to the extent of 2,12,925 acres has been classified as 'other uncultivated land excluding current fallows'. This works out to 10 per cent of the District area. It is broken up into 'permanent pastures and other grazing lands' (70,429 acres), 'miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in net area sown' (26 acres) and, 'culturable waste' (1,42,470 acres). The reasons of variations are the same as stated earlier, i.e., a realistic classification of land. Area under 'culturable waste' deserves some special mention. It denotes the potential for the extension of cultivation in the District. It has gradually come down from 1,66,981 acres in 1953-54 to 1,42,470 acres in 1964-65. This decrease is mainly attributable to allotment of such land for cultivation, colonization and settlement of landless persons and efforts of farmers to bring such land under plough. It has been discussed at some length in subsequent paragraphs.

Fallow lands occupied 1,42,028 acres or six per cent of the total area of the District in 1964-65. This is sub-divided into 92,321 acres of 'old fallows' and 49,707 acres of 'current fallows'. The extent of 'current fallows' has varied from 50 to 69 thousand acres during the last 10 years, but the area under this land-use has shown a declining trend due to wider use of fertilizers, and creation of irrigation facilities. Rising price spiral has also spurred the cultivators to bring large areas of their holdings under plough. Land under 'other fallows' has also, similarly, decreased continuously for the same reasons.

The residual area is represented by 'net area sown' and is the most important and the largest. In 1964-65 it amounted to 9,37,857 acres. This is equivalent to 37.7 per cent of the total area of the District. The 'net area sown' coupled with 'current fallows' constitutes what is termed as the 'cultivated area.' Cropped area,

1. In 1960-61, area was recorded as 24,90,337 acres.

during the four years 1891-92 to 1894-95 averaged 10,63,535 acres. This area in 1904-05 obtained as 10,77,892 acres. The cropped area reached 11,72,437 acres in 1927-28.

During the last 15 years also, net area sown has increased steadily. In 1951-52 this area amounted to 22.4 per cent of the District area, while in 1960-61 this percentage was 36.8. As seen earlier, in 1964-65, the percentage reached the highest figure of 37.7 per cent.

Double-cropped area has always been small; it is dependent on the late monsoon rainfall and consequently shows the most violent fluctuations. It reached 23,000 acres in 1902-03 and fell as low as 2,000 acres in 1899-1900. With the expanding facility of irrigation it has increased and will tend to stabilize itself. During the period 1950-51 to 1964-65 it doubled itself from 42,891 acres to 83,258 acres though in 1963-64, it established the all-time high record of 94,740 acres. Multai Tahsil has the highest area which is sown more than once.

Double-cropped area falls into two divisions consisting either of good land sown with rice, kutki, urad or sanwa as a catch crop before wheat or some other *rabi* crop or of poor soil sown with gram, after kutki, rice or sanwa when the rains are sufficiently late for the ground to retain moisture.

Cultivable Waste

The cultivable wasteland has been defined to include land available for cultivation whether not taken up for cultivation or abandoned after a few years for one reason or the other. Such lands may be either fallow or covered with shrubs and jungles which are not put to any use. They may be in isolated blocks or within cultivated holdings. Land once cultivated but not cultivated for the last five years in succession is also included in this category. The fall in the area of cultivable waste with reasons thereof has already been referred to.

As noted, 1,42,470 acres of land was returned as cultivable waste. Bulk of this waste land, 1,14,867 acres, it was reported, could be reclaimed immediately, 19,285 acres after some improvement and the rest of this type of land, viz., 8,318 acres, consisting of uneconomic small patches of land or large blocks of land, was reclaimable only at a prohibitive cost. The Waste Land Survey and Reclamation Committee of the Government of India which was appointed to locate cultivable wastelands in large blocks for reclamation and resettlement in its Report for Madhya Pradesh (1961) was of the opinion that the area of the cultivable wasteland might be discounted and that only a small proportion of the wasteland was available in large-sized blocks. The distribution of such lands in blocks of various sizes in the year 1957-58 was as indicated below:—

	Block		Area	
	(No.)	(Per cent)	(Acre)	(Per cent)
Below 15 acres	68,651	98.73	1,26,591	85.64
15—30 acres	746	1.07	14,944	10.11

30—50 acres	101	0.15	3,650	2.47
50—100 acres	30	0.04	1,988	1.34
Above 100 acres	7	0.01	652	0.44
Total	69,535	100	1,47,825	100

In Betul District four large-sized blocks, each consisting of more than 250 acres, aggregating 1,486 acres were offered for reclamation. Three blocks were located in Bhainsdehi Tahsil at Gargud, Bakhed and Balkheda. The entire area was found to be infested with thick growth of shrubs and jungle. The soil was red and poor in organic matter. The area received a rainfall of 40-45 inches. Irrigation was not available. The cost of reclamation was estimated at Rs. 300 to Rs. 400 per acre. The fourth block was located in village Dunda Borgaon of Betul Tahsil. The area was infested with shrubs and bushes. The soil was red-loam and light in texture and very poor in organic matter. Irrigation could be provided by construction of wells. The cost of reclamation was estimated at about Rs. 100 per acre.

A survey of cultivable wasteland undertaken in Betul District in 1963 brought forth the fact that the total area of cultivable wastelands in occupied and unoccupied areas is 1,17,409 acres as against 1,29,305 acres reported in the returns of agricultural statistics for 1962-63. Thus, the actual area of the cultivable wasteland according to the survey is only 90.8 per cent of that reported in Patwari papers. The number of blocks and their areas are shown in the Table below:—

Tahsil	Details of Cultivable Wastelands			Percentage of Cultivable Wastelands to the Total Geographical Area of the Tahsil/District
	In Unoccupied Area	In Occupied Area	Total	
1. Betul				
No. of Blocks	1,138	19,485	20,623	
Area (Acres)	1,616	47,242	48,858	8.1
2. Multai				
No. of Blocks	214	21,378	21,592	
Area (Acres)	593	39,132	39,725	6.8
3. Bhainsdehi				
No. of Blocks	432	13,575	14,007	
Area (Acres)	1,218	27,609	28,827	5.0
Total for District				
No. of Blocks	1,784	54,438	56,222	
Area (Acres)	3,426	1,13,983	1,17,409	90.8

Most of the blocks of cultivable wastelands in the District are scattered in small patches. The average area of each block works out to 2.09 acres. It is

1.92 acres per block in unoccupied area and 2.1 acres in occupied holdings. Classification of blocks on the basis of area gives the following results:—

- (a) Blocks of 5 acres or less—90.0 per cent.
- (b) Blocks of between 5 to 20 acres—9.7 per cent.
- (c) Blocks of more than 20 acres—0.3 per cent.

The blocks included in (a) and (b) above account for 94.6 per cent of the total culturable wasteland and those under (c) cover 5.4 per cent.

There is no block of more than 100 acres in the unoccupied holdings. Culturable waste comprised in unoccupied holdings is not known to have ever been cultivated in the past except for unauthorized cultivation in some cases. As regards blocks in occupied holdings 82.1 per cent of them have not been cultivated for the last 5 to 10 years and 13.3 per cent for 10 to 20 years. For 4.6 per cent of the blocks, the period of cultivation could not be determined.

Various reasons have been attributed to the non-cultivation of culturable wasteland in occupied holdings. The chief reason is carelessness of the owners to bring the land under cultivation. Some blocks have gone out of cultivation due to soil deterioration on account of erosion. Another reason is uneconomic cultivation due to low productivity of soil. In some cases it was also due to the land being in excess of the requirements of the owner or because of lack of proper means for bringing the land under cultivation due to poverty of their holders. Visitation by flood is also one of the contributory reasons which have kept these lands out of cultivation.

Blocks numbering 41,679 (and covering an area of 90,638 acres) have *bardi* soil, 4,277 blocks (5,570 acres) *morand* soil, 4,043 blocks (8,585 acres) *sihar* soil, 3,675 blocks (5,257 acres) *mutharra* soil, 1,478 blocks (3,993 acres) *lakad* soil, 39 blocks (38 acres) sandy soil, and the rest 1,021 blocks (3,328 acres) other types of soils. Majority of the blocks of culturable wastelands both in occupied and unoccupied holdings are found to be grown with grass and shrubs and utilized for the grazing of cattle.

Exploitation of this wasteland for cultivation would require land development and soil conservation measures through the use of agricultural machinery. Tractorization would be necessary for about 600 acres of land. Rest of the blocks can be reclaimed with the help of ordinary country plough and local human and cattle labour, clearance of shrub jungles, filling of ditches and levelling of ground would also be needed in a few cases. As regards suitability of culturable wastelands to grow different crops, it has been found that 59.6 per cent of the area is suited for the cultivation of kodon-kutki, 24.3 per cent for jowar, 7.6 per cent for ramtil, 6 per cent for wheat, and 2.1 per cent for gram. Small blocks can also bear crops of cotton, sesamum, linseed, and maize.

As regards utilization of culturable wastelands, the work of resettlement of landless persons on an organized basis was started only under the Second Plan. Due to non-availability of such land in very large blocks on account of intensive cultivation, operations were confined to allotment of land to landless labourers on individual basis. Under the scheme, Government land to the extent of being cultivated by one pair of bullocks is allotted to one family. The land is reclaimed at Government expense, before it is allotted. Each allottee is also given a loan of Rs. 1,700 for purchase of bullocks and agricultural implements and for building a house. Half the amount spent on building the house is treated as grant, provided it is properly and fully utilized. The amount of loan is recoverable in 10 annual instalments commencing from the second year. The work gathered momentum after it was placed under the charge of the State Directorate of Land Records.

In 1960, a colony consisting of five families and spread over 101 acres of Government wasteland was established at Shergarh (Multai Tahsil). Besides, during the three years 1956-57 to 1958-59, land totalling 3,563 acres was allotted on individual basis.

IRRIGATION

Looking to the normal quantum of rainfall received in the District and widespread cultivation of *rabi*, the crops should come to successful maturity without the aid of artificial irrigation. But the rainfall should be fairly distributed in time and space, and this condition is often not fulfilled. Moreover, the preponderance of light, shallow and stony soils renders it peculiarly sensitive to long cessations of rainfall. Irrigation thus becomes imperative to provide stability to agriculture. However, under the conditions, as they are, losses are minimised by the admirable variety of cropping and the skill and industry of the cultivators on the trap areas.

The area irrigated in 1904-05 was 8,900 acres. Forty years later, i.e., in 1944-45 net area irrigated was recorded as 20.5 thousand acres which was equivalent to 2.6 per cent of the net cropped area. In 1964-65, the net area irrigated further rose to 51.4 thousand acres or 5.5 per cent of the net area cropped. Six-fold increase over a span of 60 years is a good progress, and Betul enjoys a comfortable position amongst the districts of Madhya Pradesh from the point of view of acreage of irrigation. But the progress has not been commensurate with the requirements of the agricultural economy of the District.

Prior to the launching of the First Five Year Plan, there was little progress in irrigated agriculture. It was almost exclusively confined to construction and repair of wells. Real beginnings in this direction may be said to have synchronised with the Plans. Construction of irrigation works received considerable attention in the District only thereafter. To begin with an irrigation scheme, medium in character, Sampna tank was included in the First Plan. Under this scheme

earthen dam has been constructed across the Sampna nullah near Khapa village of the District. The length of the bund is 5,400 ft. and maximum height 70 ft. It was completed in the year 1959 at a cost of Rs. 48.78 lakhs. Its designed irrigation capacity is 9,500 acres. Situated on the hills of the Satpura range, it is 7.5 miles from Betul, towards Nagpur. One minor scheme, Gorgi Nullah regulator was taken up and completed during the First Plan. It has a designed irrigation area of 50 acres. Nine works with a designed irrigation of 1,050 acres were completed in the Second Plan period. Pace of expansion of irrigation was further accelerated during the Third Plan period when 25 schemes were taken up which were designed to irrigate 2,835 acres. Details of the schemes may be seen in Appendix—A.

A medium irrigation scheme Chandora Irrigation Project is awaiting technical sanction and administrative approval of the Government. Expected to cost Rs. 174.45 lakhs, it will irrigate 10,300 acres in 15 villages of Multai Tahsil, on full development. Its location is eight miles from Multai on Multai-Masod road.

Sources of Irrigation

Wells

Wells constitute the backbone of the irrigation system of the District. Appendix—A will show that till the year 1948-49, with the exception of some area irrigated by other sources, the entire irrigation was done by wells. It was only in the year 1949-50 that tanks emerged as a source of irrigation and benefited a bare area of 100 acres.

From 20.8 thousand acres in 1909-10, well irrigation increased to 47.8 thousand acres or 93.0 per cent of total irrigated area in 1964-65.

In 1904-05, 4,896 wells were recorded. In 1963-64, their number had gone up to 16,794 out of which 6,279 wells (48 Government and 6,231 private) were masonry and 10,515 wells (90 Government and 10,425 private) were non-masonry.

The water-table ranges between 30 and 50 feet. In many cases the well is abandoned on account of the rocky strata. This factor also hampers the digging of wells. However, in parts of the central trap plateau water is found even in the hot weather only 8 to 10 feet below the surface, but generally the hot weather level is 20 to 30 feet. Elsewhere, water is commonly found at depths of 50, 60 or even 70 feet. On the undulating trap plateau durable wells can be made without brick and lime; the black soil is not very deep and the lower portion of the well passes through *muram* or rock, requiring no support; while the upper part passing through black soil is shored up with blocks of uncut stone which rest on a ledge in the *muram* or rock. Such wells last for many years and cost but little in repairs. In other parts of the District, the soft deep soil makes a brick well to be a necessity. In many parts rock is soon found beneath the surface and blasting entails a considerable expenditure and there is often no certainty that

water will be found. The shallow wells shored up with timber which appear to have been common at the 30 Years' Settlement are now extinct. As a rule, irrigation wells are small and narrow, just large enough to admit of one *mote* being worked, though better and bigger wells are also occasionally found. Cost of construction of a *kutch* well varies between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 1,200. A *pucca* well may cost anywhere between Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 2,500. A well usually can irrigate from three to five acres.

Canals and Tanks

This source of irrigation is of little consequence in the irrigated agriculture of the District. Only with the commissioning of the Sampna tank, canal irrigation got a start in the District. With the completion of storage irrigation schemes, this source of irrigation fore-shadows a bright future. Contribution of canals and tanks rose from 0.1 thousand acres in 1954-55 to 2.6 thousand acres in 1964-65, though 1961-62 had recorded 6.2 thousand acres.

Other Sources

This category consists of diversion schemes. In years of drought spasmodic attempts are made to distribute water by damming up small streams. Generally, even the big nullahs are not perennial and the flow ceases by November or December. Hence, this method of diversion of post—monsoon flow is not reliable and successful. It is apt to fail in a year of drought when water is needed most.

Mode of Irrigation

During the first decade of this Century the *mote* (a leather bucket) was the only and the universal mode of raising water from the wells and no other devices of any kind were employed. The traditional *mote* is generally used even now and the 1961 Census recorded 18,445 *motes*, as against 16,811 in 1956. Multai Tahsil accounts for the majority of *motes*, viz., 13,458, the remaining being shared almost equally, by the other two tahsils. The number of Persian wheels similarly, declined from 41 in 1956 to 31 in 1961. A leather *mote* costs about Rs. 40. An iron *mote* may cost just double the amount. A *mote* may irrigate from two to three acres per day.

Irrigation pumps both diesel and electric are spreading rapidly. From 149 in 1951 diesel pumps increased to 293 in 1956 and to 452 in 1961. Number of electric pumps shows phenomenal growth from none in 1951, to 5 in 1956 and to 126 in 1961. In 1961, 251 diesel pumps were in use in Multai Tahsil, 106 in Bhainsdehi Tahsil and 95 in Betul Tahsil. In the same year Betul Tahsil had 100 electric pumps, Multai Tahsil 26 and Bhainsdehi Tahsil none. Electric pumps have caught the imagination of the cultivators and the demand for these pumps is soaring high, circumscribed only by the limited availability of power. Power has, however, reached the areas served by Betul-Khedi line, Betul-Multai line, Multai-Mohi line, Multai-Bhainsdehi via Athnair line, Itarsi-Ghoradongri line, Shahpur-Kundi line and Shahpur-Barbutpur line. The last decade thus marks

the beginning of mechanical irrigation in the District. It may also be noted here that while in the opening years of this Century, no attempts were made to invest money for *rabi* irrigation, now the cultivator is becoming increasingly irrigation-conscious.

A number of rivers traverse the District. Three big rivers, the Tapti, the Wardha and the Purna and numerous small rivers, viz., the Tawa, the Machna, the Sampna, the Bel, etc., either originate or flow through the District. All these sources offer potentialities for further development of irrigation.

Crops Irrigated

Wheat is responsible for the largest irrigated acreage of the District. Next comes sugarcane. Sugarcane is planted in furrows and irrigation is easy. But wheat, which is a close-growing crop of the open fields is irrigated by wild flooding. The land is undulating and the result is uneven irrigation, soil-erosion and uneven crop growth. As an answer to this, border strips and contour water channels have been introduced on the Government Farm, Betul, but have not yet become popular with the farming community. Looking to the large area under irrigation, efforts need be directed towards levelling of lands and introducing new methods of irrigation. While conserving water resources, it will also conserve soil and thus ensure healthy growth of crops.

Soil-Erosion

The undulating topography of the District, steep-sloped on three sides, uncovered hill-tops, and heavy precipitation in July and August make the land vulnerable to soil-erosion. The velocity of running water carries fine particles of soil and leaves behind a layer of coarse grit. This happens in two ways. In fairly level fields the sheet of fine soil is washed slowly but in slopy lands small gullies are formed, which widen every year, carrying tons of fine soil to the rivers and many small streams. Thus, soil-erosion is the major problem of the District. The percentage of heavy soils like *kali*, *morand*, etc., has been reduced considerably during the last 50 years and that of *bardi* increased. Checking the velocity of the flowing water by field embankments, contour-bunds, terracing, afforestation, etc., can arrest this loss. The practice of constructing embankments along the field boundaries has been followed for a long time in the past. The pilot demonstration project, Milanpur, was established in 1955-56 where present measures of soil-conservation practices are demonstrated in about 3,000 acres, spread over five villages, viz., Milanpur, Ankawadi, Parsodi, Hathnora and Jagdhar. This Centre demonstrates various soil-conservation practices, viz., contour-bunding, field-bunding, gully-plugging, tree-planting, pasture-development, strip-cropping and popularizing improved agronomic practices. This requires technical guidance, and demands from cultivators are now forthcoming asking for this help from the Soil Conservation Section of the Agriculture Department. The cultivators have realised the usefulness of this method of soil-conservation. Contour-bunding operations were launched in 1960-61 and till 1965-66 more than 46 thousand acres had been so benefited. Terracing is simple. All that is necessary is to place

lines of large stones across slope of the fields at intervals. The interval and the height of the bund depend on the slope; if the slope is greater the interval is less and the height to which the stones are piled greater and *vice-versa*. In course of time, the land between the two intervals is levelled and the whole area is covered with series of levelled terraces. Such terraces can be seen in Multai Tahsil and a number of other villages inhabited by aboriginals. Afforestation also helps in reducing soil-erosion.

The uncovered hill-tops have exposed the whole area to soil-erosion. The idea of covering these naked hill-tops with any kind of vegetation has not taken the momentum it deserves. Cashewnut planting would not only supply this vegetative cover but will also remunerate the cultivators considerably as this is a dollar-earning crop. Cashewnut is a hardy plant and does not need great care once it is established. It grows well on hill slopes almost in wild condition. The plant is well suited for Betul District. With the abolition of *malguzari* and taking over of the *malguzari* forest by the Government the plan of afforestation is in progress and this will also help in reducing soil-erosion.

Soils

The District is situated on a plateau sloping towards north, west and south-west. It contains no large tracts of uniform soils. The plateau country consists of broad open valleys fringed here and there with low rolling stony hills. Exception to this is provided by 50 to 60 villages, the kernel of the District around Betul situated in an open level tract of fertile soil forming a triangle with vertices at Betul, Betul-Bazar and Khedi and about 20 villages on the Bel river near Amla. The valleys cut the slope of hills. The soils vary not only from village to village, but also from field to field. In general, about 75 per cent of the cultivated area is poor quality soil. The soils vary from rich wheat land to poor *bardi* soils, suited to kodon and kutki only. In some places, there are pockets of fairly good black soils, which respond to irrigation.

From the point of view of physical characteristics the soils have been classed as *kali*, *morand*, *mutbarra*, *bardi*, *sihar*, and *retari*.

Kali

Black soil is locally known as *kali*. This is black or dark brown clay soil of great depth. This differs from *morand* in being less friable and heavier. It has more cohesiveness and cracks to a greater extent. The District contains none of the best soils of this class and what exists is classed as *kali II*. The area of even this type is not much having been reduced considerably. This soil is of great fertility. It grows the finest sugarcane crop and can also produce good crop of wheat year after year without rotation and manure. But, if soil-conservation methods are not adopted, the soil is likely to deteriorate still further.

Morand

It is a friable loam varying in colour from black to brown. It often consists of a considerable admixture of black stones. Everywhere it contains certain pro-

portion of lime modules. It does not run to any great depth, 10 feet being the maximum and in places it is as shallow as two feet. It has been divided into two classes, *morand I* and *morand II*. *Morand II* has less depth, is lighter in colour and contains more proportion of stones, sand and lime. The two classes together form a great proportion of *rabi* areas, accounting for 19.2 per cent of the total area under cultivation. The proportion of this soil has gone down from 26 to 19.2 during the last 50 years for want of soil-conservation. This soil grows all kinds of crops, the more valuable being wheat and sugarcane and also the inferior millets, oilseeds and sunn-hemp. It responds well to irrigation.

Mutbarra

It corresponds to local *bhabar*. The name does not denote a distinct class of soils. It is applied to (a) black soil not more than a foot in depth, and (b) soil in the trap country not capable of growing *rabi* but is better than *bardi*. Both classes are found between *morand* and *bardi*, the former contiguous to *morand* and the latter to *bardi*. The best *mutbarra* grows wheat in rotation with gram and masur. The second class grows jowar, oilseeds and lesser millets and one test of its superiority over *bardi* is offered by the frequency with which it is necessary to give rest.

Bardi

This soil is generally a red gravel, thickly strewn with reddish stones of a fair size. But it may almost either be free of stones or full of yellow flints. In addition, there is a poor ash-coloured soil, soft but shallow, which is found in small patches along the southern *ghats* and is also classed as *bardi*. This soil grows jowar and *til* in rotation with small millets and jagni, but it is easily exhausted and requires frequent fallows. It has to rest for three years after three years of cropping, but owing to shortage of land, the rest period is reduced to one year. The proportion of this poor soil has increased from 39 to 51.6 per cent during the last 50 years.

Sihar and Retari

Sihar is a sandy loam found along banks of small streams and at the edge of *morand*. At its best it will grow wheat and at its worst jowar and gram. It is well suited for irrigation. *Retari* includes all sandy soils, poorer than *sihar*. It grows nothing else than kodon, kutki and jagni. In between these two, there is a soil, in the Tawa Valley locally known as *thotar*. This is inferior to *sihar* but better than *retari*. It grows *til* but not jowar or gram. *Sihar* and *retari* occupy 6.4 and 7.3 per cent of the gross cropped area, respectively.

Agricultural Crops

The crops are divided according to the season in which they are grown, viz., *kharif* (grown during the rainy season) and *rabi* (winter crops). There are certain lands which can grow both *kharif* and *rabi* crops. Percentage of *kharif* to the total cropped area has ranged between 65 and 72 depending on the rainfall.

In case of heavy and continuous rainfall the *kharif* crops suffer and the area reduced. Similarly, when the rainfall is scanty, the *rabi* area is reduced.

The rainfall generally starts in the third week of June and the sowings of *kharif* crops begin in the third or fourth week of the month. The rainfall is generally concentrated during the months of July and August. In September, the rains are intermittent when the lands for *rabi* are prepared. The sowing of *rabi* crops generally starts early in October, but in some years, when the rains are late *rabi* crops are sown by the middle of November. In case, there are winter showers in December or January the *rabi* crops prosper well.

Jowar (*Sorghum vulgare*)

Jowar has now firmly established its claim as the foremost crop of the District. From 38.2 thousand acres in 1891-92, it has grown from strength to strength commanding 89.9 thousand acres in 1901-02, 159.4 thousand acres in 1921-22, 184.4 thousand acres in 1941-42 and 162.7 thousand acres in 1961-62. The largest area of 220.1 thousand acres under jowar was recorded in the year 1942-43. Having risen as a formidable competitor to wheat it has now outstripped wheat. The south-western Bhainsdehi Tahsil has about one-fourth of its net area sown under jowar, Multai Tahsil has a little over one-fifth, while the northern Betul Tahsil has about one-tenth of its net area sown under this crop.

During the period 1930-31 to 1963-64 largest production of 61.1 thousand tons was recorded in 1953-54, while 1946-47 will be remembered for giving the lowest yield, i.e., 21.5 thousand tons. Standard yield of jowar has been computed as 450 lbs. per acres, though for 1963-64, it was worked out at 615 lbs. per acre.

In general, jowar has thrived on the misfortunes of wheat. In former years it was rare to find jowar on land fit to grow wheat but the seasons of deficient rainfall and difficulty in procuring *rabi* seed in sufficient quantities induced the people to put considerable areas of *rabi* land under jowar. Later, it appears that newly broken land was brought under jowar cultivation. Jowar is the staple food of the people. In the villages bordering Vidarbha it is grown on Vidarbha cropping pattern in rotation with cotton on the best land, but in other parts it is generally raised on *mutbarra* or *bardi* soils in rotation with jagni, kodon and kutki. It is rarely grown on *retari* soils of sandstone type except in low-lying patches of *sihar* soils near streams, where it is generally rotated with gram.

For jowar cultivation, two summer *bakharings* and two *bakharings* after the rains are given. Sowing is done in lines by a plough or *bakhar* with the seed-tube following the furrow opened by plough or one tine of the *bakhar*. In some places bordering Vidarbha, *tiffin* (three tined seed-drill) is used for sowing. Rarely is the seed broad-cast. *Argala* or a four-tined implement is also used for sowing jowar, with three women drilling seed in bamboo tubes following in the furrow of the tines and the fourth furrow serving as a guide. Two weedings are given and the crop is hoed two or three times to suppress the weeds and to loosen the soil round

the roots. This operation is done by an implement called *daura*, a small *bakhar*. The spacing between the two lines is kept at 15 in. and between the plants about 9 in. If the crop is thickly sown the plants are thinned out at the time of weeding. No manure is given to this crop. It gets the advantage of manure applied to the preceding cotton crop. It is sown in mid-June in light soil, and in early July in heavier soils, and harvested in November and December. This crop requires careful watching from the time the cobs come out till it is harvested, as the crop is liable to damage by birds. In between jowar crop, tur is sown as a mixed crop and also mung or urad in small proportion. The seed-rate is about 8-10 lbs.

The most common disease of jowar is smut. This is a seed-borne disease and instead of seed, white or brown kernels are formed. Treating seed with copper carbonate, sulphur or Agrosan G. N. before sowing, controls the appearance of the disease. Jowar stem-borer (*Chilo-zonellus*, Sw.) is the common pest, which bores through the stem and cuts the growing shoots. In early stages, new side-shoots are formed and the damage is minimised. The larvae pupate inside the stem, and burning the remains of jowar stalks is necessary to prevent the multiplication of the pest. *Agia* (*Striga Lutea*) a parasitic plant, the roots of which twine round roots of jowar plant, checks its growth. It is controlled by spraying 2-4 D, a weedicide.

Wheat (*Triticum sativum*)

Wheat is the most important *rabi* crop of the District. Till the second decade of this Century it held the field as the prominent crop of the District, but then it had to give way to the fast expanding jowar. It occupies about 17 to 20 per cent of the cropped area. Wheat commanded the largest area in 1928-29 when it occupied 1,85,300 acres. On account of the vagaries of monsoon, cold, frost, hailstorms and rust, the area gradually shrank to 63,300 acres in 1947-48. But the lowest acreage of 56,300 was recorded at the turn of the last Century, viz., 1899-1900 due to extremely unfavourable conditions. However, the area recovered in the following years on account of favourable weather conditions. In the year 1964-65, wheat was grown on 1,54,956 acres. Area under it is highest in the open trap Tahsil of Multai with Betul Tahsil closely following. The share of Bhainsdehi Tahsil is correspondingly smaller. Production of wheat amounted to 30.1 thousand tons in 1963-64. The highest record was established in 1922-23 with 49.0 thousand tons.

At the 30 Years' Settlement red wheat predominated and was much esteemed for local consumption. It was replaced by soft white wheat locally known as *pissi*. The construction of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway placed Betul in a position to supply this soft white wheat to the European market and this fact lent great support to the rapid expansion of *pissi*. The improved *pissi* varieties introduced by the Agriculture Department were AO 49 and AO 68. These were very popular varieties but were susceptible to rust and, therefore, were not suitable for irrigation. Irrigation prolongs the period of maturity and thus exposes the crop to damage by rust. Hence, rust-resistant variety was in demand. In 1947-48

and again in 1955-56, the rust had appeared nearly in all the villages and caused heavy damage to wheat crop. By this time, hybrid varieties of wheat were already introduced and were grown here and there. These varieties stood the rust, when other varieties were completely damaged. This nearly eliminated the seed of soft varieties and Hy. 65 and Hy. 11, and amber coloured, semi-soft variety have become the common varieties grown. However, for poorer soils, there is still a craving for soft white wheat.

Land for wheat is given one or two *bakharings* in the hot season. During the rains two more *bakharings* or ploughings are given to suppress the weeds and conserve more rain water. Yet two more *bakharings* are given after the monsoon for preparing proper seed-bed. The success of the crop depends on the quantity of water soaked by the soil. It also depends on the temperature at the time of sowing. It is said that the correct time of sowing wheat is when the night temperature is such that melted ghee if kept in the open solidifies during the night. The thoroughness of these operations depends on the character of rainfall. If the rainfall is heavy and continuous, proper seed-bed is not achieved. Ploughing the wheat-land is not generally possible in the rainy months of July and August owing to continuous rains. Best results are achieved when after a short break, good showers are received again in November. Embanking of wheat fields like *haveli* tract of Jabalpur is not feasible, as the land is uneven and the soil does not hold this water owing to good drainage.

Sowing generally starts in October after the September rains, known as *hathi ka pani* (rainfall of *Hastha Nakshatra*). In years of deficient rainfall, they start sowing earlier, in indifferent seed-bed, but the result is not encouraging. The implement used for sowing is the *nari*, the local wooden plough fitted with a hollowed bamboo-tube with a small bowl at the top. The seed put into this bowl passes through the bamboo-tube and falls in the narrow funnel just behind the plough-share. Three-tined seed drill *tiffan* is not suitable owing to rolling lands but villages bordering Vidarbha districts and with fairly level fields, use this implement. In between this, the two-tined *dufan* is more useful and getting popular. The prejudice against irrigating wheat has nearly disappeared, due to introduction of rust-resistant hybrid wheat varieties. Irrigation to wheat is generally done one month after sowing, i.e., in mid-November and again in mid-December. A number of wells is being sunk every year for irrigating wheat. In 1964-65, 28,521 acres, about 18 per cent of wheat area, were irrigated. Wheat fields were generally not manured in the first decade of this Century, but people have realised the benefit of manuring. Green manuring with sunn, mung or urad is being adopted in many areas but is restricted owing to non-availability and exorbitant price of seed. Use of inorganic fertilizers for wheat, specially the irrigated wheat is also getting popular, but is also restricted because of scanty supply and high prices. Unassured rainfall, after the sunn crop is buried for green manure prevents good seed bed from being prepared for wheat and hence is not popular for unirrigated land. Inorganic fertilizers sown with seed have given good results. Five cart-loads of F.Y.M. and 7½ kg. of nitrogen and 7½ kg. of

phosphorus are applied to wheat crop. The nitrogenous base is generally provided in the form of ammonium sulphate, urea and calcium ammonium nitrate while phosphoric acid is used in terms of super phosphate.

There is no established practice of rotation. But people know its value and adopt it as best as they can. Pulses like masur and teora are sown, if not in the alternate year atleast after two crops of wheat. Growing mung and urad in the *kharif* season followed by wheat also gives good result. Weeding or hoeing is not necessary for wheat. Harvesting of wheat starts early in March, but depends on the time of sowing and the character of season. Damage by frost is not a problem but strong winds blowing in February and March hasten the maturity of the crop resulting in shrivelled grain. Harvesting is done by women labour and threshing by a team of bullocks moving round a fixed pole and trampling the harvested material. Olpod thresher for threshing wheat is being used by some well-to-do cultivators, but has not become popular because of the cost and also because it turns out prickly *bhusa* (chaff) not relished by animals. For winnowing, the common practice is that a man stands on a wooden tripod and slowly drops the chaff and grain from a height. The winds blow off the chaff to a distance and the grain collects in a heap. A good breeze is necessary and people sometimes are required to wait for days together to complete this operation, exposing their produce to rains and pilferage. Winnowers are now-a-days available on hire and the winnowing is done by working in late hours of night and early hours of the morning. Though the threshers and winnowers appeared in the years 1930-35, their large-scale use started only since 1952-53. The seed-rate per acre is about one maund (40 srs. equivalent to 37 kg.) and the average out-turn is 5 mds. equivalent to 180 kg. In the irrigated area the out-turn is about double.

The main disease of wheat is rust (*geruva*). Rust appears in humid atmosphere specially when there are winter showers followed by continuous cloudy or rainy weather. Black rust (*Puccinia graminis*) or *kala geruva* is common in this District. The rust-spores thrive and spread like wild-fire in moist weather. If the rust appears in early stages, the ears do not come out or are not filled in completely and the grain is light and poor. In certain years the damage is considerable and extensive. Other diseases of wheat are wheat smut (*kanirog* or *gahun kandava*) and foot-rot (*jar-galan*). In plants infested with wheat smut the ears are filled with black spores instead of grain. In plants plagued by foot-rot the fungi damages the roots. This can be controlled by treating the seed with Agrosan G. N. before sowing.

The surface weevil feeds on young shoots as they come out of the ground and sometimes destroys the whole crop and makes fresh sowings necessary. Termites destroy the roots. They are never numerous enough to ruin the crop over the whole field, but here and there patches of bleached faded plants can be seen. Sometimes, the loss inflicted is considerable. The stem-borer (*tane-chhadak*) is a tiny caterpillar, which attacks and destroys the main stem. If the attack is in early stage, new shoots come out, but when the attack is just before grain-

formation the damage is considerable. The aphid feeds on the leaves and attacks the ear when it is formed and sucks out the juice from the grain. The damage from this pest fluctuates from year to year depending on climatic conditions. Generally, the loss is considerable from termites, which are present almost every year. The termites may also be controlled by the effective use of gammexane.

Kodon and Kutki (*Paspalum scrobiculatum*, Linn. and *Panicum miliare*, Lam.)

These two crops constitute the most important group of millets. They were grown on 148.1 thousand acres in 1891-92, 140.7 thousand acres in 1911-12, 156.1 thousand acres in 1950-51 and 156.6 thousand acres in 1963-64. These crops have firmly held the ground over the last 75 years. Out of these two crops kutki is more important which commanded 1,05,024 acres in 1963-64 against 51,598 acres held by kodon. During the same year their combined out-turn amounted to 8,950 tons of cleaned grain giving the yield-rate of 128 lbs. per acre. The standard yield has been worked out as 150 lbs. per acre.

Kodon-kutki constitute the staple food of aboriginals, viz., Gonds and Korkus. They are generally grown on poor soils, *mutbarra*, *sihar*, *retari* and *bardi* and the slopes of hills. They are rarely grown in the open valleys of the plateau. Land intended for kodon is *bakhared* once in hot weather and once again after the first rain. The seed is then broadcast and the *bakhar* is dragged to cover the seed. The surface is generally rugged and covered with innumerable small stones, and nearly without any loose soil. The implement hardly cuts an inch or so of the surface and the crops grow at nature's will. The crop is sown by the end of June or early July and reaped by the end of October, November or early part of December. In *bardi* soils, a regular system of rotation is followed consisting of jagni in the first year, kodon in the following two years and kutki in the fourth year. The land is then left fallow for about three to five years. But owing to pressure on land the gap is reduced to two to three years or even less. In *mutbarra* soils, groundnut or jowar forms one of the crops of rotation. Groundnut being a legume crop replenishes the soil to some extent. Kodon needs better soil and is not grown on exhausted soils. The frequency and length of fallow is more on *bardi* soil than on *mutbarra*. The crop is weeded twice during the rainy season. No manure is added. The seed sown is about 20 lbs. per acre (about 9 kg.) Two varieties of kodon are grown, called *harnia* and *godaria*. *Harnia* is considered superior to *godaria*, but the latter has bold grains and is more productive. Improved varieties of kodon No. 110 and 96, selections of the Agriculture Department were introduced in the District in 1959-60, but they have not spread much. Kodon is generally free from any disease but sometimes hoppers damage the crop. There are three varieties of kutki—*bewari*, *kati* and *rasoi* or *bhadeli*. The improved variety is No. 45 introduced during 1959-60 and a selection of Agriculture Department. *Bewari* derives its name from *bewar* or plot for dahia cultivation. *Kati* has a black husk. *Bewari* has the smallest grain but of good taste. These varieties are sown in August and harvested in November. *Bhadeli* variety is sown in the beginning of rains and harvested in August, September (Bhadon). The method of cultivation is like kodon, except for *bhadeli*.

which is given only one *bakharing*. Kutki is generally grown on *retari* or *sihar* soils and in rotation with jagni and kodon on *mutbarra* and *bardi* soils. It grows on the poorest soils and forms the last crop of the rotation series, just before fallow. The seed rate is about 40 lbs (18 kg.). The common pest is locally known as *ghori* or horse-fly.

Pulses

The area under pulses has increased more than 2½ times during the last 55 years. The area under all pulses in 1909-10 was 96,700 acres, whereas in 1963-64 it was 2,70,873 acres. The cultivators have realised the value of rotation and include a legume in the cycle, the value of which as a fertility-replenishing crop is fully realised. The restrictions imposed on the movement of cereals and the demand for pulses from outside the State, also encouraged the farmers to put more area under pulses.

Tur (pigeon-pea) (*Cajanus indicus*), the most important *kharif* pulse is an instance of the above observation. During the same period, viz., 1909-10 to 1964-65, the area under tur went up from 19.0 thousand acres to 79.4 thousand acres. However, during the period highest acreage, 79.8 thousand acres, was recorded in 1960-61 and lowest, 8.4 thousand acres in 1922-23. Out-turn during 1963-64 was 18.4 thousand tons, though 1955-56 gave the record production of 40.5 thousand tons. Standard yield of tur has been estimated as 790 lbs. per acre, though for 1963-64, it was as low as 523.

Tur is generally sown between jowar and cotton and rarely as a pure crop. Hence the method of its cultivation is the same as that of the main crop of cotton or jowar. Tur is sown from 10th June to 30th June and harvesting extends from 15th Jan. to 15th April.

The crop suffers very badly from pod-borer or *chhedak kida* (*Heliothis obsoleta*), when cloudy weather prevails during the flowering stage of the crop. The common disease is wilt (*ukhtan*) by which the plants are liable to die at all stages of their growth. The only effective way to check wilt is to grow resistant varieties. Otherwise, its spread may be prevented by roguing out the wholly wilted plants. Frost and fog also damage the crop to a great extent.

Urad (*Phaseolus mungo*, Linn.), mung (*Phaseolus aureus*, Roxb.) and moth (*Phaseolus aconitifolius*, Jacq.) are also *kharif* pulses and their combined area was 63,608 acres in 1963-64 as against 13,000 acres in 1909-10.

The first two are generally grown as mixture with jowar. But of late, early varieties of urad and mung have come to be grown as green manuring crops for wheat areas. Kopargaon mung, a selection introduced by the Agriculture Department is very much in demand for this purpose. This variety has erect plants and the pods ripen in early September and plucked twice. The crop is then ploughed in and the land prepared for wheat crop.

Gram

Gram is the prominent *rabi* pulse which extended the frontiers of its cultivation from 40.4 thousand acres in 1909-10 to 92.0 thousand acres in 1964-65. Its claim as the first pulse crop of the District is firmly grounded on the fact of its largest acreage. However, with 99.2 thousand acres the peak was reached in 1963-64. But as regards out-turn in 1964-65, it was only 14.9 thousand tons. The year 1951-52, with record production of 16.5 thousand tons leads the rest of the years. The yield per acre for gram during 1963-64 was 337 lbs. though the standard yield has been computed as 380 lbs.

One ploughing and two *bakharings* are given to the land for preparing it to receive the seeds of gram. The seed is sown with *nari* plough during the month of October. Gram is grown in good soil in rotation with wheat or as *birra* (mixture with wheat). The usual proportion of this mixture is 65:35. In lighter soils it is grown in rotation with jowar and kodon. The seed-rate is 60 to 75 lbs. Generally, weeding is not done in case of gram. It is also not manured. In February it is ready for harvesting.

Red variety (*desi chana*) is the common variety grown. *Gulabi* gram is also grown in small area. It was introduced by the Agriculture Department about 50 years back. An improved strain of this gram under the name D-8 which was evolved by the Agriculture Department about 35 years ago, is rosy or pale-red in colour and usually round in shape though at times a few tapering specimens may also be seen. This variety is most suited for parching purposes and has an all-India demand. Kabuli gram a bold-seeded, white gram is grown in a very small area. E.B. 28 a strain of *desi* gram and D-8 a strain of *gulabi* gram are the improved strains recommended by the Agriculture Department. Other improved strains are No. 10 and Gwalior-2.

Gram caterpillar (*Heliothis obsoleta*), locally known as *chane ki illi* is the most formidable foe of gram. It appears with cloudy weather, i.e., in December and January, feeds on tender foliage and bores into the pods. Dusting with 5% D.D.T. dust or spraying 0.2% D.D.T. can checkmate the growth of the caterpillar. Frost and fog also damage the crop to a great extent.

Other *rabi* pulses are lentil or masur (*Lens esculenta*, Moench.) and teora (*Lathyrus sativus*, Linn.), which were sown in 23,125 acres and 3,210 acres, respectively, in 1963-64. The former is grown in lighter soils and the latter in heavier soils in rotation with wheat. Both are greatly susceptible to frost and fog and are generally attacked by aphids locally known as *mowa*. In normal years both give satisfactory out-turn and are, therefore, grown extensively.

Oil Seeds—Groundnut

The total area under oilseeds has remained nearly the same during the last 50 years. The most important of the oilseeds is groundnut, which occupies about 50 per cent of the area under oilseeds. In the beginning of the Century, there was

no area under this crop. Introduced in 1912-13, the area remained a few hundred acres for a number of years but expanded rapidly from 1920-21. In 1964-65 the area was 72,155 acres the highest on record. This crop is getting very popular with Gonds and Korkus as it is a cash crop of the lighter soils (*mutbarra*). It is a secured handy crop and is harvested in good time, so that the land can be utilised for double crop of wheat if there is even a light shower after harvesting this crop. The crop is sown in June and harvested in September or early October. One *bakharing* is given in summer and one or two *bakharing*s after the rains start. The sowing is done in lines by the plough or *bakhar* followed by the *sarta* (bamboo seed-tube in which the seed is sown). One weeding is followed by two inter-cultures. Five cart-loads of farm-yard-manure and 10 kg. of P_2O_5 are applied to obtain higher yields. The common variety grown is small red seed, Small-Japan variety with high percentage of oil, viz., 49 per cent. AK-12-24 is another variety introduced by the Agriculture Department, as a high yielding variety. Both varieties are selections of the Agriculture Department. Both have medium-sized pods. Small-Japan variety is smaller in size and ripens about 10 days earlier than AK-12-24. Seed-rate is 80 to 100 lbs. per acre. Small-Japan variety gives an out-turn of 800 lbs. and AK-12-24 about 1,000 to 1,200 lbs. Still, the latter is not spreading quickly owing to less demand in the local market. *Ticca* is the common disease of groundnut. In this, the leaves have black spots surrounded by yellow circle; hence the name *ticca*. Spraying the crop with 4:4:50 Bordeaux mixture has been recommended for controlling this disease.

Til (*Sesamum indicum*)

Til is the next important oilseed crop. But, its story is the opposite that of groundnut. The area under *til* which was 18,000 acres in 1891-92 grew to 49,000 in 1904-05. At the last Settlement it was chiefly grown in *sihar* soil in the Tawa valley and to a less extent in the Bhanwargarh group and in *mutbarra* and *bardi* in the villages in the extreme south of the District but by the first decade of the present Century it was commonly found in all the hilly tracts. The area under *til* was 45,700 acres in 1909-10. Thereafter, the acreage is marked by continuous decline, till it touched 9,645 acres in 1964-65. It has been replaced by groundnut as a favourite crop of the Gonds and Korkus who took to it to produce the money necessary to pay their rent. Reasons of its decline and fall can be attributed to its uncertain and low harvest, and low percentage of oil. Its successor groundnut makes up all these deficiencies. Three varieties of *til* are grown, namely, black, white and red. In the south black-seeded variety is grown, while in other parts, the white predominates. The percentage of oil in both the varieties is less than that in the red variety, but the quality of oil is superior and fetches a better price than that of red *til*. The red or *maghai til* is grown in a negligibly small area as a cold weather crop, being sown in August or September and harvested in December. The first two varieties are sown as a rainy weather crop. The method of cultivation is the same as that for jowar, but the seed is sown broadcast. About two to four lbs. of seed is sown per acre and the out-turn is about 150 lbs. (69 kg.).

Jagni or Niger (*Guizotia abyssinica*, Cass.)

Jagni or Niger also called ramtil, is one of the most important oilseed crops of poor soils. At last Settlement the crop covered 67,000 acres but has now come down to about 41,500 acres and has remained around this figure for the last few years. The crop is sown in August and harvested in December. Jagni is a hardy crop and is often sown in imperfectly broken up land. It rotates with jowar, kodon and kutki and the cultivation is the same as for kodon except that the tillage is less thorough. The seed is sown broadcast, two to four lbs. per acre and the out-turn is about 150 lbs.

Linseed

Linseed is another oilseed crop of *rabi* season. It was sown in 6,471 acres in 1964-65 but is not of much commercial importance in this District. Its improved varieties IPI-6 and 99 were introduced in 1959-60.

Cotton

Cotton provides striking example of a crop which showed large increase in its area and then declined considerably. At last Settlement its area was only 2,400 acres and was confined principally to tracts bordering Berar, as both the soils and climate of the plateau were considered to be unfit for cotton cultivation. The rapid increase in the value of this crop had its effect and it spread to all parts of the District in which suitable soils were found. The area under cotton rose to 28,000 acres in 1904-05. It maintained its upward trend and was at the peak of its glory in 1925-26 with 47,600 acres. Thereafter, on account of the unfavourable years, there was continuous shrinkage in area, the year 1939-40 recording only 9,200 acres under this crop. Subsequent years were unable to arrest this sharp fall, and cotton area came down to 4,800 acres in 1950-51. In recent years cotton has shown some recovery and in the year 1964-65 the area had risen to 11,064 acres. Average area for the quinquennium ending with 1963-64 was 12,944 acres. In 1963-64 out-turn was 1,850 bales and yield 212 lbs. of *kapas* per acre.

Gossypium species is grown along the border of Vidarbha, where the soil and climate are suited to this crop. On the plateau the climate is not suitable for this crop. Mainly two varieties are grown, *desi*—narrow lobed leaves, and *America* or broad lobed leaves. There has been a series of changes in the varieties grown. What was known as *jari* in the past became an admixture of various new introductions, with the result that it produced lint of various staples, not preferred by the mills, which ultimately used the cotton *roseum*—a short staple cotton, improved variety, but this variety soon lost its popularity on account of large-scale damage by wilt and because of short staple. *Verum* cotton was the next introduction. This also did not find much favour, though it had medium staple length, because of the low yield. *Jarilla* replaced *verum*, but no purity is maintained as the cultivators sell all the cotton and never worry about purity of seed. All the cotton produced has to be sold either at Warud in Amravati District or at Pandhurna in Chhindwara District. There is no market for cotton in the District. The variety of cotton sown depends on the demand in these markets and variety of seed.

available there. In Vidarbha, cotton zones have been formed and Warud comes in *buri* (American type cotton) zone. Hence selections of this variety—0394 and 107 have now become the common varieties grown in this District. This is an American type of cotton with broad lobed leaves and long staple.

In the previous Gazetteer, it is stated that methods of cotton cultivation were very slovenly, line-sowing was rare and weeding was indifferent. The case is quite different now. All the cotton is sown in lines—18"-24" apart and at least two weedings and four hoeings are given. The land is properly prepared before sowing by giving two *bakharings* in hot season and about one or two *bakharings* before sowing. A large area meant for cotton is given a deep ploughing immediately after harvesting the previous crop of jowar. The sowing is done in June and the cotton picking starts in November and continues up to January. The seed is treated with dung and earth before sowing so as to stick all the fibres around the seed and facilitate regular sowing. Cotton is rotated with jowar. About 10 to 15 lbs. of seed is sown per acre and normally 300 lbs. of *kapas* is picked. Tur is sown as mixture. Cotton land is manured with farm compost. Ammonium sulphate is also finding favour with the cultivators. Cotton crop suffers from *dahya* (*Ramularia areola*, Atk.), which is generally caused by foggy weather. It also suffers from wilt (*Fusarium vasinfectum*, Atk.) and anthracnose (*Colletotrichum indicum*). *Dahya* can be controlled by dusting with fine sulphur twice at fortnightly intervals. In case of wilt, sowing the seed of resistant varieties has been recommended. The remedy for the last disease is to delint and dress the seed with organo-mercurial fungicides like Agrosan or Ceresan @ 1:250, before it is sown. The common pests are pink boll-worm (*Platyedra gossypiella*, S.) which attacks the bolls and eats the seed, spotted boll-worm (*Earias fabia*) and semi-looper (*Cosmophila indica*, Gu.) which eat the leaves. Treatment with D.D.T., B.H.C. and Endrin has been found effective for extirpating these pests.

Sugarcane (*Saccharum officinarum*)

Acres of sugarcane has closely followed the fortunes of *gur*. Higher prices of *gur* spurred the agriculturists to bring additional land under cane. The largest area recorded was 10,400 acres in 1892-93 and that in 1904-05 was 2,800, principally on account of the inroads made by the cheap product of the Upper India manufactured from less expensive canal and tank irrigated cane. It was a wonder that sugarcane cultivation was not more rapidly abandoned, but perhaps the custom and the reluctance to sacrifice capital sunk in wells and the marked excellence and superiority of *gur* produced in Betul helped the industry to keep its head above water. The minimum area during the last 50 years was in 1930-31 and 1931-32, when it was only 2,200 acres, *gur* being sold at Rs. three to Rs. four per maund. The area rose to 7,300 acres in 1947-48 when the price of *gur* was about Rs. 30 per maund. In 1964-65 the area was 8,695 acres. The area is again shooting up under the stimulus of high prices and import difficulties. It has become a favourite crop of the Sampna command area.

The price of *gur* fluctuates not only from year to year but in the same year too, with the result that one is never sure of what return one would get for the crop.

The sugarcane crop needs a good deal of investment. It needs seeds and manures, a well for irrigation, and ultimately, machinery for crushing sugarcane, and boiling cane juice for *gur*-making. This is an elaborate and expensive process and needs all the patience, money and energy of the grower. He is greatly disappointed when after 12 months of hard labour his product does not bring him a reasonable return. If the standing cane crop finds a ready sale by establishing a sugar or *khandsari* factory, the area may expand in spite of the fact that well-irrigation is more expensive than channel irrigation. Betul *gur* is of a superior quality, fine coloured, crystallised and durable, and secures a premium over *gur* produced in U.P. even in the local market. The chief market for Betul *gur* is Vidarbha where it fetches a higher price by two to three rupees.

Cultivation of Sugarcane

During the recent years the cultivation of sugarcane has undergone changes specially in varieties grown, the manurial doses, process of *gur*-making, etc. The sugarcane area is generally divided into three to four blocks. In one the sugarcane is planted, the second is left for first year ratoon crop, the third plot is ploughed and made ready for wheat or other rotation crop after harvesting sugarcane and in the fourth the area is put under *kharif* crop and ploughed and prepared for planting sugarcane.

This is the cycle of rotation also. This crop is sown in *mutbarra* and *morand* soils. In the area allotted for sugarcane, farm-compost is carted and spread during summer and the area is ploughed and cross-ploughed in the rainy season. In some cases the land is sown with early *kharif* crop. In both the cases, the land is again ploughed two or three times before planting cane. Some cultivators take an early *rabi* crop of masur or teora before preparing the land for sugarcane. But in this case, the planting is delayed by about two months. If this cultivation is unable to give the desired tilth, the cultivators have to break the clods with hand-labour by beating the clods with a pick-axe or the butt-end of the axe. Furrows are then prepared by the *desi* wooden plough, to which a triangular board is fitted between the beam and the share. This generally makes furrows of 1½ to 2 ft. wide. This may have been found desirable when water for irrigation was lifted by *mote*. With the introduction of engine-pumps and irrigation by canal, this width is found too small and now some cultivators have increased the width to 3 ft. The sugarcane is cut into small sets with three or four eye-buds in each. While cutting these sets, all diseased canes are to be rejected. These sets are then spread over the field and kept at intervals on the ridges in small lots of three to four in each place. Water is now led into furrows and one man walks into it, puts the sets in line in the furrow, each set overlapping the other and pressing them inside the wet soil by his feet. The field is again irrigated after two or three days and then left to itself till the cane germinates. In such planting, the spacing from plant to plant is not regular and depends on the length of the nodes. The practice now in vogue is to cut each eye bud separately and plant it in dry soil at a distance of nine inches and irrigate the field. The usual time of planting is December-January and in a few cases as late as March. The practice of planting sugarcane

cane in August-September is also being introduced successfully as this allows the sugarcane to ripen in October-November, so that *gur* is prepared earlier and fetches better price. The crop needs irrigation at intervals of 8-10 days in winter. This interval is shortened in hot weather. The irrigation has to start immediately after the rainy season, as neglecting any irrigation means loss of some percentage of juice. The crop attains a height of three to four feet before the monsoon starts. Between this interval the crop has to be weeded once and hoed once or twice. This is generally done by hand. It is not uncommon to work the wooden (*desi*) plough in between two rows, to loosen the soil before earthing up the crop. This is also an important operation before the rains and is meant to give support to the standing cane. In addition to farm compost the crop is manured with fertilizers by some cultivators. This is given in two doses, first in March and second in June, before earthing up the crop. With the rains, the crop begins to grow and by July-August it becomes necessary to bind the canes together to prevent lodging and also to prevent damage by wild boars and jackals. Harvesting of sugarcane and *gur*-making begin in December and continue upto March. Those *baris* which are not out before harvesting of wheat, are harvested in April or even in May. About 3,000 or more canes are required to plant an acre. The out-turn varies from 50 mds. to about 100 mds. of *gur* depending on the class of soil, variety of cane, manurial doses, irrigation and crop protection. Fencing the sugarcane area is also very important. This fence is made of thorny bushes or bamboos beaten into flat mass and placed between a double line of stakes fixed on the ground. *Tinsa* or *lendia* or *garadi* shrubs or undressed bamboos are generally used for the fence.

Varieties of Sugarcane

The varieties mentioned in the last Gazetteer, viz., English or white cane, *pachrang*, *sarari* and *kala* have nearly become extinct and replaced by Coimbatore varieties. What was called English cane was replaced by CO 210 and CO 219, which were later on replaced by CO 312 and CO 419 in the beginning of the fifth decade of this Century. CO 312 is a thin cane with a hard covering while CO 419 is thicker with a softer covering. CO 312 matures in about 11 to 12 months, while CO 419 requires about 13-14 months for ripening. The latter is the common variety grown (locally known as Belapuri) and gives very high out-turn of *gur*. *Pachrang*, *ponda*, E.K. 28, P.O.J., Ashy Mauritius were soft canes and good for chewing. These varieties are rarely grown by cultivators. These were liable to damage by wild animals and besides gave a poor out-turn of *gur*.

Harvesting of Sugarcane

As has been stated above the sugarcane is harvested from middle of December. The ratoon crop ripens earlier and is, therefore, harvested first. The sugarcane is at the same time harvested for planting. The harvesting is done by a small axe. The leaves are then stripped off by sickles and the tops are also broken and used for feeding cattle. For planting, the stripping is done by hand only to avoid damage to eye-buds. Generally, in the first year the crop is allowed to remain as ratoon crop, but some cultivators take two or even three ratoon crops, without much advantage. For ratoon, after harvesting, the dried leaves and trash are

spread over the field and burnt. The area is then irrigated and the plough is worked between the two rows of sugarcane. The ratoon crop in the first year, if properly cultivated, manured and irrigated, may give nearly as much produce as the planted cane, but in the following years it is uneconomic to take ratoon crops. The ratoon crop is generally neglected.

Sugarcane Crushing and Gur Manufacture

In the closing years of the 19th Century the only sugarcane mill known in the District was a cumbrous wooden structure consisting of two heavy wooden cylinders set up-right in a frame. Then an iron mill invented by Messrs. Mylne and Thompson of the Bihar Estate in Bihar appeared in the District. It rapidly became very popular. A cheap and less efficient imitation of this mill was introduced some time later from Delhi. In the first decade of this Century there were hundreds of iron mills all over the District and every cane-growing village had at least one or two. Those farmers who did not have it hired it from others. But it was observed that iron mills were not utilized in an efficient manner. The process of *gur*-making has been much simplified in recent years. The old time wooden two-roller mills are seen nowhere. The three-roller iron mill from Nahan Foundry, H. P. and the Karamat mill of Kirloskar Brothers, District Satara (Maharashtra), introduced in the District in 1930, are found with nearly every sugarcane grower. These are bullock-drawn mills. Even these are becoming obsolete on account of paucity of labour and high cost of bullocks. The most popular power-driven mill is the Sharad of the Kirloskar Brothers which came to be utilized since 1951-52. In the three-roller bullock-driven mill, the big roller A (A meaning male roller) has the driving gears. Between A and B (B standing for medium sized called *madi* or female) rollers, the cane is split and partially crushed. It is again crushed between A and C (small) rollers and all the juice is extracted and trash called *chipad* is collected at the other end. From 100 lbs. of sugarcane about 63 to 68 lbs. of juice is extracted from these three-roller iron mills depending on the quality of cane and the mills and about 15 lbs. of *gur* is produced from this juice. The juice is received in an iron or earthen receptacle called *nand*. To remove the juice for putting in the pan is a tedious job and the whole surrounding at the spot is far from pleasing. The quality is better, if one observes more cleanliness. The one time six ft. deep furnace with wood as fuel requiring six hours to boil a charge is not seen anywhere in the District now. All the furnaces are of Sindewahi type, which need only dried *chipad* for their fuel and 2½ to 3 hours to boil a charge. Kisan furnace which migrated from Uttar Pradesh about 25 years ago is also seen here and there. The pan used for *gur*-boiling is about 7 ft. in diameter and 18 ft. deep, and about 100 to 125 gallons of juice is boiled in each charge. A fusilage of wild *bhindi* juice is generally used as a clearing agent for the juice and most of the dirt comes to the top with the scum at the first boiling and removed by bamboo basket strainers. This is called removing the *madhi*. This *madhi* continues to be removed until fairly clean material is left over. When the moisture has evaporated it is stirred by wooden stirrers at regular intervals to avoid charring and at the *gur* stage, the pan is lifted from the furnace and emptied in a cooling tank, called *chata*. It is stirred again to get thoroughly mixed. After the substance has solidified, it

is filled in cloth containers and hung on wooden rafters to drain. In a couple of days it is removed from the hanger. The paler the crystals, the better the price. The red variety fetches less price. *Gur* prepared in dull and rainy weather from stale cane or cane soaked in the rains is not of good quality. Sugar is not made anywhere.

Damage to Sugar cane by Wild Animals, Pests and Diseases

The worst enemy of the sugarcane is the jackal and the wild boar. Jackals are exceedingly fond of cane. If they cannot creep through the fence they will scramble over it. It is very difficult to turn out a wild boar out of cane; fireworks and guns are sometimes let off without any effect. With the introduction of hard-rimmed canes, this nuisance has been mitigated. The sugarcane borer (*Sesamia inferens*) attacks the base of the young growing cane in April and May and eats the growing shoot inside. New side shoots come out, but the yield is reduced. It can be controlled by removing and burning the dead hearts or by spraying with Deildrin 0.1 per cent or Endrin and Folidol 0.1 per cent. Sugarcane fly (*Pyrilla oberrans*, Kby.) or *phudka* attacks in large numbers and sucks the juice of the plant, and turns it yellow and affects both the quality and quantity of juice. The following measures have been recommended for dealing with this pest, (i) collection and destruction of egg masses and nymphs, (ii) releasing egg parasite *Trichogramma evanescense* and, (iii) spraying 0.1 per cent Endrin emulsion. Red rot locally understood as *lal sadan* or *laliya* makes the cane red and affects the quality of *gur*. Discarding the affected cane at the time of planting and sowing disease-resistant varieties are necessary to prevent spread of this disease.

Paddy (*Oryza sativa*)

Paddy which was of minor importance in the beginning of this Century and was generally sown as a catch crop in *sihar* or *retari* before gram or some other pulse, has now become an important *kharif* crop. Its area shows steady growth from 13,000 acres in 1909-10 to 61,600 acres in 1964-65. Similarly, out-turn increased from 1.6 thousand tons in 1920-21 to 24.8 thousand tons in 1963-64, incidentally, both the figures depicting the lowest and the highest limits between which production has fluctuated. Unlike the paddy *bandhis* (embanked fields) of paddy districts of Chhattisgarh and Balaghat, paddy is grown in open fields and is either broadcast or drilled. Before the paddy fields receive the seed, one summer ploughing and two *bakharings* are given to the fields. One weeding operation is also done. The crop is harvested by sickle and trodden under bullocks' feet to separate the grain from the chaff. Only early varieties are grown as a cash crop before gram or other *rabi* pulses as before.

Maize (*Zea mays*, Linn.)

Of late, maize appears to have acquired some status in the agricultural economy of the District. From 15,700 acres in 1909-10 to 20,900 acres in 1950-51 it remained stationary. But in the quinquennium ending with 1963-64, the average area was 27,978 acres. During the year 1964-65, it reached its highest level, viz.,

28,699 acres. Out-turn of maize, for the year 1963-64 amounted to 12,458 tons giving per acre yield of 990 lbs. though the standard yield is only 450 lbs. A large quantity of maize is exported outside the District. Maize is generally grown in small *baris* attached to each house in the village. It is also grown in some cases on field-scale. The crop is heavily manured but there is hardly any protection to prevent its washing away, with the result that in spite of heavy manure every year, there is no accumulation of manure in land. The Gonds and Korkus are the main growers. The preservation of seed-cobs is typical of the tract. They are tied in bundles and hung on trees or on high *machans* and protected against rats by thorny shrubs tied at the top. The natural covering protects it against rains. Besides local varieties, Hybrid maize is also now being grown.

Sunn-hemp (*Crotalaria Juncea*, Linn.)

It is a crop grown for fibre. It is generally grown by Gonds and Korkus on lighter soils and in villages which have water for rotting the stems. It is rarely grown on black soils or by non-*adivasis* because of very low out-turn of seed and uneconomic cost of extracting fibre. The Gonds have specialised in this art and they have plenty of spare time after the *kharif* season and the whole family is engaged in this job. Betul produces one of the finest sunn fibre. It is classed as Itarsi-Fine in Bombay market and secures a premium over sunn fibre from other places. There is great demand for sunn seed for green-manure, and it fetches more price than wheat.

Fruits and Vegetables

The soil and climate of Betul make it one of the potential fruit growing areas. Betul District can be converted into California of Madhya Pradesh. Though area under fruits and vegetables has increased, it amounted to only 3,446 acres in 1964-65. Little effort has been made to plant new fruit gardens in place of the old decaying gardens. Mango (*Mangifera indica*, Linn.) is the common fruit and is found in the jungles. But this fruit is of a poor quality and not marketable. There are some good varieties and in recent years efforts have been made to plant well-known imported varieties from Andhra, Uttar Pradesh and Bengal. It is expected that in the next few years, Betul will grow a few choice varieties of mangoes. Chikoo (*Achras sapota*, Linn.) planted on the Government Farm, Betul, and Lichi trees in Gothi's garden are thriving very successfully. Cashew nut (*Anacardium occidentale*) is a wild plant and can be successfully grown on the marked *barras* (slopy lands). If grown, it will not only provide cover to the land but also add to the income of the cultivators to a considerable extent. This is another dollar-earning crop that may be grown in this District. Oranges and other citrus fruits can be grown below the plateau in the north and south-west parts. The area covered by fruits (mostly mangoes with 330 acres and oranges 105 acres in 1963-64) is 535 acres, nearly what it was 50 years ago.

With the growth of population and their needs the area under vegetables has increased considerably and in 1963-64 it rose to 2,982 acres against 500 acres in 1904-05. More than 50 per cent of this area, 1,681 acres is under potatoes,

onions cover 468 acres, sweet potatoes *kharif* 155 and *rabi* 92 acres and other vegetables, mostly brinjals (*Solanum melongena*, Linn.), 586 acres. Potatoes are grown by Gond and Korkus too. The Korkus of Khamla tract grow *kharif* potatoes in more than a hundred acres, quite an uncommon phenomenon because this is not done in other parts of the District.

Chillies (*Capsicum annum*, Linn.)

This crop was grown on 4,414 acres of which 929 were irrigated. All this produce is consumed locally either in green or dried form.

Coffee (*Coffea arabica*)

Coffee is a dollar-earning crop of India and is of great importance to the country. The potentiality of growing coffee in Betul District is demonstrated in about 110 acres near village Khamla in Bhainsdehi Tahsil. Coffee is grown well only on high altitudes ranging from 2,500 feet to 5,000 feet. The plateau of Betul has the required altitude and species like *robusta* can be grown on lower elevations also. Coffee-planting was started in 1918 by an Englishman, Saint Wilford. He acquired an area of about 208 acres in the hilly tract of Khamla and selected an area surrounded by hills for establishing the coffee gardens and named it Saint Wilford Estate. Coffee has been successfully planted in about 110 acres of which about 40 acres are in bearing stage. Shade is considered indispensable to coffee under Indian conditions. The type of plants suitable for shade should be evergreen, small-leaved and should branch only several feet above the ground and carry their canopy tall and spreading high above the coffee bushes. They should also have tough wood and deep roots. Silver Oak (*Gravillea robusta*) and *Erythrina lithosperma* are generally selected for this purpose. The shade is needed in India to protect the plants from the severity of hot weather and torrential rains. The coolness of the shade and heavy mulch of the leaves on the ground help the soil to retain sufficient moisture. For raising a coffee plantation, the existing forest is cleared leaving only a large number of suitable trees to provide shade, or fresh shade trees are planted one year before planting coffee. Coffee is planted only on the hill slopes. Open, wind-swept upper slopes and hill tops are not favoured for this purpose. Coffee plants are raised in a nursery and planted at a distance of 6 ft. X 6 ft. in previously dug and well manured pits. Pruning of coffee plant is very essential and should be systematic in order that the plant develops elongated primary branches and forms an umbrella like canopy at a height of 5 ft. to 6 ft. The coffee plants begin to bear fruit from the 5th year. The average yield per acres is 2 cwt. The percentage of coffee beans to fruit is 1:6. Coffee fruits need curing. The ordinary process is to dry the fruit and hull it by hand labour to remove the outer cover, the parchment and the silver skin.

Agricultural Implements

The ploughing, harrowing and sowing implements have undergone practically no change during last half a Century. The common plough is called the *hal* or *nagar*. It is a primitive implement consisting of pieces of wood joined at an

angle. The upright piece of wood is the body of the plough (*hal*). At the centre of the beam, *dandi* is attached at an angle, to which the bullocks are yoked. At the lower end, an iron shod at one end set at an obtuse angle is the share (called *chou*) and a small piece of wood at the upper end is the handle (called *muthia*). This plough is used for breaking waste land and for ploughing fields of wheat and sugarcane. It is commonly used for sowing. For this a small hole is made in the *chou*, and a bamboo-tube with a wooden-bowl is attached to it. Through this bowl, the seed is dropped. It passes through the hole and drops about 3" to 5" below the surface of the soil in the furrow opened by the share. *Bakhar* is an implement used by all the cultivators. This is a bladed harrow. It consists of a piece of wood, about four to five feet long and to this two poles (*dandis*) are attached for yoking bullocks. Two wooden tines (called *datua*) are fitted at an acute angle to which the iron blade (*phans*) is attached. This *phans* is about 24" long and 4" to 5" wide with ends projecting at right angles. These ends are fitted to tines by means of iron rings (*kondra*). This implement is used for preparing all kinds of land and for all the crops. *Daura* or bladed hoe, is a miniature *bakhar*. *Tiffan* is a three-tined seed drill used along the Vidarbha border. It resembles *bakhar* but with a difference that its three tines are attached with one end of the seed tubes, and the other end is fitted to the seed-bowl. For wheat, the implement is not heavier and is drawn by two or three pairs of bullocks. The implement is not suitable for all the parts of the District because the land is undulating. For sugarcane processing, implements are the mill (*ghana*) and the *kadhui* for boiling juice. The power-crushers are getting more popular on account of labour shortage. Their number increased from 33 in 1951 to 57 in 1956 and to 111 in 1961, while bullock-driven crushers stagnated from 661 to 615 during the decade 1951-61. Agriculture Department endeavoured to popularize winnowers as early as the beginning of this Century but they were not purchased by the cultivators as the price was considered to be too high. However, their use has spread rapidly since the year 1952-53. Now the use of the winnower has also become common for winnowing wheat but the fodder cutter has not gained the same popularity though attempts were made to introduce it simultaneously with the winnower. The *Olpod* thresher is used for threshing wheat. It consists of 16 iron discs, with serrated edges. These are fitted on iron axles—4 discs in each. There is a seat for the driver to sit on. This thresher is moved over the harvested wheat on the threshing floor. This method saves time, but the *bhusa* thus obtained is coarse and prickly. Generally, bullocks are also made to trample over this to soften this *bhusa*.

Ridging plough is a double-mould board iron plough. It is used in making ridges for planting sugarcane. Very few of these are in use in this District. In spite of their utility, the iron ploughs have not been very popular; and have not been able to replace the wooden plough. Even in 1961, there were only 294 iron ploughs against 96,898 wooden ploughs. This is because the wooden plough costs practically nothing and can be used in all kinds of soils and in all conditions, while different types of iron ploughs are required for different soils. Iron ploughs are mostly used in the cotton tract. There were only nine tractors in the District in

1961 of which seven were owned by private cultivators and the rest by the Government. The dredger is an implement used for removing soil for levelling land. This implement though useful has not been universally adopted in the District.

The small tools are *hasia* (sickle) used for cutting crops and also for weeding, *pharsa*—(billet) for making sugarcane sets for seed and also for chopping jowar *kadbi*, *phasati*—a wooden forked branch of a tree, used for carrying implements from one place to another, *ope*—wooden fork with a pointed end to which an iron piece is attached, used for driving holes for fixing stakes of the fence and, *parena*—a long bamboo stick, to one end of which a scraper (*khanta*) is attached for removing weeds, etc., stuck to the *bakhar* blade.

Manures and Fertilizers

The following description regarding the state of the utilization of manures in the beginning of this Century may be interesting.—

"The use of manure is practically unknown except in sugarcane and garden cultivation. Even here no attempt is made to conserve it properly and it generally consists of rubbish and village sweepings with some admixture of imperfectly rotted cattle dung. Proper manure pits do not exist, and most of the cattle dung is used for fuel. The cattle are not bedded down on straw and all the urine is lost. In many villages cattle are sent away to graze in the forests during the hot weather and the rains and the dung is thus lost to the owners. Green soiling is known and practised to a very limited extent, almost always in sugarcane lands. The crops sown for this purpose are sunn-hemp, *jagni* and *til*. They are ploughed in during August." As at present, scientific methods of composting are being advocated. The method of preparing trench compost, though not very common, is gaining ground. Several hundred trenches are now in use for making farm compost. Use of town compost, oil cake, green manuring and fertilizers are various methods adopted by cultivators for manuring crops and keeping up the fertility of land.

Rural compost scheme was introduced in the District in 1948-49. Technical assistance is provided to the bodies undertaking this work. Urban compost scheme was also started in the same year in Betul. Later it was extended to Multai in 1960-61. By a Government Notification dated, 24th November, 1962, the Madhya Pradesh Refuse (Conversion into Manure) Act, S. 2007 (No. 57 of 1950) was enforced on Betul and Multai Municipalities with effect from 1st April, 1963, enjoining upon them to convert all refuse into compost manure.

Fertilizers were initiated in the District about 35 years back. That period may be said to have marked the beginnings of the use of this commodity in the District. Their use became widespread since the introduction of the fertilizer demonstration scheme in the year 1954-55, under which demonstrations in the use of fertilizers were laid out on the fields of cultivators. Sampna command area

1. Betul District Gazetteer, 1907, p. 122.

leads in the use of fertilizers. They are mostly applied to sugarcane and wheat crops. This tract is followed by Multai and Amla Blocks.

Benefits of green manuring are being realised increasingly and this practice is gaining prominence as a cheap source of supply of nitrogen, the vital plant nutrient. Besides the usual green manure crops, Kopargaon mung, urad, etc., are also raised for this purpose. During the year 1965-66 alone 222 qtls. of sunn seed and 364 qtls. of mung seed were distributed in the District with the same end in view.

Rotation of Crops

Not much change has been brought about in the existing practices of rotation. With the adoption of soil conservation methods and extension of irrigation facilities the frequency of leaving land fallow may be minimised.

Seeds

Improved seed is the primary factor round which the problem of raising farm yield depends. Attempts have, therefore, been directed towards evolving strains of seeds which may give higher yield, resist attacks of pests and diseases, to which they are usually exposed, and the resultant grain may be more nutritious. This has been illustrated by some examples. Almost all the wheat grown in the past has now been replaced by Departmental varieties. AO-85 a soft variety (*pissi*) was introduced in early 'twenties. AO-90 was found suitable for irrigated areas. A-113, a semi-hard wheat of *Sharbati* type introduced later became popular. However, all these varieties were replaced by better yielding varieties—AO-68 and A-115. These varieties suffered from rust. Therefore, Hybrid varieties released by the Wheat Specialist, Powerkheda, viz., Hy. 65, Hy. 11, etc., became the common varieties after the rust year 1956-57, and in 1959-60 occupied over 60 per cent of the wheat area.

As for sugarcane the Mauritius varieties were introduced to replace the existing varieties in the early part of the Century. About the year 1927-28, Coimbatore varieties CO-210 and CO-219 replaced the Mauritius varieties, being hard-skinned and better-yielding. These varieties have now been replaced by CO-312 and CO-419. The out-turn of *gur* of CO-419 of a number of cultivators is above 100 mds. per acre and they have now an ambition to increase it still further. Fifty years ago, this may have been thought fabulous.

Groundnut is a money crop of great importance, specially for the light soils of the District. It is increasing in area, and improved varieties like Small Japan and A. K. 12-24 are being sown in nearly all the area.

Improved seeds from the Research Station are first multiplied on experimental farm and then sent out to the seed and demonstration farm for local test and further multiplication. From the Government seed farm, the seed is issued to the "A" class seed farmers, from "A" class to "B" class seed farmers and from

"B" class to the "C" class farmers and then for general distribution. Thus, in a few years the area under improved seed becomes saturated.

Diseases and Pests

Plant protection was practically unknown a few years back, with the result that the crops suffered from many diseases and pests. They have already been referred to and their remedial measures pointed out while describing the principal crops of the District in a foregoing section. Now, nearly every farmer knows that his jowar and wheat seeds are to be treated for prevention against smut and foot-rot. Every year thousands of rupees worth of insecticides and pesticides are sold through the Departmental agency. Plant protection measures which were initiated in Multai Tahsil in 1952-53 now cover the entire District.

Wild animals are a source of great trouble as they damage the crops. They may be divided into two classes, viz., those which always retreat to the jungle in the day-time and those which are content to lie up in the wooden nullah or patch of waste land covered with grass and bushes. In the first category *nilgai*, *cheetal* and *sambhar* are the most common and in the second pig, antelope, gazelle, hare, monkey, porcupine, hyena and jackal.

As the range of the animals of the first category is limited, it is not difficult to guard against them. It is usual to face and watch all the fields near dense jungle, which the deer are known to frequent. The animals do less damage to *rabi* crops. It is difficult to keep them out of *kharif* crops, because the area under *kharif* in jungle villages is always greater and not so compact as under *rabi*. Amongst *rabi* crops, wheat is least liable to damage, as the long cones protect the ear to some extent. Amongst the *kharif* crops, kodon suffers least, possibly owing to the very hard husk of the grain.

The animals of the second category are not tied down to the neighbourhood of the jungle and consequently it is more difficult to keep them out of the crops. These take up their quarters in the village during the rains. If this happens in fairly open country, the cultivators turn out in force and drive the animals into the neighbouring village, when they are passed on again. In the dry season, when there is less cover in the open country, their range of depredations is much more restricted but even then they are sometimes in the ravines, and wooded nullahs of villages neighbouring the thick jungle. They cause more damage than any other animals as they grab the plant by the root and sometimes even shelter in a jowar or sugarcane crop by cutting down the tall stalks and piling them in a heap, under which they creep. They are also difficult to drive away. Jackals and hyenas attack the maize and sugarcane. In some localities the hares are numerous, though not often seen. They along with other small animals, which are nocturnal in their habits are very difficult to be kept out of the crops. Despite their small size they do much more damage to the crops than one could be led to believe. Squirrels and rats are the worst enemies of the cultivator. In some places, in spite of the efforts of the watchman, the maize crop is damaged by the squirrels, the rats

and the jackals. The population of rats is multiplying rapidly and is posing a problem to the cultivator. Monkeys pose another problem to the cultivator. Scores of monkeys move about in the fields and eat whatever crop exists. Religious sentiments do not allow killing these animals. The flock spreads itself on two or three sides of the field. When the watchman chases them on one side, they run and get perched on nearby trees. But, as soon as the man turns to drive the other group, they enter the field behind him. They pluck the biggest jowar cobs and can carry away three cobs at a time. They eat cotton balls, jowar, mung, gram and almost all the crops except wheat. It is not uncommon to find a long file of monkeys sitting in a field, feasting on gram or other crops.

Amongst the birds, peacock and the parrot are the most annoying to the cultivator. In the morning and evening, flocks of parrots are on the wing all over the fields. They are particularly active in jowar and wheat and may be seen biting off the ears of wheat in their flight and carrying them to the nearest tree. Jowar is particularly liable to the attacks of birds of all sorts, after it begins to ripen. The shouts of the watchman and cracks of the country sling can be heard in the mornings and evenings from November till the harvesting of the crop.

Activities of Agriculture Department

District Agriculture Office

The District was linked with Chhindwara District for purposes of administration with headquarters of the Extra-Assistant Director of Agriculture either at Betul or Chhindwara. From the year 1955, this District has a separate district level officer now designated as Deputy Director of Agriculture. It has been the charge of this office to carry out the policies of the State Agriculture Department designed to give a boost to the productivity of the farm and thus to uplift the economic condition of the farming community. The demonstration work was carried out by an Agricultural Assistant posted in each tahsil who was assisted by a set of Agricultural Kamdars. The extension staff has since been further strengthened.

Community Development Programme

In October, 1953, two National Extension Service Blocks were opened with headquarters at Betul and Prabhat Pattan. These Blocks were staffed by one Block Development Officer, set of Extension Officers including one Agricultural Extension Officer and about 10 Gram Sewaks. Each Gram Sewak was expected to work in about 10 or more villages with a population of about 5,000. The extension work in agriculture was carried out through this agency in Block areas. In non-Block areas the responsibility lay with the Agriculture Department. The gradual expansion of this Programme in the District has been described in a separate Chapter.

Demonstrations

The most effective medium of introducing agricultural improvements is

through organising demonstrations. Fertilizer demonstrations have already been alluded to. Intensive propaganda is also done by organising various weeks, like *Gokharu* Eradication Week, *Van Mahotsava* Week, Fertilizer Week, *Kharif* and *Rabi* Campaigns, etc. It was also laid down that each Village Level Worker should conduct ten demonstrations in each *rabi* and *kharif* season (including fertilizer demonstration). This demonstration programme was organised to fulfil the felt needs of the farmers for increasing agricultural production. Government Demonstration Farm, Station Garden and a number of private demonstration plots serve as nucleus for such demonstrations.

Agricultural Education

The District Council Middle School, Betul Bazar, was taken over by the Agriculture Department in 1936-37. It was converted into Agricultural High School in 1955-56 and handed over to the Education Department. Agriculture is also taught as an optional subject in Government Multi-Purpose High School, Betul. To provide trained staff of Gram-Sewaks (Village Level Workers) for the different National Extension Service and Community Development Blocks in the State, Gram Sewak Training Centre was started at Betul Bazar in December, 1954. Upto the year 1958-59, trainees had to undergo basic training of one year in other Basic Agricultural Schools of the State. The syllabus was changed in 1959-60 and integrated training is now imparted in this School for a period of two years.

Agricultural Farms

The Government Seed and Demonstration Farm, Betul, has the distinction of being one of the oldest farms of the State, having come into existence in 1915. Thus, it has completed 50 years of its useful existence. Situated about four miles from Betul on Betul-Nagpur Road the Farm extends over 161 acres of typical *rabi* soil of the District.

The land when acquired was undulating and infested with *kans* and *jarberi* and soil-erosion was found everywhere. The Farm was properly laid out with roads, drainage, farm buildings, wells, etc. The *kans* and *jarberi* were dug out. Contour-bunds were laid out in 1951-52 and nearly the whole area was protected by contour-bunds in 1954-55. The land was ploughed with tractor in 1953-54.

With a view to providing irrigation facilities seven wells were dug from time to time. This being inadequate, an irrigation plan was prepared for utilizing the waters of the Sampna which flowed nearby. Accordingly, temporary bunds were thrown across the river and pumping was resorted to for taking water to the highest point of the Farm. When the Sampna Irrigation tank was completed, its water began to be used for irrigation. Improved irrigation methods, viz., border-strips and contour-ditches are being practised on the Farm and a contour water course was constructed in 1957-58 for carrying canal water to a number of fields. With this facility double cropped area has increased considerably. Crop yields have also gone up considerably on account of improvement of land, better methods of cultivation, better manuring practices and fuller irrigation facilities.

The Farm also serves as seed multiplication farm and distributes improved seeds of wheat, gram, groundnut, mung, etc. The Farm also maintains a stock of popular implements and their spare parts, so that the same could be made readily available to the desiring cultivators.

It is a matter of great credit to this Farm that since 1935-36 it has been showing profit regularly every year. In 1959-60, the net profit in the working account was Rs. 13,294 and the total profit since the inception of the Farm after deducting depreciation and interest amounted to Rs. 60,413. The depreciation and interest on capital in 1959-60 were Rs. 1,590 and Rs. 1,140, respectively.

In order to activate the programme of quicker multiplication of improved seeds, another seed multiplication and demonstration farm was started at Gudgaon in Bhainsdehi Tahsil in the year 1961-62. Its area is 100 acres.

Co-operative Better-Farming Societies

The function of the co-operative better-farming societies is to supply credit to its members and to meet their requirements of improved seeds, fertilizers and agricultural implements. As in July 1966, eight such societies were functioning in the District. Two co-operative farming societies with 30 members also came into existence in 1967-68.

Crop Competitions

A number of crop competitions are organized by the State Government for stimulating the cultivators to obtain higher yields. Handsome prizes are awarded to the winners. These yields also demonstrate the potentialities to which it may be possible to step up agricultural production.

In the year 1958-59, the Government of India sponsored a scheme for the award of community prizes with the aim of raising food production. The recipient of the award, which is a cash-prize of Rs. 10,000, has to show an increase of 15 per cent over the average food production of the previous three years. Betul District had the honour of getting this coveted distinction in the year 1959-60. It showed double the increase of the required minimum. The results are noted below:—

(Production in Tons)							
1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	Total for Three Years	Average for Three Years	1958-59	Increase	Percentage
50,702	40,900	29,800	1,21,402	40,467	52,800	12,333	30.4

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The total livestock number of the District according to 1961 Census was 6,56,264.¹ This showed an increase of six per cent over that of 1956. During the previous inter-censal period, viz., 1951-1956 the increase was of a higher order,

1. Ninth Quinquennial Livestock Census of Madhya Pradesh, 1961, Vol. II, p. 194.

being 24 per cent. Bulk of the livestock consists of cattle, their proportion to the total livestock being 76 per cent in 1961. Their number increased from 4,02,339 in 1951 to 5,00,629 in 1961. Numerically, buffaloes constitute the next important category and worked out to 8.6 per cent of the total livestock in 1961. During the decade 1951-61, their number increased from 44,137 to 56,525. Though second in order of numbers, they were far below the cattle.

The cattle and buffaloes do not conform to any recognised breed, i.e., they are of non-descript type. Generally the cattle are medium in build, 36 inches in height, 38 inches in length and 42 inches in girth. The above statistics for buffaloes are 45, 48 and 62 inches, respectively. Gaolis, the local cattle breeders, visit Singaji cattle fair, held annually in Harsud Tahsil of East Nimar District. This helps in the migration of Nimari cattle to Betul District. As such, Nimari specimens replete with red coat or white spots are also met with. Sometimes, there is a great mixture of colours in the local livestock. The animals of the western half of the District possess certain distinct characteristics; they are small-sized, stout and sturdy animals capable of maintaining themselves on straw during the period of drought.

Good quality of fodder is not available in dry seasons and so the policy for Bhainsdehi Tahsil and part of Betul Tahsil has been to get Nimari breed. The animals of Malvi and Nimari breed are well-adapted to local conditions and are also preferred by cultivators. These two breeds have, therefore, been recommended for propagation in the District. Now Haryana and Gir breeds are to be introduced in the District.

Murra has been recommended for adoption with a view to upgrading the buffalo milch stock.

Sheep and Goats

Sheep and goats numbered 4,980 and 87,713, respectively, in 1961. During the 10 year period 1951-61 sheep increased by only 29 per cent, while goats increased by more than 100 per cent. Sheep are maintained primarily for mutton while goats both for milk and mutton. Sheep-breeding is practised in certain areas of Multai and Bhainsdehi Tahsils, while a small sheep pocket has been located in Prabhat Pattan and adjoining villages. Sheep-breeding is done through local rams. For improving the staple of the local sheep, an experimental farm was established in 1945 at Dhar in the District. It was closed down subsequently due to low sheep numbers. The local trade in wool has also not been remunerative as a result of which the shepherds are abandoning their profession and taking to agriculture and allied activities.

Cattle in Relation to Cropped Area

The number by main categories of cattle and buffaloes per thousand acres

of cropped area in the Census year 1956, and 1961 is depicted in the Table set forth below:—

Categories	Per 1,000 Acres of Net Area (1956)	Per 1,000 Acres of Total Cropped Area (1961)
1. Bulls and bullocks over three years used for work	227	219
2. Other bulls and bullocks	9	1
3. Cows	139	120
4. Young stock (Cattle)	172	159
5. Buffalo-bulls and bullocks over three years used for work	2	1
6. Other buffaloes	1	—
7. Cow-buffaloes	29	26
8. Young stock	30	28
9. Total bulls and bullocks and male buffaloes over three years used for work (Sl. No. 1 & 2)	229	220

The number of work-buffaloes per 1,000 acres of cropped area is negligible in comparison to work-cattle. This is due to the fact that there is no ploughing to be done in water, as in the rice-country and their incapability to work in the heat of the day makes them practically useless. They are sometimes used for irrigation work where good shade is available. Moreover, cattle are not slaughtered to the same extent as buffaloes due to social, religious and economic factors. The buffalo is assuming the role of dairy animal, and that is why its number is not so small as that of he-buffaloe, but it is not so large as that of cows.

Working Cattle Plough Ratio

The number of bulls, bullocks and male buffaloes used for work per 100 ploughs was 237. The same number worked out to 227 in 1961. Since two animals are required to yoke one plough, the above ratios indicate excess of work animals in relation to ploughs.

Milk Cows and Buffaloes in Relation to Human Population

The number of milch cows alone and cows and cow-buffaloes, (i.e., cows and cow-buffaloes over three years kept for breeding or milk production) per 1,000 persons worked out to 262 and 316, respectively, in 1956. In 1961, these ratios worked out to 212 and 259, respectively, thus showing a deterioration in the availability of milch animals in relation to human population.

Grazing Facilities

Sufficient grazing land and adequate feeding are the most essential requirements of successful maintenance of healthy livestock. But the actual conditions obtaining in the District leave much to be desired.

As regards the area devoted to the production of fodder crops, the position is most disheartening. In 1964-65, this area was returned as 69 acres. However, it may be hoped that in years to come, fodder crops will command greater attention from the farmers.

Lands classed as 'culturable waste', 'permanent pastures and grazing lands' and 'forest areas open for grazing' are utilized for cattle-grazing. The quinquennial average for such grazing area for 1956-57 to 1960-61 was 13,78,433 acres, i.e., 56 per cent of the total area of the District. This gave 2.47 acres of grazing land per head of bovine population and 2.10 acres per head of animal population. In this respect Betul District is placed in an enviable position in relation to the other districts of the State, Betul being led only by Sarguja and Bastar districts. This is because of the fact that Betul being a hilly and forested District, area available as pasture for grazing is comparatively much larger. But this is only the quantitative aspect of the problem. However, with the increasing extension of cultivation to new and fallow lands, the available pasture is gradually shrinking. The out-turn of agricultural crops being poor the fodder so produced is hardly sufficient for working bullocks and milch animals. The area around Betul and Betul-Bazar under intensive cultivation has to depend entirely upon adjoining poor pastures of Dharakhoh Reserved forest during rains. In other parts of the District where surplus grazing area is available, the grass is of very poor quality and infested with parasitic plants. Naturally the livestock practically starves during the later part of summer months.

A report on the incidence of grazing in Betul District compiled in 1952-53 showed that whereas the incidence of grazing in the remote Reserved forests is six acres per animal, the same is 8-10 animals per acre in inhabited areas. The position is no better now and would in fact present a more dismal and lamentable picture to-day. Unless a firm policy is adopted regarding the demarcation of areas exclusively earmarked for use as pasture and luxuriant and nutritious grasses are grown in them, and the pastures are properly maintained, managed and conserved, the future of livestock is bleak, for grazing is the most economical method of feeding the livestock.

The indigenous grasses that grow in the District and are fed to the cattle are *mushel* and *kel*. However, for making available additional supplies of fodder, fodder development activities are under way in the District. Veterinary Extension Officers working in the Development Blocks distribute on subsidy basis seeds and roots of grasses, viz., Napier, Giant Napier.

Among the green forage crops legumes occupy a place of particular importance. Of all the common roughages, they are the richest in carotene, calcium and protein. Amongst the commonly grown legumes, berseem and lucerne are important and grown as irrigated crops. Cultivators are encouraged to take them up.

Jowar, maize, bajra and ragi form the chief crops which are available for fodder. Out of these, jowar is of considerable importance in the District commanding a sizeable area. But, unfortunately because of the pressure on land, crops are grown mainly for the yield of grain, the fodder being only a bye-product. The plants are allowed to grow to maturity with the result that almost all of the nutrients pass from leaves and stem to the grain and the matter left over for use as fodder is poor in nutritive value. Very little attention has been paid to the development of cultivated fodders.

As regards the current feeding practices, a distinction is made between animals in work and milk and others. They get *kadbi*, oil-cake and crushed gram in addition to green grass, hey and grazing, which is common to all.

Milk Supply

Gaolis are a nomadic tribe in this District and have been the traditional cattle-breeders and milk-producers. This tribe is found right from the plateau of Khamla, south-west corner of the District, to the northern border of the District along Western Reserved forest belt.

Gaolis live in far interior in the forest tract generally on the foot of hills with perennial stream providing a good source of water for their cattle, bordering extensive rich pastures. They live in small groups scattered all over the forest ranges. Some of them exploit the rich pastures wherever found with seasonal water flow in rivers and streams and remain moving as the pasture is grazed and the water supply recedes. They use the milk to manufacture *ghee*. Buffalo is the dairy animal with these people, though cows are also maintained for breeding and sale of bulls and bullocks. Individual Gaolies from rural areas supply milk to the towns. Some have settled in towns also. They sell milk direct to hotels, confectioners and to individuals from door to door.

Two co-operative milk producers' unions have been established at Khedi and Bhainsdehi with the aim of pooling the milk supplies of the tract, arranging the sale at remunerative prices, thus ensuring adequate return for the cattle-owners. The former was organised in December, 1963, and the latter in November, 1965.

It may be of interest to note that a co-operative society of *ghee* producers has been in existence since 1943, at Jhallar, about 21 miles (40 kms.) from Betul on Betul-Achalpur Road. It was organised and registered on 28th July, 1943, under the name and style of "The Ghee Producers Union Ltd., Jhallar", as a result of a scheme sanctioned by the Government on 7th June, 1943. This scheme arose partly out of the emergency of meeting considerable demand for pure *ghee* required during the Second World War and partly to explore the possibility of developing *ghee* industry on sound economic lines. Its main object is to improve the condition of both the animals and the primary producers. The scheme has admirably succeeded in securing better return to the primary producers by or-

ganising an efficient marketing system and eliminating the middlemen, and in effecting around improvement in the living conditions of the Gaolies and in the management of the livestock.

Cattle Diseases

Many cattle diseases are rife in the District. The commonest cattle-disease is foot-and-mouth (*khuri*). It is a highly communicable disease affecting cloven-footed animals and is characterized by fever, formation of vesicles and blisters in the mouth, udder, teats and on the skin between the toes and above the hoofs. It occurs practically all the year round and being widespread it assumes a position of importance in the livestock industry. The disease affects mostly cattle of all breeds and ages. The disease is most common in the cold weather and a cloudy weather during that season, is said to increase its virulence. The local remedy is to apply *ghee* to the tongue while the animal is made to stand in mud.

Rinderpest (*mata*) or cattle-plague is the most destructive virus disease of cloven-footed animals, such as, cattle, buffaloes, sheep, goats, pigs and wild ruminants. The disease is widely rampant. The sick animal succumbs to the disease while the survivors are rendered less productive for work, milk and meat, with the consequent loss in output of human food. It generally appears in the hot weather. This disease has now come under control and its incidence has come down virtually to nil from 254 in 1960-61. This has been possible due to mass vaccination during 1960-61.

Blackquarter (*ektangia*) a form of anthrax, is common and is generally fatal. Buffaloes usually suffer from a milder form of the disease. Out-breaks generally occur with the onset of rains. The affected animals die within about 48 hours of the onset of the symptoms. Previously people knew of no efficacious treatment for this disease. Other forms of anthrax are *pharwa* or internal anthrax, which is generally fatal within two days. The lungs are congested and the liver swells and turns black. *Phansi* or gross anthrax is a disease affecting the tongue, it is generally not fatal if treated in time.

Haemorrhagic septicaemia (*galghontu*) is also a widely prevalent epidemic of the District. This acute septicaemic disease of cattle and buffaloes is second to rinderpest in importance. It occurs generally in low-lying areas periodically inundated by rain water. The disease generally runs an acute course and the animals often develop a highly septicaemic condition and die within the course of about 24 hours of infection. The disease is associated with a high rise in the body temperature of affected animals. In the oedematous form inflammatory swelling occurs in the head and neck regions and occasionally in other parts. The rate of mortality ranges from 70 to 100 per cent.

African horse sickness is a disease of the foals and is quite active. Incidence of anthrax and surra is very rare. Infection of coccidiosis and schistosomatidae is also rare.

Worm infestation in sheep is common. Pneumonia is a common ailment of goats. However, the number of sheep and goats is too small in the District so as to assess the extent of their incidence.

Ranikhet is the most common poultry disease. Fowl-pox and other diseases have proved to be of rare occurrence.

The incidence of livestock and poultry diseases has been reduced within manageable proportions due to the strenuous efforts made by the Veterinary Department in recent years. This problem has been tackled by a two-pronged attack-intensification of both preventive and curative measures. The disease control measures adopted by the Department have been quite effective and the farmers are now convinced of the efficacy of prophylactic vaccinations carried out against the various contagious diseases. Rinderpest Eradication Programme may be cited as an example. No out-breaks or mortality from rinderpest have been reported during the years 1962-63, 1963-64 and 1964-65. Similarly, no cases of anthrax, Ranikhet and rabies have been reported since the year 1959-60. Incidence of rinderpest, haemorrhagic septicaemia and black-quarter in recent years is set forth below:—

Year	Rinderpest			Haemorrhagic Septicaemia			Black-Quarter		
	Out-breaks	Mortality	Inoculations	Out-breaks	Mortality	Inoculations	Out-breaks	Mortality	Inoculations
1959-60	36	256	N. A.	7	31	N. A.	18	103	N.A.
1960-61	28	254	60,524	Nil	Nil	29,319	16	55	26,643
1961-62	2	8	—	21	27	14,547	98	51	10,299
1962-63	—	—	—	4	8	4,310	10	20	5,174
1963-64	—	—	—	20	46	11,716	13	23	6,036
1964-65	—	—	39,066	3	1	2,998	Nil	Nil	5,263

Veterinary Hospitals

The first veterinary hospital of the District was opened at Multai in 1926. Two years later, i.e., in 1928, the second hospital was started at Bhainsdehi. Veterinary hospital, Betul, came into existence in 1935. These hospitals were managed by District Council and were in the charge of Veterinary Assistant Surgeons. The staff then also included a trained veterinary compounder, chowki-dar, sweeper and peon. Field work and control of epidemics were given top priority. This arrangement continued till the year 1939-40 when need for regular veterinary aid in the interior portion of the District was keenly felt. An outlying veterinary dispensary in aboriginal tract of the District was opened at Shahpur entirely at Government cost. A trained compounder was placed in charge of the institution and one ward coolie and one whole time sweeper were appointed to assist him. The compounder was expected to contact people

of the town in the after-noon to popularize the institution. The Veterinary Assistant Surgeon of the Tahsil was placed in a visiting charge of the outlying dispensary. This was upgraded to a veterinary hospital on 1st July, 1962. Pattan had a hospital on 2nd October, 1953. The year 1962 witnessed the opening of veterinary hospitals at Chicholi (1st September) and Bhimpur (1st October). Another hospital was added at Amla on 3rd July, 1963.

These hospitals located in the urban areas could not serve the scattered, remote and isolated rural parts of the District. So with a view to catering to the needs of these areas, the veterinary medical service was further strengthened by the establishment of outlying veterinary dispensaries. Amongst the existing dispensaries, the first one to be established was at Athnair. It came into being on 3rd March, 1954. Three dispensaries were established during 1955 at Barvi, Khamla (both on 13th March, 1955) and at Ranipur (on 1st June, 1955). Masod had its dispensary on 30th March, 1959. These dispensaries have been established in quick succession from the year 1960, viz., Chandu (1959-60), Damjipura (1959-60), Jhallar (30th March, 1960), Dunewa (21st March, 1960), Bijadehi (1961), Birool (28th March, 1961), Khedi (14th March, 1962), Barkhed (22nd Sept., 1962), Padhar (3rd Oct., 1962), Bordehi (31st March, 1963), Khedli-Bazar (1st Jan., 1964), Saikheda (15th Sept., 1964) and Sohagpur (28th March, 1965).

One mobile veterinary unit has also been functioning since 1st May, 1962.

Measures to Improve Quality of Breed

Proper feeding, disease-control, housing and the upgrading of existing breed are the corner-stones of successful livestock-husbandry. Progress made in some of the above spheres has already been indicated.

The first step taken in the direction of improving the quality of breed was the opening of key village centres. These were opened at Pattan and Khedi on 1st June, 1951, and at Sohagpur on 1st March, 1955. Breeding bulls are usually purchased from key village centres. They are also obtained from breeders of East and West Nimar and Agar, cattle fair of Sohagpur and key village centres of Ujjain District.

The second step was the establishment of artificial insemination centres. The first centre was set up at the District Headquarters in 1955-56. Other centres were established at Pattan in 1961-62, at Multai in 1963-64 and at Padhar in 1964-65. This service was started mainly to help the breeders of urban areas. Semen from milk-strains, Sahiwal and Hariana for cows and Murra and Nagpuri for buffaloes is regularly obtained from semen production banks and the service is extended to the intending cattle-owners of urban and adjacent areas.

Artificial insemination service has been supplemented by setting up cattle breeding units mostly in remote and rural areas. This has been done as artificial insemination may not be so readily acceptable amongst the rural-folk. Moreover,

transportation of semen in serviceable condition to distant areas poses its own problems. The cattle-breeding units make available natural service and are functioning at Chandu (29-11-1960), Damjipura (29-11-1960), Chicholi (27-3-1961), Khedi (4-1-1962), Barvi (4-1-1962), Shahpur (1-4-1963), Ranipur (1-4-1963), Barkhed (10-2-1964), Amla (1-1-1965), Khedli Bazar (1-1-1965), Masod (11-1-1965), and Birool (11-1-1965). The figures within brackets denote the dates of establishment of the units.

But the steps adopted to disseminate improved germ plasm of better breeds of cattle and buffaloes, outlined above have not yielded the desired results. Actual improvement in the quality of breed is not visible mainly due to want of nutritional environment available for expression of the genetical potentiality of the upgraded stock.

Cattle Fairs

The Malajpur cattle fair held annually in January in Betul Tahsil and the cattle markets at Betul, Betul-Bazar and Birool afford marketing facilities mostly for bullocks. Other animals are sold in very small numbers. Most of the good animals of Bhainsdehi Tahsil find their market at the annual cattle fair at Beharam of Achalpur Tahsil in Amravati District.

Poultry Farming

Betul is one of the main poultry producing districts of the State.

The Livestock Census of 1961 returned the number of poultry as 2,39,972. This figure indicates significant increase over the numbers existing in 1951 (99,752) and 1956 (1,74,804). The poultry in 1961 Census consisted of 63,257 hens, 20,753 cocks, 1,54,905 chickens, 74 ducks and 983 others.

A large part of the District is hilly inhabited by aboriginal tribes, like Gond and Korku. They are evenly distributed in Bhainsdehi and Betul tahsils, while in Multai Tahsil aboriginal tribes are found in its northern tract. Poultry-keeping is a profession dear to their heart. Poultry is a source of income for them. It provides a nutritious dish. It is also used as a sacrificial bird for propitiating their gods.

The traditional local bird is a small bird of the size of a game bird found in deep forests which gives 50 to 60 eggs on an average per year. However, looking to the bright future of the industry in the District, attempts have been made to reorganise it on improved and scientific lines. The first attempt dates back to the year 1941-42, when an experimental demonstration poultry farm was established on the outskirts of Betul town at Sonaghathi. Another attempt in the furtherance of the same objective was the establishment of a small demonstration poultry unit at the Veterinary Dispensary, Betul during the next year.

In 1945 a Poultry Developmental Research Scheme was started amongst other places, at Sonaghathi and Shahpur in Betul District. One of the objects of

the Scheme was to carry out intensive developmental work in those areas, having a chain of contiguous villages with a poultry population of about 500 hens bred with improved cockerels of Single Comb White Leghorn and Rhode Island Red breeds. While Sonaghathi was selected as a sub-urban area, Shahpur represented an aboriginal tract. The Scheme had two aspects, (1) experimental work, and (2) development work, i.e., propaganda in the area of operation with a view to enlisting sympathy of local people in favour of the Scheme. The Scheme was sanctioned for a period of five years.

The object of the Sonaghathi farm was to breed White Leghorn and R.I.R. breeds which flourish well in the District. Cockerels and hatching eggs were regularly distributed both from this farm and the poultry unit, Betul, with the result that Betul town and the villages within a radius of five miles and other parts of the District where the activities could reach conveniently were in a position to raise improved birds. Special efforts were made in areas near Shahpur till the year 1951-52 to upgrade the local birds with R.I.R. cocks. But Shahpur was remote from the principal consuming centres, and in the absence of marketing facilities and want of proper response from the local population, maximum advantage could not be derived from the Scheme, beyond meeting the local demand. R.I.R. grades are still found in this area.

Poultry development work was again taken up under The Community Development Programme. White Leghorn breed, which possesses better laying capacity, more than double that of the local breed, was introduced on an intensive scale since the year 1961-62. A District Poultry Unit was set up in the Special Multi-Purpose Tribal Block, Bhimpur, in 1962-63, but was closed down being small and uneconomic. The District Poultry Unit, established at Betul on 5th Oct., 1957, continues. The Unit has been expanded by increasing the number of layers to 300 during Third Plan period.

No definite system of feeding the poultry is in vogue. Free range is the common practice. The birds find their requirements in the kitchen and store refuse and in the heaps of manure. During winter, after the harvest of crops they get enough grains of different kinds as a threshing floor waste. In some cases, especially interested and well-to-do poultry keepers feed a few handfuls of locally available grain both morning and evening. The village birds get greens during rainy and winter months, but in summer greens are scarce except near house drains and village wells. Housing arrangements vary according to the interest and financial capacity of the poultry keeper. They act as safe harbours for ticks and leave much to be desired. In fact, not much headway has been made in the housing and upkeep of poultry.

The chief causes of heavy mortality in poultry are Ranikhet infection and spirochaetosis. Now prophylactic vaccinations have become popular and have largely checked mortality from these scourges. Lice and tick infestations also harm the poultry. Losses due to predatory animals like jackals, cats, mongoose,

kites, crows, dogs, etc., and village urchins also occur. A separate scheme under Applied Nutrition Programme has been started in the District in which 22 units have been opened. Each unit consists of 50 hens and 5 cocks. New cross known as Oestro-White has been introduced in these units. These units will be used to fulfil the local demand of eggs and birds. Steps towards the formation of a co-operative society for sale of eggs, etc., have been taken up. It appears that lack of marketing facilities for eggs has hampered the rapid progress of poultry farming. The removal of this lacuna will ensure a flourishing future for this industry.

Fisheries

The principal variety of fish which local population cherishes most is *wawal*, which is found in the river Tapti, the Purna, the Machna, the Tawa and also in local tanks. However, fishes of all varieties are generally available in the waters of the District, viz., *Catla catla*, *Cirrhina mrigala*, *Labeo fimbriatus*, *Labeo calbasu*, *Wallago attu*, *Mastocembelus armatus*, *Barbus tor*, *Mystus seenghala*, etc. In addition to the rivers and tributaries, numerous tanks, big and small, government and private yield rich crops of fishes. The Tapti, the Machna and the Tawa have deep water-columns called *doh*, which are the principal breeding centres.

Demonstration of piscicultural work was taken up in M. C. Tank, Betul, in the year 1951, under fishery development scheme. The scheme is still continuing. The Fisheries Department looks after development work in some selected tanks, viz., Sampna, Kothi-Bazar, Prabhat Pattan, Multai, etc. Every year about one lakh seedlings are stocked in government tanks and seed is also supplied to private parties through Block agency. Recently, Government has also sanctioned a scheme for intensive pisciculture for Prabhat Pattan Block of the District. A sum of Rs. 12,000 will be utilized on such works as deepening of tanks, supply of fish seed at subsidized rates, provision of equipment, loans, etc., during a period of three years.

Efforts are also being made to reorganise the local fishing industry on improved and scientific lines and thereby improve the lot of local fishermen. Dhimar, Raikwar and Kahar are the principal castes engaged in the fishing industry. A number of displaced families from East Pakistan have also taken to pisciculture. Fishermen are illiterate and poor. The nets used by them are of small size which can be easily carried for miles together by one single fisherman. Schemes have been prepared for improving their socio-economic condition by giving them loans and subsidies for purchase of nets, yarn, boats, etc. As a consequence, they have prepared nylon gill nets and drag nets and rejected their own cotton nets, viz., cast nets and *pelni* nets. Similarly, traditional boats, viz., *donga* and *kuppi* are being progressively discarded in favour of new types of boats. Groups of fishermen also work with Fisheries Department on royalty basis at Sampna tank for the extraction of fish. Development of pisciculture is also encouraged through the formation of fishermen's co-operative societies to which all technical and financial assistance is made available by the Fisheries Department. In 1969-70, three such societies were functioning at Multai, Hirapur and Poorji.

The breeding season of major carps is July and August, while *mahaseer* breeds during September, October and November. Fish extraction work continues throughout the year, except in the months of July and August which are kept closed by the Department. The maximum catches are obtained during the months February to May. Fish production is also increasing rapidly.

Several streams drain the District. The District abounds in tanks and with the expansion of irrigation facilities more are coming up. The rehabilitation of displaced families from Bengal is likely to provide added impetus to this industry. All these factors point out to a promising future for pisciculture development in the District.

FORESTRY

Betul District is one of the richest districts of Madhya Pradesh in respect of forest resources. A total area of 10,34,857 acres was reported to be under forests in 1964-65. This was equivalent to 41.5 per cent of the entire area of the District according to village papers. Approximate annual revenue realised is about Rs. 50 lakhs. Business in timber is one of the major means of earnings for the people of the District. Teak and bamboo constitute the major items of trade.

Agriculturists of the District use *tinsa* and the inferior species as *lendia*, *dhaura* and *khair* for making farm implements. *Khair* is very much liked for yokes, spokes, naves and wheels. *Bheria* and *dhaura* are very much suited for axles. *Siwan* is in great demand for yokes and *dhaman* for axe-handles. Forest operations both Departmental and otherwise provide work to the local labourers. Every day more than a thousand people are engaged on forest works by the Department and about two hundred by the contractors. Establishment of 95 forest villages ensures ready labour for the exploitation and working of forests and livelihood for a little over 2,000 families. Haulage of felled forest produce employs a large number of bullock-cart owners. Besides, the extraction of minor forest produce, viz., gums, flowers, fruits, manufacture of catechu and *rusa* oil, lac cultivation and *tasar* silk-worm rearing further enlarge the scope of gainful employment. Forests support the large livestock population by providing grazing and fodder.

Forest Produce

Principal forest produce of the District consists of teak, timber, miscellaneous timber, fuel and charcoal, bamboos, *tendu* leaves, *rusa* grass, myrobalans, gum, *mahua* flower, fruits, hides and bones.

Teak

Teak is the most predominant and prevailing species in the whole District. It is abundant everywhere except in northern tracts. Betul teak is famous all over the country and compares well with the Burma teak. Veneers can be cast so as to make decent furniture. It takes very fine polish and is not susceptible to termite damage. Its demand is constantly increasing and so also the cost.

Miscellaneous Timber

After teak, *tinsa* is the most important species of trees. *Bija*, *shisham*, *haldu*, *saj*, *siwan*, and others come under this category. *Saj*, *haldu* and *tinsa* are found in sufficient quantity but *bija*, *shisham* and *siwan* are rarely used by the local people on account of their high cost. *Saj*, *haldu*, *kalam*, *dhaura*, *khair*, *tinsa* and *tendu* are the commonest species used locally in buildings.

Fuel and Charcoal

Species other than *teak*, *tinsa*, *bija*, *shisham*, *saj*, *haldu* and *siwan*, are known as *alpal* and they are sold as fuel. Fuel is sold as cartloads. Charcoal is sold in bags. Charcoal is manufactured by contractors in the coupes and it is usually exported out of the District. Fuel is also exported to some big cities of Uttar Pradesh, but not in large quantities. *Dhaura* and *saj* make very good quality of charcoal. Betul District is always surplus in the production of firewood.

Bamboo

Bamboo abounds in teak area. Very valuable bamboo tracts can be seen on slopes and ravines. Amongst the main forest products of the District bamboo occupies second place. Majority of the population is tribal and bamboo supplies the main building material for their dwellings. It is used for fencing, basket-making and tool-handles. As in the case of teak, the prices of bamboo are also soaring high as a result of upward demand. A felling series of bamboo has been given to Nepa Mills.

Teak, *tinsa* and bamboo, for which the demand is quite keen, yield bulk of the forest revenue. They are largely exported and used for building and industrial purposes.

Tendu Leaves

Leaves of *tendu* are used as wrapping material for *bidis*. They are exported to Jabalpur, Nagpur, Gondia, and other places for *bidi*-making industry. Collection of *tendu* leaves affords employment to a large number of people.

Mahua

It is found extensively all over the District and may suitably be termed as *kalpavriksh*. Its flower and fruit are of great use. The former is used for eating and extraction of country liquor, and the latter yields oil. Flower is also fed to the cattle. There is no restriction on the collection of flowers and fruits. About a quarter of the *mahua* collected is consumed locally, the rest is brought to the market for disposal.

Rusa Grass

Rusa grass or *tikhari* grass is found all over the District though mainly obtained from extreme southern and western parts of Bhainsdehi Tahsil and extreme southern part of Multai Tahsil and is highly valued on account of the

rusa or *tikhari* oil distilled from it. Betul is famous for its *rusa* oil also. Leases are commonly given for the collection of *rusa* grass. This scented oil, which is used in the manufacture of perfumes and soap and also medicinally, is distilled chiefly from the flower. At one time it found its way to Turkey and France. Two varieties of *rusa* grass are available, *motia* and *sopia*. It is only the superior *motia* variety which is of commercial importance. Distillation is carried on in the forests with the help of country-made stills and is sent to Paratwara from where it goes to foreign countries. *Sopia* which is of inferior quality is not distilled due to low selling rates and high cost of production.

Myrobalans

Harra is the tree of first-rate commercial importance on account of the extensive trade in its fruit—*harra* or myrobalan. It is obtained from the plateau region of Betul and Amla ranges, and parts of Saonligarh and Sawalmendha ranges. It is exported to Europe as tanning material.

Hides and Horns

Hides and horns of wild and domestic animals that die in the forest while grazing are collected. Hides are largely used by *Chamars* locally, while bones and horns are exported by rail.

Grazing

Forest grazing provides the most economical source of feeding the cattle and grazing dues yield considerable revenue.

Catechu is made from the wood of the *khair* tree. Contracts are given for the collection of naturally exuded gums. Lac-cultivation and rearing of *tasar* silk worms are also done. *Achar* tree yields *chironji* fruit.

The forest produce is mainly collected at Betul, Amla, Bordehi, Ghoradongri, Shahpur and Dhodramohar from where it is exported to consuming centres. The principal places which receive this produce are Itarsi, Khandwa, Harda and Khirkiya within the State and Nagpur, Amravati and Paratwara outside the State. The produce so supplied feeds the paper and plyboard industries. Nepa Mills in East Nimar District is the principal consumer of bamboo. Timber pieces are sent to Itarsi for its card and chip board factory.

Forest Guards Training School

Established in the year 1946 there is a Forest Guards Training School at Betul where training in elementary forestry is imparted to the forest-guard trainees. There are 100 seats in the School. Admission to this School is given to Departmental candidates based on the recommendations of the concerning Divisional Forest Officers. Admission to the School is made by the Conservator of Forests, Hoshangabad. There is suitable arrangement for boarding and lodging for the trainees. The School is under Divisional Forest Officer, South Betul

Division. Training lasts for six months and thus each year two batches pass out one in August and the other in February. Trainees camp at Baretha for three months where they are given practical training in silviculture, mensuration, engineering, survey and utilization. At Baretha, the trainees themselves have constructed barracks and rest houses as part of their training. They are examined both in written test and *viva-voce*. Students securing more than 66 per cent marks are given higher standard certificates and percentage lower than this, entitles them for lower standard certificate.

Betul trained forest guards have earned a name for their efficiency and ability.

Plantations

Raising plantations is a characteristic feature of the modern forestry. Plantations have been successfully raised near Mohupani, Dhanora and Baretha. The Forest Department has successfully raised cashew plantations near Kheri and at Forest Guards Training School premises. There are many small plantations in other places of the District as well. It is proposed to start *palas* plantations in Asir range near Dhar. Coffee plantations have been raised near Kukru, but these have been leased out to a foreign concern. Under the Forest Centenary Celebrations, teak plantation work was taken up in Chunahazuri forest over an area of 100 acres.

On account of the merger of the much depleted *ex-malguzari* forests totalling 578.33 sq. miles much responsibility has devolved upon the Forest Department for upgrading the degraded forest stock.

During the Third Five Year Plan period, 300 acres were planted with teak, eucalyptus and bamboo and another 300 acres prepared for further plantation work in North Betul Forest Division. This involved an outlay of Rs. 60,000. In the South Betul Forest Division teak and eucalyptus plantations were raised on 335 acres during the same period. Besides, another scheme, 'Rehabilitation of Degraded Forests' was started during the Third Plan. It comprises such works as fire protection, marking of coupes, extension of paths, etc. In the North Betul Division alone such works were carried out over 4,000 acres at a cost of Rs. 1.53 lakhs.

Experimental Plots

Such plots existing in Betul District are enumerated below:—

Experimental Plot No. 14-Baretha, has an area of 608 acres. It was formed in January, 1936. Tree Increment Plot No. 1 was established on 4th April, 1931, to preserve an excellent group of teak trees. Its area is 0.6 acre. Preservation Plot No. 1 was formed in October, 1937, to preserve the existing forest so far as possible in its existing form. It covers nearly 30 acres. A *palas* tree of 11'-10" in girth on the bank of a nullah near Baretha well is being protected as protected Tree No. 1. All these plots are situated in Betul Range.

Nistar

Most of the day-to-day necessities of the people are met with from forests. Timber and bamboo are adequately supplied by suitable *nistar* supply arrangements. Four commercial and 82 *nistar* depots are so fixed that the villages may get their *nistar* supplies sufficiently and in time. *Mahua* flowers, *gulli* (*mahua* fruit), *achar* fruit and *tendu* fruit can be collected by villagers free of charge. In the working plans, provision has been made to prevent felling of fruit trees.

A list of the material, felled and stacked Departmentally for *nistar* purposes from Protected or Reserved forests is sent to the Collector. Keeping 20 per cent in reserve, he distributes 80 per cent amongst the Tahsildars for further distribution to Gram Panchayats or Gram Sabhas for final distribution to the villagers. Each cultivator is given either 10 pieces of timber or timber worth Rs. 100 whichever is less. The agriculturist after obtaining a permit of *sathkatha* or *khod* teak timber, can bring from the forest timber needed for agricultural implements.

Besides the distribution of *nistar* by Gram Panchayats, people can get their supplies at commercial rates, from *nistar* coupes according to their quota, as fixed by the Collector. After 1st April, persons within and outside the *nistar* zone can get their supplies at *nistar* rates from *nistar* coupes. From commercial depots every cultivator can get timber upto the value of Rs. 100 depending on his holding with the permission of the Divisional Forest Officer. Poles up to 24' girth only are given at *nistar* rates.

Cultivators can get 100 bamboos per *rasidbahi* at *nistar* rates and their servants 50 bamboos. Maximum of 500 bamboos can be supplied to a cultivator at other rates.

Bansors (professional basket-makers) get 1,500 bamboos at a certain fixed rate on producing *bansor bahi*. Beyond the limits fixed, the bamboos, if available, can be supplied at commercial rates.

Carpenters get *khod* (hollow or deformed) timber from Departmental and contractors' coupes by cart-loads at fixed rates.

For goldsmiths and blacksmiths, 36 cart-loads of lops and tops can be supplied annually from worked coupes after the expiry of lease period on payment of Rs. 15 as commutation fee.

For *bonafide* private needs brush wood and thorns are supplied free of cost from coupes of *ad hoc* felling series excepting the closed coupes. Grasses can also be taken free of cost for one's own *bonafide* use.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE

Legal provision for State assistance to agriculture exists in the two enactments known as the Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883 and Agriculturists'

Loans Act, 1884. The policy of State assistance to the cultivators can be divided into two phases—the year 1947 acting as the dividing line. During the first phase which ended with 1947, the primary aim of the foreign rulers was the maintenance of law and order and collection of land revenue. The welfare of the common man, was none of its concern. So the provisions of the above mentioned Acts were invoked when the agriculturists were struck by famine, flood or other natural calamities. After 1947, with the attainment of Independence, this narrow concept of State assistance to agriculture underwent a radical change. The State was now seized with the pressing problems of development and progress of agriculture for which financial assistance was made available in constantly expanding measure. With a view to combating the scarcity of foodgrains, finances were provided under Grow More Food Campaign as well. Now loans are available to the cultivators for every agricultural operation, viz., purchase of agricultural inputs, i.e., seeds, fertilizers, insecticides and pesticides, improvement of land, i.e., soil-conservation, contour-bunding, field embankments, tractorization, expansion of irrigation, fencing, etc. Quantum of loans sanctioned is shown in Appendix-A.

FAMINES

No information is available as to the occurrence of famines in Betul except in recent years. In 1819, the spring crops failed and the price of wheat in that year rose to double the prevailing rate. In 1832-33, excessive rains followed by their deficiency destroyed the harvests in the Narmada valley and on the Satpura plateau. The District is also said to have suffered from scarcity in 1845 and 1854. In 1868-69, the year of the Bundelkhand famine, the rainfall of Betul was only 21 inches. In 1878, the spring crops suffered from heavy rain and frost in the cold weather months and the winter harvest was estimated at only three to four annas. In the following year 1878-79, the monsoon was very heavy, upto the end of September, in which month 9½ inches were received. The ensuing cold weather was almost rainless, and while the jowar was injured by too much moisture, the spring crops were defective owing to drought. The next bad year was in 1886 when the rain crops were damaged by the failing of the monsoon in August and September and in some tracts the harvest was reduced to an eighth or a quarter of normal. The first spring sowings were lost, but heavy rain in October enabled fresh seed to be put in and in the result an average wheat crop was obtained, though the out-turns of linseed and gram were short.

From 1891, the District struggled against a series of adverse seasons. In that year nearly 23 inches of rain fell in September and only insignificant showers subsequently. The autumn crops were water-logged and the spring sowings withered from drought, about half a normal harvest being obtained from each. In the next year a fair autumn harvest was reaped, but heavy rain and cloudy weather between January and March greatly injured the wheat, gram and linseed, reducing the out-turn by a half or more. In the next year 1893-94, the area under crop decreased by 50,000 acres, and though the rainfall was not apparently unfavourable, the harvests were poor, with the exception of wheat, of which a bumper

crop was obtained. This did not, however, benefit the large numbers of Gonds and Korkus to an extent sufficient to compensate for the partial loss of the kodon and kutki, and the death-rate rose to 47 per mille in 1894 from 27 in the preceding year. In 1894-95 the District fared well as compared with others, the combined out-turn of all crops being 85 per cent of an average harvest, but the death-rate remained as high as 46 per mille, the mortality in both these years being aggravated by epidemics of cholera. The agricultural statistics would appear to demonstrate that the distress must have been confined to the forest tracts, where the kodon and kutki had been poor for four years in succession. With this exception the harvests were sufficiently favourable to have prevented any severe distress, at any rate for the greater part of 1894 and 1895. And the serious effects wrought by the partial failure of these comparatively unimportant millets are worthy of notice. In 1895-96 the monsoon practically died away at the end of August, but a fall of nearly 3 inches in September averted the complete failure of the autumn harvest, which was something more than half an average. The area sown with spring crops was restricted by the dryness of the ground and the out-turn reduced to a similar proportion by the absence of rain in the cold weather. No severe distress, however, appeared to have resulted as the death-rate was lower than in the preceding year.

In 1896-97 the close of the monsoon at the end of August was repeated and the autumn harvest was still worse. The area of the spring crops was much restricted, but favourable rain in the winter months enabled a fair harvest to be gathered from such fields as had been sown. The combined out-turn was 42 per cent of a normal harvest as against 56 in the preceding year. Cotton was fairly successful in both years and *til* also to a less degree, but these crops were then of comparatively small importance. The combined effect of the two bad years followed by several poor harvests produced a condition of famine, severe from the first in the forest tracts and intensifying in the open country through the hot weather and monsoon months of 1897. The extent of the distress was not fully realised at first and more especially its prevalence among the Gonds and Korkus, who had no idea of resorting to road works, and continued to eke out a bare subsistence on forest produce until their enfeebled frames succumbed easily to cholera, dysentery and diarrhoea in the rains. Test works were considered to be at first sufficient according to the general famine policy of this period, and they failed to attract the people or to disclose the prevalence of distress. Relief works were opened in December and January 1897, fresh construction being undertaken on the roads from Betul to Ellichpur, Chicholi to Harda and Multai to Chhindwara. Famine loans to the extent of Rs. 18,000 were advanced to village proprietors for the excavation of wells and the embankment of fields and the excavation of a tank at Ratamati was undertaken as a Government village work.

Three poor houses were opened. Village relief was begun in February, 1897, but the numbers assisted remained very small until September, 1897. In August, 1897, kitchens numbering 22 were opened for the starving wanderers. The attendance at kitchens never reached 2,000 and was generally confined to

castes of inferior social standing, and it may be of interest to note that those who took food in kitchens were required to perform purificatory ceremonies before being re-admitted to caste. Generally, these subsidiary forms of relief were begun too late and administered on too small a scale. The total number of persons relieved reached 18,000 in March, 1897, and 26,000 at the end of September, 1897. The direct expenditure was Rs. 4½ lakhs and about Rs. 90,000 were distributed in charitable grants or agricultural loans for the purchase of seed-grain or bullocks. Land revenue was suspended in only a few selected cases. The mortality for the year 1897 was 74 per mille as against 38 in 1896. The death-rate was very high from June to October, 1897, and the real destitution of the people became terribly apparent, being intensified by the long break in the rains during June and July, 1897. During 1897, the highest price of jowar was 6½ seers to the rupee while wheat and rice sold at 6 and 5½ seers, respectively.

The results of the famine were more marked in Betul than in any other District of the Narmada Division. The cropped area declined in 1897-98 by 50,000 acres from the figure of 1896-97. This was attributed to the dearth of the plough-cattle and the inability of the cultivators to replace those lost in 1897.

In 1899-1900 the rains failed completely, only 3 inches being received at Badnur in June, 5½ in July, and under 2 inches in August, while after this only one or two insignificant showers were registered during the remainder of the agricultural year. Even under such unfavourable conditions cotton, *til* and gram gave about half an average out-turn and wheat 40 per cent, but from the other crops little or nothing was obtained. The area sown with the spring crops was very short and the proportion of the harvest to a normal out-turn on a normal area was only 18 per cent, this being insufficient to pay for the seed and the direct outlay on cultivation. The almost total destruction of the *mahua* crop was an additional and unlooked-for calamity. A severe famine was the necessary sequel to such a season and a complete and timely organisation of relief measures of all kinds was brought into effect as soon as the necessity for it was demonstrated.

Another branch of the relief organisation, consisting in the provision of special and congenial employment for the forest tribes continued functioning concurrently with the large works.

Village relief was adopted as the most suitable means of assisting the infirm and indigent at the commencement of the famine. The distribution lists contained as high a number as 32,000 names in November. Kitchens for the distribution of cooked food were also opened.

The provision of famine relief lasted from September 1899, to December 1900. The highest number in receipt of assistance rose to 1,08,000 at the end of December and to 1,43,000 or 45 per cent of the population in August 1900. The direct expenditure was of the order of Rs. 34 lakhs. Nearly the entire demand for land revenue was suspended and later remitted. More than a lakh of rupees

were advanced under the Agriculturists' Loans Act for the purchase of seed-grain and bullocks and a lakh and a half were distributed in grants for the same purpose. Scarcity of water consequent on the very short rainfall and the resulting pollution of the sources of supply were responsible for the spread of disease.

The harvest of 1901-02 was very poor and a considerable proportion of the revenue was remitted, but there was no scarcity. The protection of a large number of primitive Gonds and Korkus, formed a serious problem in the organisation of famine relief. Till the railway line was constructed, the problem of transport of food-grains was also a serious hurdle.

The famine of 1907-08 which enveloped the whole of Central Provinces was caused by the late and inadequate rain-fall in June and July and again in September and October, 1907. The resulting distress was aggravated by widespread famine conditions in the U.P. and Central India and scarcity conditions in some parts of Bengal.

Betul was again in the grip of a famine in 1918-19. This calamity was caused by the abrupt cessation of the rains in September 1918, and there was practically no rain until almost the end of November. The severity of the widespread crop failure was sharpened by the serious influenza epidemic which coincided with the *kharif* harvesting and *rabi* sowing and took a very heavy toll.

In 1933-34, hailstorm and frost damaged the crop in some places in Betul District.

In 1920-21, the District witnessed a crop failure more serious in nature than any famine that occurred since 1899-1900. It was occasioned by the abrupt cessation of rainfall in the middle of September, 1920. The intensity of the calamity was most marked in Multai and Masod revenue circles. P.W.D. works were carried out. Other relief measures were also undertaken.

The District suffered from famine or scarcity conditions of low intensity in succession for six years, from 1941-42 to 1946-47. They were caused either by the deficiency or the abundance of rains or by hailstorms or rust. Necessary steps were taken to give relief to the affected persons.

The people had hardly recovered from the ill-effects of the six consecutive bad years referred to in the foregoing paragraph, when they were again confronted by similar conditions in 1952-53 and 1953-54. In 1952-53, the entire District was gripped by famine while in the latter year only Dunawa and Masod R.I. Circles of Multai Tahsil were enveloped.

The rainfall during the year 1952 was 14 to 20 inches as against the average of 45 inches. There were scanty rains throughout the District but rainfall was very poor in Multai Tahsil. The *kharif* was badly affected and was estimated at four to six annas. A few showers were received in the month of October, 1952,

and lands were prepared for *rabi* crops. But the bright sunshine after rains caused a severe depletion in the moisture resulting in considerable decline in *rabi* area. The germination of the *rabi* crops was reported to be satisfactory but good showers were needed for the survival of the young plants. The showers when they came were insufficient, the plants withered away over large areas. About 118 villages of Multai Tahsil and 8 villages of Bhainsdehi Tahsil were affected by the scarcity conditions of the year 1952-53.

In January, 1953, five metal-breaking centres were opened at Prabhat-Pattan, Dunawa, Chichanda, Dahuwa, and Athnair for providing employment and money to the labourers and petty cultivators who were hardest hit. Some road and tank works were also started.

The works were finally closed in the last week of August, 1953. The total number of persons relieved at all metal-breaking centres was 2,514, on road works 2,788 and on tank works, 6,392.

During 1953, the rainfall was below normal in Multai Tahsil. In some villages of R.I. Circles Dunawa and Masod, first rains were not received at all with the result that the out-turn of *kharif* crop was eight annas. In 38 villages of Multai Tahsil, suspension of *kharif kist* of land revenue was granted. Opening of relief works was considered essential particularly in view of the fact that these 38 villages had suffered from the failure of crops during two successive years.

To meet the scarcity conditions during the two years 1957-58 and 1958-59, a number of small tanks, wells and *jharias*, etc., were constructed and old wells were repaired, besides the normal construction activities of P.W.D. and other Departments. During the year 1957-58, an amount of Rs. 15,199 was utilized while in 1958-59 an expenditure of Rs. 14,268 was incurred.

Scarcity of 1964-65

The District witnessed the worst scarcity during the 'seventies of this Century which dogged the District from 1964-65 to November, 1967. The distress was caused by insufficiency of rains. As against the normal rainfall of 937.9 mms, for the four months June to September for all the rain-gauge stations of the District, the actual rainfall received amounted to 784.9 mms during 1965-66 and 582.7 mms during 1966-67 for the same period. Out of 1,267 villages, 1,249 villages were struck by scarcity. A total of 743 villages were worst affected where the out-turn was less than four annas. It was between four and six annas in 388 villages and between six and eight annas in 118 villages. During the period of scarcity the out-turn of paddy was 0.61 paise in 1964-65 and 0.27 paise in 1966-67. The average out-turn of all *kharif* crops was 0.25 paise during 1966-67 while that of *rabi* crops was 0.56 paise.

In order to face these scarcity conditions and to relieve the affected population the State Government initiated a number of schemes so as to provide employ-

ment opportunities to the affected poor masses and thereby help them financially. In addition to providing them gainful jobs the State Government arranged for free distribution of meals to the handicapped persons and the distribution of ration at concessional rates through fair price shops to the labourers at the site of different scarcity works.

During the years 1964-65 to 1967-68 in order to meet water scarcity 395 nullahs were bunded and 245 old wells were repaired, 18 *jharias*, 14 *katcha* wells, 10 *pucca* wells were constructed and 80 old wells were deepened. An amount of Rs. 1,54,674 was utilized. Water was transported to six villages through seven bullock carts at the cost of the Government.

To meet the fodder scarcity, the Forest Department collected 933.12 qtls, and 3,29,690 *poolas* of fodder during 1965-66 and 1966-67 at a cost of Rs. 9,508.

During the year 1967-68, i.e., upto November, 1967, maximum number of persons who received gratuitous relief on a single day in the peak period was 12,280. During the same period, 1,912 qtls. of foodgrains was distributed to these persons. Under emergency feeding programme 496 centres were opened during the year 1967-68 and about 8,000 persons were provided free meals on a single day in the peak period of the year.

In addition, a number of children and nursing and expectant mothers were supplied free milk. For the purpose, 396 centres were opened during the year 1966-67 and about 8,000 children and mothers were benefited, while in the year 1967-68, six such centres were opened and about 100 persons per day were benefited.

In order to prevent the outbreak of diseases in the scarcity-affected areas 5,578 persons were inoculated and 5,093 were vaccinated during the year 1967-68. Vitamin tablets were distributed.

For providing employment to the persons residing in scarcity affected areas 27 old and 5 new *nistari* tanks were taken up during 1966-67 and 1967-68 for expansion in their capacity. Due to this measure an additional area of 30 acres was likely to be irrigated. An amount of Rs. 3,05,173 was spent over these works. Work was started on three new irrigation tanks in Bhainsdehi Tahsil during 1966-67 and 1967-68. This was expected to provide irrigation to 140 acres in the concerned villages of Jeen and Churia. An amount of Rs. 98,127 was spent over the construction of above tanks.

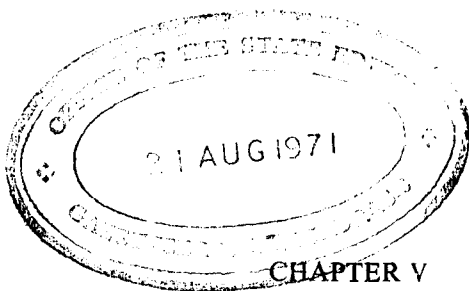
Besides, construction of various roads was taken up. During the year 1966-67, eleven roads were taken up and an amount of Rs. 6,04,517 was spent, while during the year 1967-68 as many as 15 roads were taken up and an amount of Rs. 9,70,017 was utilized over them. In addition, the work of widening of class I roads was also taken up, over which an amount of Rs. 1,42,062 was spent. The Forest Department also undertook the construction of various forest roads

during the year 1966-67 and 1967-68. As many as 52 forest roads were taken up and an amount of Rs. 5,40,597 was spent.

A sum of Rs. 1,919 was spent on the development of 50 acres of Government land. Out of this 15 acres of land was allotted.

Certain other road works were also taken up by the Forest Department. An amount of Rs. 1,800 was spent on marking of coupes. Under cutting back operation works, 50 labourers were employed daily in peak period and an amount of Rs. 6,158 was spent.

During the period December, 1966, to November, 1967, the average number of labourers employed per day ranged from a minimum of 373 to the maximum of 7,591.



CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

The set up of the District is exclusively rural, as can be seen from the fact, that even as late in the present Century as in the year 1961 the rural population of the District formed 91.59 per cent of the total. Out of the total "workers" in the District, cultivators and agricultural labourers formed 83.77 per cent. This means other sectors of the economy in the District like Industries, trade or commerce and services together provided wherewithal to only 16.23 per cent of the "workers" and their dependents.

In 1951, self-supporting persons and earning dependents in the occupational class, "production other than cultivation" numbered 17,240. This number formed 6.78 per cent of the total economically active persons. Non-earning dependents in this class numbered 16,158. This gives a proportion of 0.93 dependents per economically active person in the occupational class "production other than cultivation".

According to 1961 Census, the number of economically active persons in mining, quarrying, livestock, etc., plus household industry and manufacturing other than household (all of which together are taken as equivalent to the production other than cultivation class of 1951) numbered 26,056. This gives an increase of 8,816 persons over a period of 10 years. In percentage terms this has formed 8.03 per cent of the total workers from all the different occupational classes.

As against the general population increase of 24.08 per cent during 1951-61 increase in the number of economically active persons in the agricultural class was 26.80 per cent, while in the industrial group the increase was 51.13 per cent. *Prima facie* the percentage increase in the industrial group appears to be salutary, indicating industrial progress of the District. However, this increase has to be considered in the light of the changes in the concept of economic status classification as also scope of the occupational groups in the 1951 and 1961 censuses. Looked at from this point of view, the scope of the term "worker" of 1961 Census appears to be wider than that of "self-supporting" and "earning dependents" of the 1951 Census. Similarly, occupational Class III, viz., mining, quarrying etc., of 1961 Census appears to be more catholic in its contents than its counterpart, Division 'O' of 1951 Census. Even so, some increase in the dependence of population for its livelihood on industrial

activity as compared to previous census cannot be wholly ruled out as a result of the planned economic development activities of the Government in the District as elsewhere in the Country.

Old-Time Industries

In the rural areas all over the Country certain industries like handloom, weaving, carpentry, blacksmithy, pottery and leather-goods making, not only existed in the olden times but even now continue to exist, catering to the basic needs of the rural population. Betul District even now happens to be predominantly rural in its set-up, more than 90 per cent of its population being confined to rural areas as per 1961 Census.

Notices about the industries and manufactures in this District, wherever taken, even in respect of these traditional industries, are perfunctory. For example, the position was summed up in a statement, "The District is on the whole a poor one; the people have few wants and those are easily satisfied; consequently there has been no demand to call the higher branches of manufacture into existence."¹ In another report, a reference in respect of manufactures makes the following reading, "There are no local manufactures worth special notice. The Mahras and Gadris turn out coarse cloth and woollen blankets, and the Sonars and Bhaewas make ornaments for the well-to-do and the poor respectively. The necessary earthen vessels and pipes are made by Kumbhars. Anything beyond this has to be imported."² These notices bring out the fact that industrially Betul District remained in a very rudimentary stage, in olden times.

Weaving and Dyeing

In respect of weaving industry it was stated that "neither are there any Koshteas, or regular professional weavers; in every village there are a certain number of the Kotewar or Dher class; their chief employment is spinning and weaving coarse cotton cloth; this is almost all sold within the district itself."³ In the earlier Gazetteer of the District with reference to this industry it was mentioned that "coarse cloth is woven by Mehras in most of larger villages; mill-spun thread being now generally used. Only about a third of the Mehras in the District practise weaving and the remainder are daily labourers. Their cloth is considered stronger than the cheap kinds of mill cloth and cultivators often prefer it, though the price is about 25 per cent higher."⁴ These extracts, the first one belonging to the latter half of the 19th Century and the second for the first decade of the 20th Century indicate that even such a basically important old-time industry like handloom weaving had no status in the District.

1. Betul Settlement Report, 1866, p. 79.
2. Ibid., 1894-99, p. 47.
3. Ibid., 1866, p. 78.
4. Betul District Gazetteer, 1907, p. 159.

As the cotton weaving and spinning industry was not of any importance the allied industry of dyeing and printing of cotton cloth, was confined to dyeing of carpets and quilts. The coloured cloth for wearing was generally imported.

Carpentry and Blacksmithy

These industries are ancillary to agriculture, and in the earlier Gazetteer it was stated that "Most of the iron implements used are imported and the Local Lohars only do repairing work."¹ Regarding carpentry, it was found that there was on an average one carpenter for every three villages. "The carpenter makes the wooden implements of agriculture and sometimes also carts, but number of carts from Hoshangabad are brought for sale at the Malajpur fair."² These references, if anything, bring out the rudimentary stages in which these industries worked.

Pottery Making

Betul proper in the District was noted chiefly for its pottery. In reference to this industry it was observed that, "there are a great number of Koomhars and large quantities of chatties and other vessels are turned out; these find their way to most parts of the district; here also are manufactured the large pots in which the juice of the sugar-cane is collected as it passes from the crushing mill. Potters are found here and there all over the district, but the Baitool ware has the best name."³ Besides earthen pottery, mortars, cups and kitchen slabs were also manufactured from the stone quarried at Salbardj in the District.

Brass and Copper Works

From a reference in the Settlement Report of 1866, it appears that there were no brass or copper manufactories in the District at that time. However, later in the first decade of the current Century, brass working was reported to be carried on in the District at Amla, Ramli and Jawalkheda to a small extent. The brass vessels were also imported from nearby districts of Chhindwara, Nagpur and Hoshangabad. Most of the Kasars in the District were reported to be dealing in imported vessels.

Leather Goods

The goods manufactured by local chamars were shoes for cultivators which cost about eight annas in the first decade of the present Century. The leather bags used for raising well-water and neck-ropes and thongs for cattle were also prepared locally. Leather flasks for holding oil and scents were prepared by a sub-caste of chamars known as Budalgirs.

In addition to the above industries gunny bags, matting and ropes were woven from san-hemp by the Banjaras. A shepherd caste known as Gadris

1. Ibid., p. 160.

2. Ibid.

3. Betul Settlement Report, 1866, p. 78.

were weaving woollen blankets, the wool being obtained from nearby Hoshangabad District. As the quantity of blankets manufactured by these shepherds was very small, ready-made blankets were imported from Amraoti District (Maharashtra State). Basors and Mangs prepared variety of articles from bamboo, such as baskets, sieves, winnowing fans and matting. Large baskets for storing grain were also prepared by the Basors. Oil was manufactured throughout the District, but for local use only.

The position regarding industries in the District was very aptly summed up thus "these are the only branches of industry carried on in the district; they are adapted to supply the immediate wants of a simple population; for articles of luxury such as finer cloth, brass vessels or small articles of finery, the consumer has to depend upon importation from Nagpoor or Berar; the annual fair held on the banks of the tank at Mooltye furnishes the chief supply for the year."

"The District is on the whole a poor one; the people have few wants and those are easily satisfied; consequently there has been no demand to call the higher branches of manufacture into existence."¹

The District, as has been stated earlier is predominantly rural in its setup the rural population being little over 90 per cent even as recently as at 1961 Census. Of course, machine-made goods like mill cloth, factory manufactured leather goods and shoes etc., have, because of their cheapness and variety caused depletion in the ranks of the artisans in these traditional industries, yet the demand for local produce continues. This is so because goods produced locally, though rough and crude are just those required in the conditions of rural life. Mill-made cloth and factory-made shoes, for example, can not last long in the wear and hence though cheap, require to be replaced often. Because of the poor standard of living of the rural masses, such a recurrent expenditure goes beyond their earning capacity. All this contributes towards the sustenance of the industries like handloom weaving, leather-goods making, etc. Carpentry and blacksmithy also exist because age-old agricultural implements are even now in vogue practically everywhere. Machine-made brass and copper utensils for household use never came within the purchasing power of the rural masses. As the costs of these utensils stand today, they are even going beyond the purchasing power of the middle-class sections of the community. Therefore the village potter making earthen pots continues to supply earthen pots to the rural population. This is, however, not to say that these old-time rural industries are in any way prospering; yet paradoxically enough, the poverty of the rural masses has saved them from total extinction.

POWER

The District had no electric power generation Station till the year 1907, when two units of Satpura Thermal Power Station were commissioned (62.5 M.W. each). Three more units (62.5 M. W. each) were commissioned in 1968-69. As a matter of fact, Multai was the first town to be electrified in the District in the year 1957.

1. Ibid., p. 160.

the year 1966, there were four electricity distributing centres, viz. Betul, Betul Bazar, Multai, and Amla. These distributing centres were fed from the Khaperkheda Thermal Power Station, near Nagpur in the Maharashtra State. The number of consumers of electricity from 1957 to 1966 (February ending) was.—

Year	No. of Consumers
1957	114
1958	807
1959	1,101
1960	1,360

[Note:—The figures are for calendar year]

There appears a steady growth in the number of consumers of electricity from 1957 to 1960. The same trend has been noticed from the period 1961-62 to 1965-66, as given below.—

Year	No. of Consumers
1961-62	1,801
1962-63	1,951
1963-64	2,051
1964-65	2,912
1965-66	3,342 (February end)

(Centrewise details of Consumption of electricity for different uses, are given in Appendix, A)

Distributing centre was started at Ghodadongri in Betul Tahsil in the year 1963.

Satpura Thermal Station

During the Third Five Year Plan work on this Power Station was started. It is located in the Pathakheda coal-field area of the District. The Plan period provision for the Scheme was Rs. 15 crores. Total cost was estimated at Rs. 67 crores. The major load to be fed from this Station is to the collieries in the Pench Valley area, Fertilizer Plant, Heavy Electricals Ltd., Bhopal, Nepa Mills and other industries. It provides for a 3×60,000 K. W. Thermal Power Station complete with 220 KV step-up sub-station.

By the end of 1964-65 all the preliminary works were completed and all the necessary site facilities were arranged. The erection work of boiler No. 1 and 2 was in progress. Large consignments of material such as boilers, turbo alternators, feed pumps and other ancillaries had started arriving at the site.

Out of the total number of 62 towns and villages electrified in the District upto April, 1966, only 16 happened to be electrified under the Rural Electrification Scheme.

INDUSTRIES AND MANUFACTURES

Mining

In respect of the mineral resources, this District has no substantial contribution to make towards its own industrial development. The District somehow figures in the map of the mineral resources of the State for its coal, graphite, refractory clays and building stone, none of which, except perhaps coal, are extensive enough for large-scale exploitation.

Coal

The District comes under South Satpura basin group and the Barakar coal-bearing group of the Damuda series of Gondwana rocks runs in a narrow line across the north of the District following roughly the courses of the Tawa and Bhaura streams. Pathakheda, Dulhara, Shahpur and Sonada are the places generally falling under the Tawa valley coalfield.

By far the most important of these is Pathakheda coalfield, which is 7 to 11 miles east of Ghodadongri railway station covering an area of 18 sq. miles. The northern half of the coalfield lies within Amla reserved forest while the southern half embraces the villages of Dhaser, Ghogri and Pathakheda. Pathakheda lies to the extreme south-east. A dolerite dyke trending east and west forms the north-east boundary of this coalfield. An appraisal report on the mineral resources made by the Techno-Economic Survey of Madhya Pradesh, brought out in the year 1960, placed the estimated coal reserves of this field at 15 million tons.

Dulhara coalfield is 1½ sq. miles in area and lies across the Tawa river at Dulhara, 2½ miles north of the Ghodadongri railway station.

In the Shahpur coalfield the chief seam was reported to be merely five feet thick and coal unattractive in quality. Similarly, Sonada coalfield deposits were reported to be poor, and further prospecting of this area was considered necessary.

There is one more coal-bearing area, known as Suki river or Gurgunda area. This coalfield forms a narrow strip about 1½ miles wide south of the Tawa river near the village Gurgunda where coal had been worked in shallow inclines. The seams of coal were reported to be thin except on the strike of the beds close to the Tawa.

In the earlier Gazetteer there are extensive extracts from the report of one Medlicott about all these coalfields in the District. On the basis of this

report and on the results of borings subsequently made in the Shahpur field it was stated "that except on the Tawa where some of the coal is of excellent quality and one or two seams are four feet thick, not one seam is known to occur exceeding three feet in thickness."¹ Doubt was expressed whether such small seams could profitably be worked in the then conditions.

In the article 'Mineral Resources of the Central Provinces and Berar', written by Dr. L. L. Fermor, originally in 1918 and subsequently revised in 1927 and later brought up-to-date by Dr. M. S. Krishnan in 1939, production from Shahpur coalfield, average of four years from 1924-28, was given as 665 tons. The article did not give figures for coal production from 1929 to 1935. However, production for 1936 and 1937 from the same coalfield was given as 1,727 and 5,657 tons, respectively.

First lease for mining coal in the District was given from 1st July, 1934 for a period of 30 years. The lease was over an area of 2,560 acres of land in Pathakheda Block. This lease was, however, terminated in the year 1944.

Two coal mines were reported to be working in the District from 1953 to 1955. From 1957 onwards these mines were reported to be idle. Recently, from the year 1963 the National Coal Development Corporation have started coal mining operations in Pathakheda coalfield with a view to supplying coal for the Thermal Power Station at Sarni. As has been referred to earlier, it is this coalfield in the District which can be worked with advantage with its 15 million tons of estimated potential.

Graphite

This mineral is an elemental carbon mixed with impurities. It is also known as plumbago or black lead. It is a soft, black, unctuous mineral occurring in disseminated flakes or in scaly, granular, compact or earthy masses. It is dull, slaty or even earthy when impure. This mineral is used in the manufacture of crucibles, lead pencils, for foundry facing, as lubricant, in paints and in a variety of other uses such as in the manufacture of graphite electrodes, brushes for dynamos and motors, fillers for dry batteries, etc.

Fairly large deposits of graphite were reported in the District three miles north of Betul in a zone of carbonaceous phyllites. The mines are at Gauthan, Tikari and Chiklar aligned in a north-east and south-east direction, covering a stretch of three miles.

Many prospecting pits were reported at Gauthan, the main pit being 150 feet long, 30 feet wide and 18 feet deep. In the Chiklar mine the main pit was 69 feet long, 36 feet wide and 14 feet deep.

1. Betul District Gazetteer, 1907, p. 186.

The first mining lease for graphite over an area of 12.15 acres in *mauza* Gauthan of Tahsil Betul was granted on the 15th December, 1934 for a period of 30 years. According to an Appraisal Report on the Mineral Resources of the Techno-Economic Survey of Madhya Pradesh brought out in 1960, "Since the last 10 years 300-400 tons of graphite have been mined representing about a fifth of India's out-put."¹ This mineral is mined manually, crushed and washed to a concentration of about 30 per cent graphite. These graphite mines were working in the District during the period 1950 to 1953. From 1954 to 1956, only one mine was reported working and in 1957 there was no mining activity. Production of this mineral from 1950 to 1956 was.—

Year	Out-put (Tons)
1950	433
1951	367
1952	430
1953	339
1954	205
1955	23
1956	22

Building Stone

In this connection there is a reference to the effect that "The Sarar marble in Betul district has been tried for flooring tiles but is too silicious to yield a smooth surface or take polish."² Gneiss, a crystalline metamorphic rock at Betul has been successfully used as a road metal, also as railway ballast on the Amla-Hirdagarh section of the Central Railway and the Bilaspur-Anuppur section of the Eastern Railway.

Existence of the refractory clays has also been cited in the District.³ In an earlier Gazetteer there is a reference to the working of the limestone quarries both in Betul and Multai tahsils, and the product was reported to be disposed of locally. Soft-stone quarries existed at Salbardi on the southern border, at Kanara and at Ratamati. Stone slabs, mortars and cups were made and sold locally. Copper ores were also reported to have been found in the vicinity of the Tapti and mica in the Ranipur forests and near Sonaghathi.

It is obvious from the earlier and current account as above that the mineral resources in the District, such as they exist, are neither important nor sufficient to help industrial development of the District. This is the reason why there are no heavy or large-scale industries in the District.

1. An Appraisal Report on the Mineral Resources and Metallurgical Industry, 1960, p. 32.

2. Minerals in Madhya Pradesh, 1956, p. 22.

3. The Mineral Wealth of Madhya Pradesh, Vol. I, October, 1957, p. 19.

Small-scale Industries

In the absence of requisite mineral and power resources, the industrial activity in the District remained confined to the cottage and small-scale industries level. The small-scale factory industries have necessarily to be based on the forest and agricultural resources of the District.

The first factory unit to be set-up in the District was a distillery. This came up in the year 1922 and was registered under the Indian Factories Act of 1911. Thereafter upto 1940, there was no addition to the list of registered factories in the District. In this year one oil-mill and one saw-mill were started in the District which were registered under the Factories Act, 1934. The oil-mill employed on an average six workers and saw-mill employed eight workers daily. From the year 1940 to 1946 only one stone-dressing unit was added to the list of registered factories. Thus, when the comprehensive factory legislation, viz., Factories Act, 1948 was passed and introduced, the number of units registered under that Factories Act was five. These five units included one brewery, one ordnance factory, one railway work-shop, one oil-mill and one stone-crushing unit. The saw-mill appears to have been removed from the list after 1946. Out of these, ordnance factory and railway workshops were under the control of the Central Government and have no bearing either on the resources of the District or promotion of industrial development. Thus, period as above upto 1948 may be taken as pre-Independence period for the industrial development in the District.

Thereafter, in the year 1951 which marks the beginning of the period of planned economic development in the Country, in the list of factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948, there appears one oil-mill, eight saw-mills and one graphite manufacturing unit. The Government-managed distillery, with which a beginning was made in the establishment of factories in the District in 1922, was closed in this year.

In the year 1960, i.e., after about a decade, the district had two oil-mills, one of which was closed during the year and two saw-mills, as factory units registered under the Factories Act, 1948. This means instead of any addition to the factory units during the decade, about six saw-mill units have stopped working during the period.

Coming nearer to the present times in the year 1964, there remained only two oil-mills on the list of units registered under the Factories Act, 1948. However, both these units remained closed during the year.

Sugar Factory

There was a proposal for the establishment of a sugar factory on a co-operative basis during the Second Five Year Plan, but it did not materialize. The proposal was dropped during the Third Five Year Plan. However, a small-

sugar mill under private sector was started in the year 1965. By January, 1965 installation of the machinery, etc., was completed. Capital investment was of the order of Rs. 35,000, which included 6,064 acres of land for cultivation of sugarcane. The installed capacity of the factory was 100 tons for 24 hours. Employment was expected to be 100 unskilled and five skilled workers.

If the factory units registered under the Factories Act are taken as a measure of industrial progress, the District appears to have lost ground rather than gained it nevertheless, position regarding industrial development in the District is not so disappointing as it appears from the account thereof given above in respect of the small-scale factory units registered under the Factories Act. In a predominantly rural set-up of the District with more than 90 per cent of the population living in the rural areas, the working of industries on the basis of factory establishments was perhaps not possible. The habits of the rural population not being readily amenable to the sustained and disciplined type of work required on the factory premises. Without, however, suggesting that this was the reason for the gradually declining position of factory establishments in the District, the increasing industrial activity at Community Development Block level on co-operative and cottage industries basis can certainly be cited as a step in right direction, and what is lost on the factories front may be said to be made good in the co-operative and cottage industries field.

Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives

While referring to the old-time industries in the District, it was pointed out that practically all the old-time industries are working in the District inspite of the competition from the products of the large-scale industries. One of the reasons for the continued existence of these industries was stated as the quality of their products, which is particularly suited to the living and working conditions of the rural masses. Another reason for their continued existence is the introduction of co-operative movement in those industrial activities. Following account of the industries is given from this perspective.

Handloom Weaving

According to the Census of 1951 the District had a total of 1,704 cotton spinning, sizing and weaving establishments with 4,937 persons and 1,892 handlooms. Concentration of the industry was in the Multai Tahsil with 1,375 establishments and 3,954 persons with 1,518 handlooms. Exactly comparable figures for 1961 Census are not available but as per Standard Industrial Classification, cotton weaving in handlooms engaged 1,555 persons. In cotton spinning (other than in mills) there were 155 workers. This gives a total of 1,710 workers in 1961 as against 4,937 persons in the year 1951. Even allowing for the difference of concepts and their contents between the two censuses, fall in the number of persons working in this industry in the year 1961 remains a fact.

As per information from the Community Development Blocks, there were three co-operatives in this industry in the year 1964, one each at Chicholi, Multai

and Prabhat Pattan Blocks. The membership was 21, 13 and 29, respectively. The society in Chicholi Block was reported to be not working. There were no powerlooms in the District either in 1951 or in the year 1961. The weavers used old-type looms of throw-shuttle and fly-shuttle varieties. The products of the industry were *dhotis*, *saris*, *gamchas* and rough cloth. The yarn used by the weavers was 10^a to 20^a.

Carpentry and Blacksmithy

The number of carpenters, turners and joiners in the year 1951 was 813. As against this, the persons classified as manufacturers of structural wooden goods (including treated timber) such as beams, posts, doors and windows, under the Standard Industrial Classification in the year 1961, was 755. The number of blacksmiths, horse-shoers and other workers in iron and makers of implements in the year 1951, numbered 775. The manufacturers of sundry hardwares, wire-net, bolt, screw, buckets cutlery, etc., numbered 2,534 in the year 1961. As classification indicates there is no basis for a comparison between 1951 and 1961 figures.

In Betul Block area one society of iron-workers was established in 1961 and had a membership of 14 in the year 1964 and 1965. Multai Block had another society of sheetmetal workers with a membership of 11 in the year 1964. In the sphere of wood-working or carpentry, one society was registered in Betul Block area in the year 1961 and had a membership of 11 but was reported to be under liquidation in the year 1964.

Leather Goods

The number of cobblers and all other makers of boots, shoes, sandals, clogs, etc., was 910 in the year 1951. In the year 1961 currying, tanning and finishing of hides and skins and preparation of finished leather engaged 89 workers; manufacture of shoes and other leather foot-wear provided work for 1,567 workers; and repair of shoes and other foot-wear employed 85 workers. Thus, there were 1,741 workers in the leather industry in the District.

In the year 1965 there were in all nine Charmakar Societies working in five Development Blocks in the District. The Betul Block had four such societies with a total membership of 43, one of these societies was reported not to have started working. Chicholi, Amla and Bhimpur Blocks had one society each. These three societies together had a membership of 33. Shahpur Block had two such societies with a membership of 25. The products are generally the shoes and chappals suited to local tastes.

Potteries

A reference has been made earlier in the section of old-time industries, that Betul proper was known for its pottery, especially big earthen pots used for storing cane juice. The potters and makers of earthen ware in 1951 were

316. Manufacture of earthen ware and earthen pottery in 1961 engaged 602 workers.

There happened to be only one society of the potters manufacturing earthen pots in the Shahpur Block area. The Society was registered in the year 1961 and had a membership of 12 in the year 1964.

Bricks and Tiles

Manufacture of structural clay products engaged only 172 persons in the year 1951. In the year 1961 this activity provided work for 365 workers.

There were five industrial co-operatives in the year 1964 manufacturing bricks and tiles. Two of these, one each in Amla and Bhainsdehi Blocks, were registered in the year 1964 and together had a membership of 32. In the Shahpur Block there were two societies and in Betul Block there was one such society registered in the year 1964 and had 48 members.

Oil-Milling

A reference has been made earlier to the two factory establishments in this industry both of which remained closed in the year 1964. This means oil milling in the District remained confined to the age-old *ghani* method. As per 1951 Census the vegetable oil pressers and refiners in the District were 419, while production of edible fats and oils (other than hydrogenated oil) provided employment to a sizeable number of 916. Both these figures might have included the number of workers in the then existing factories manufacturing oil. Such oil factories, however, never exceeded two. Thus, quite a substantial production of oil appears to have been confined to *ghanis*.

The position regarding oil manufacturing on a co-operative basis in different Block areas was substantial, there being 13 societies in the year 1960. Prabhat Pattan had four societies with a total of 75 members. Out of the two societies in Chicholi Block, one was non-edible oil manufacturing co-operative, engaged in soap manufacture. There were 34 members in these societies. Similarly, Betul Block had two societies, one being non-edible oil and soap manufacturing co-operative. The membership of these two was 29. Bhainsdehi Block had two societies with 37 members. Athnair, Shahpur and Multai Blocks had one each such society with a membership of 43. In the year 1965 registration of one non-edible oil soap manufacturing co-operative was proposed in Amla Block. This society had 26 members.

In addition to the edible and non-edible oil manufacturing, the District specialized in the manufacture of *Tikhadi* (Rosha) oil. The oil is extracted from two different varieties of grass known as *Motia* and *Sofia*, which is found in abundance in Sawalmendha and Dabka ranges in Bhainsdehi Tahsil of the District. Distillation process is used for extracting oil from the grass. This oil is used as a base for preparation of perfumes and scents and cosmetics.

This oil was reported to have a good foreign market until recently. However, development of cheap chemical substitutes for this oil dealt a blow to this industry and the prices which ranged from Rs. 80 to Rs. 90 per seer slumped to Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 per seer. The industry is concentrated in Bhainsdehi Tahsil.

Gur Manufacturing

This is a seasonal industry and starts working every year in the middle of December as the sugar-cane harvest begins and continues into March. Gur (jaggery) is the chief article of export from the District. The only mill known in the District till the latter half of the last Century was a cumbrous wooden structure consisting of two heavy wooden cylinders set upright in a frame. One of the cylinders (known as the male) was turned by four bullocks and the canes after being cut into small pieces were inserted between this and the fixed cylinder (known as the female) and crushed, the juice falling into a vessel below. Later, this machine was replaced by an iron mill invented by Messrs. Mylne and Thompson of the Bihia Estate in Bihar. This mill became popular in the District rapidly. A cheap but less efficient imitation happened to displace the Bihia mill in course of time. Those cultivators who had no mill took it on hire from those who had. The old mill was so tall that it was necessary to put it in a pit but the iron machine being much lower and kept thoroughly clean, thus avoiding some loss due to fermentation. Currently, modern mills are being worked with electric power.

The process of manufacturing gur is to pour the extracted sugar-cane juice into the evaporating pan made of iron some six to eight feet in diameter and about six to ten inches deep. The pan is then placed over a furnace. Evaporation becomes complete within six hours. The juice is then ladled out and poured into a wooden trough sunk in the ground. After it has cooled and hardened it is hung up in cloth to drain and in a couple of days ready for the market. The neighbourhood of a sugar-cane garden presents a very busy scene at boiling time. The quality of gur is determined by the colour. The paler the crystals are the better price it fetches and redder they are the less valuable is the gur. Multai, Ramli, Bordehi and Markha from Multai Tahsil; Nahia, Rojhda and Betul Bazar from Betul Tahsil and Amla are some of the centres where gur making is carried on extensively. In the year 1961 there were 210 workers engaged in the production of gur.

In the year 1964 there were nine co-operative societies in different Community Development Blocks in the District. Betul, Multai, Amla and Prabhat Pattan Blocks had two societies each with a membership of 27,26,54 and 46 respectively. Chicholi Block had one such co-operative society.

Saw-Milling

Earlier in these pages a reference was made to the existence of two saw-mills in the District, registered as factories under the Factories Act, 1948. By 1964, there was no reference about the saw-mills in the list of registered factories under the Factories Act. However, forests in the District are famous for teak wood, which was exported in logs since olden times to the nearby Seoni and Hoshangabad Districts from whence it found its way to Mhow and Indore.

The 1951 Census gives the number of "Sawyers" in the District as 84. In the year 1961 under Standard Industrial Classification of "sawing and planing of wood", there were 53 workers in the District. In the year 1964 there were 29 band-saw units working in different Community Development Blocks in the District employing about 137 workers. Multai Block had eight such units with 20 workers while Betul Block had seven units with 56 workers. Shahpur Block had six units with 35 workers. Remaining units were distributed in Amla, Chicholi, Athnair, Prabhat Pattan and Bhainsdehi Blocks in the order of 3, 2 and 1 each, respectively.

Brass, Copper and Bell-Metal Working

The 1951 Census gives the number of persons in this industry as 103, while 1961 Census enumerated 110 workers as manufacturers in brass and bell-metal products. Earlier in this Chapter while dealing with old-time industries, it was pointed out that there was not much of a manufacturing activity in the District, major portion of the requirements of pots and pans being imported from the neighbouring districts. This is likely to be much more so in these days, when the transport facilities are greatly developed. Persons enumerated as manufacturers are likely to be dealers and repairers instead of actual manufacturers. This contention is based on the fact that in the year 1964 there existed only four units of brass and copper goods manufacturers in only two Community Development Blocks, viz., Amla and Shahpur. Amla Block had three units out of the four employing seven workers and Shahpur had one unit with five workers. Manufacturing activity in the Shahpur Block deserves special reference, it being more of an artistic nature than utilitarian.

In Shahpur Block at Motidhana the Evangelical Lutheran Church started this industry in the year 1914 with a view to providing its new converts with suitable work to earn their living. The beginning was actually made with the manufacture of tin goods like boxes, lanterns, cans, etc. Change over to the manufacture of brass-ware with artistic Indian motifs embossed came later when the founder of this industry one Miss W. Wigert, a missionary, got herself trained at a polytechnic at Gotenburg in Sweden during the First world war. She imparted the necessary skill to the tin workers who became later the workers in brass-ware. The initial investment in the industry was about Rs. 3,000. The Church supplies brass sheets to the craftsmen, who turn out articles as

required by the Church authorities. In the year 1964 there were five artisans in this industry. The products are book-ends, crosses, cardstands, angel figures, fruit-baskets, letter-stands, numbersets, paper-knives, ash-trays and other trays-oval, octagonal and rectangular in shape, etc. These products are exported outside the District to the places like Bombay, Delhi and Madras in India and to foreign countries like United States of America, Sweden, Australia and other European countries. The year-wise sale proceeds of these articles from 1956-57 to 1964-65 were.—

Year	Sale Proceeds (in Rs.)
1956-57	15,929.54
1957-58	32,841.64
1958-59	10,181.74
1959-60	7,247.43
1960-61	8,117.79
1961-62	15,479.28
1962-63	6,448.11
1963-64	15,606.32
1964-65	3,755.00

Gold and Silversmithy

In the 1951 Census, 551 persons were enumerated as workers in precious stones, precious metals and makers of jewellery and ornaments. A decade later in the year 1961 manufacture of jewellery, silver-ware and wares using gold and other precious metals provided employment to 688 workers. In the year 1963 the promulgation of the Gold Control Order brought this age-old industry everywhere in the Country to inactivity. In the District, there were 458 self-employed goldsmiths in the year 1963, and they were all affected by this order. The number of goldsmiths applying for licenses to carry on in the industry under the terms and conditions of the Order was reported to be 143 only.

Other industries besides those dealt with in the foregoing pages are basket-making, rope-making, tailoring, small repairing shops, welding works, etc., which are practically found everywhere, and the District is in no way an exception.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL

The State Government in the Department of Industries got a Techno-Economic Survey of the State, conducted by the National Council of Applied Economic Research, New Delhi, in the year 1958. This survey on the basis of resources of the District recommended the establishment of a plant for solvent extraction of oil from oil-cakes with a capacity of 50 tons per day, at the

approximate cost of Rs. 10 lakhs. In respect of Betul District there was no other recommendation except this.

The Department of Industries of the State Government, however, envisaged a considerable scope for the development of small-scale industries on the basis of agricultural, forest, mineral and live-stock resources of the District.

Agro-Industries

On the basis of the current sugar-cane production and prospects of increase in production due to the availability of greater irrigation facilities through Sampna Dam and minor irrigation works, a sugar factory can be started in the District. As a matter of fact one such factory has already been started in the private sector in the year 1965. With the increase in production of the sugar-cane either the capacity of this unit can be increased or a separate small unit can be started.

The District produces substantial quantity of gram and tur. The Industries Department thought it possible to establish *Dal* manufacturing units with a capacity of manufacturing 40,000 maunds of *dals* separately for tur and gram.

Forest-Based Industries

It was estimated that about 6,000 tons of bamboo are available from the forests in the District. Two small paper manufacturing plants with a capacity of five tons each can be established to utilize this produce.

There is a sufficient quantity of teak wood in the forests of the District. The wood seasoning kiln to supply seasoned wood for constructional and manufacturing purposes can be established in the District. The growing demand for furniture, teak veneer, packing cases, etc., can sustain the working of such a wood seasoning kiln.

At present considerable quantity of large-diameter teak wood logs are exported outside the District. An establishment of veneering plant besides generating additional employment in the District will augment the value of exports. One unit can be located at Betul proper.

Similarly, the forests in the District yield substantial quantity of gum, which is exported raw outside the District. A refined gum-bottling industry can be started in the District.

Mineral-Based Industry

About four to five lakh tons of limestone is estimated to be available near about Padar in Bhainsdehi Tahsil of the District. The lime is of organic variety having about 95 per cent of calcium carbonate. Possibility of lime manufacturing in the area after due assessment of the resources can be explored.

Live-Stock-Based Industries

The cattle population of the District was 6,56,798 as per 1961 count. Assuming 10 per cent mortality-rate for cattle and an average of 50 lbs., of hide-per carcass, about 33 million lbs., of hide are likely to be available per year. Thus, there is an ample scope for starting tanneries. In addition myrobalan, the main tanning material is available in abundance in the forests of the District.

Further assuming a recovery of 60 lbs. of bones per carcass, the Industries Department estimated the possibility of establishing three bone meal units, each utilizing 40 tons of raw bones per year.

There was no specific scheme for establishment of any industry during the Third Five Year Plan period. A proposal for establishment of a sugar mill on co-operative basis, which was included in the Second Five Year Plan period did not materialize, and was altogether dropped in the Third Plan. However, the schemes for establishment of Rural Industrial Estate at Betul, Rural Worksheds at Amla and Multai, and one Semi-Urban Industrial Estate at Betul were included in the Third Five Year Plan for the District and were under the land acquisition stage.

LABOUR AND EMPLOYERS' ORGANISATION

From the foregoing account of the industries in the District it becomes clear, that there is no basis in the District for existence of any trade union activity, as there is not a single industry which can be called a main industry of the District, with a sizeable labour force. However, Amla in the District is a railway junction and there is an Indian Air Force Depot at village Borkhi near Amla. Consequently there are two labour unions at Amla one of the railway employees and another of the non-gazetted Air Force Depot employees.

Central Railway Mazdoor Sangh, Amla

The membership of this union consists of class III and IV employees of the Central Railway and Loco-Shed workers at Amla. The union was started in the year 1951. The Union had a membership of 350.

Defence Employees' Union

This is the a union of civilian non-gazetted employees of Indian Air Force Depot, Amla. This Union was started in the year 1949. It is affiliated to the All India Defence Employees Federation. The membership of the Union was 661.

Both these unions are in the Union Government's sphere of activities, and work for promotion and safeguarding the rights, interests and privileges of the employees.

WELFARE OF INDUSTRIAL LABOUR

Industrial labour force, as is generally understood in the context of large and small-scale industrial activity is non-existent in the District. Provisions of the Factories Act, 1948, in the matter of regulation of hours of work, sanitation, safety measures, condition of worksheds, holidays, etc., are applicable to the factories registered under the Factories Act. Such registered factories happened to be only two oil-mills in the year 1964 both of which were reported to be closed during the year. Recently, in 1965, one sugar-mill has been started employing about 100 workers on an average daily. Provisions of the Factories Act, 1948 are applicable to this unit.

Under the Madhya Pradesh Fixation of Minimum Wages Act, 1962, minimum rates of wages are fixed for certain Scheduled Industries like rice, flour, oil and dal mills, local authorities, bidi-making, building operations, stonebreaking, stone-crushing and public motor transport as well as agriculture. The minimum rates of wages fixed under the Act are applicable to such of these Scheduled Industries that exist in the District, as elsewhere in the State.

The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, and the Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, and the schemes framed thereunder, have not been made applicable in respect of any industrial establishment in the District, as the industrial units are so small that they could not be covered even under the Factories Act, 1948.

The labour welfare activities, however, are carried on by the railways and defence authorities for their employees in the District, which are as under.

Welfare Institutes and Centres

The Railway Administration have provided a Social Welfare Institute at Amla and Social Welfare Centres at stations like Betul, Dodhra Mohar and Dharakoh. In these centres and institutes various recreational facilities such as indoor and outdoor games, as well as reading-rooms are provided for the workers. Cultural activities, like dramas, bhajans etc., are also arranged on important occasions. Funds for the purchase of sports goods, library books and musical instruments for the centres are provided by the Railway Administration.

Handicraft Centre

With a view to training the wards of the workers, the Railway Administration are starting one handicraft centre at Amla, in which fabrication of garments required by Railway Administration for the employees and uniforms for school-going children of the employees will be taken up.

Consumers' Co-operative Society

In order to encourage co-operative spirit amongst workers, a consumers' co-operative society comprising Railway employees was established at Amla in 1953. During the first three years of its working the Administration contributed 50 per cent of the establishment charges. A building at a nominal rent of Re. 1 per month has been provided by the Railways to this Society. The Society is running satisfactorily.

Staff Canteen at Amla

The Railway Administration have provided a staff canteen at Amla loco-shed. It is managed by an elected body of the employees. The Administration have provided an electrified building to this canteen free of rent. Dead stock furniture, crockery, etc., have also been provided by the Administration.

Education Benefits

The Administration have provided a single teacher primary school at Amla where three classes with a total strength of 50 children are being conducted. Education is free. Uniform (two sets of summer and one set of winter) is supplied free to the children of Railway employees getting less than Rs. 200 per month. Scholarships for higher studies and specialized courses are also given by the Administration to the deserving children of the employees.

In order to educate the illiterate members of the staff the Railway Administration have been conducting adult literacy classes at Amla, Betul and Dhodra Mohar.

An open air school for the benefit of children of Railway workers has been established at Dharakoh.

Medical Facilities

The Railway Administration have provided a dispensary at Amla at which medical treatment is provided to the Railway employees and their families free of cost. Maintenance grant is provided to the workers suffering from T. B., Paralysis, Leprosy, etc.

Contributory Provident Fund Scheme is in force. One month's salary as bonus is given to the employees every year. Gratuities are granted to the workers at the time of retirement. Trade unionism and permanent negotiating machinery is freely encouraged among the employees by the Administration.

One Welfare Inspector is stationed at Amla, with jurisdiction from Parasia to Itarsi, who is in charge of various welfare schemes provided by the Railway Administration. He acts as a liason between the Administration and the employees.

The Air Force Administration have established one hospital in which labourers are entitled for free treatment. One Higher Secondary School has been established at Amla Depot. Building for the school, has been provided by the Air Force Authorities. At the Recreation Club established for Depot workers, indoor and outdoor games, radio and news-papers facilities are provided. The Administration have provided a welfare committee to look after the general well-being of the workers having labour representation.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

History of Indigenous Banking

The lack of adequate finance has always been one of the important factors responsible for the industrial and commercial backwardness of any region. Thus what has been true for most of the districts is also true for Betul. An agriculture-oriented economy of the District, proverbially remained a 'gamble in rain'. Vast magnitude of fluctuations in the agricultural production over the years, apart from other social causes, compelled the cultivators to jump into the cordon of village moneylender, who with all the operational flexibility at his command advanced money to them for a variety of purposes. As such, the institution of moneylenders and indigenous bankers existed from time immemorial in some or the other garb. The innocence and helplessness of the villagers, in the absence of other credit facilities, made them an easy target of exploitation in the hands of these moneylenders. But, of late, because of the appearance of the co-operative banks and credit societies, and other modern joint-stock banks on the horizon of rural finance, the position has gradually eased, and as a whole the general economy in the District has undergone a change. The local moneylenders or *Sahukars* are gradually losing their importance because of the appearance of these credit agencies. There are also increased facilities of loan provided by the Government for developmental purposes.

The moneylender who combined banking functions also, used to be a local man of means called *Sahukar*, with whom it is a normal custom to maintain account of each family in the village. He is not only a 'standby' when the family needs seeds or money for some urgent purpose, but also a patron who lends the villager prestige in the society. The better-off farmers have their *Sahukars* in more than one market centre. Of course, this only implies that they have running accounts with more than one banker.¹ The old gazetteer of the District refers to a dozen of leading families of moneylenders in the District.

These *Sahukars* supplied the local credit demand both through ready cash and through issuance of *hundis*. The acceptance of deposits from local people was also one of the important functions of these *Sahukars*. These two characteristics, according to the Rural Credit Survey Committee Report are essentially

1 G. S. Aurora, *Bamanta, Socio-Economic Monograph of a Tribal Village*, 1963, p. 168.

associated with indigenous banking. In 1929-30 the Central Provinces Banking Enquiry Committee assessed that still the main source of finance in rural areas was usually the *Malguzar* or the *Mahajan*.¹

The rate of interest charged by these so called indigenous bankers was quite high in the old days. A mention about the same in the old District Gazetteer runs as follows:

"The rate of interest on private loans is usually 12 per cent to proprietors of good credit or on the mortgage of land. While on the pledge of jewellery and in the case of large transactions it may be as low as 6 per cent. The rate to tenants varies from 12 to 24 per cent according to the standing of the borrower, while for small sums, and in case of Gond tenants it rises to 37½ and 50 per cent. Loans of grain of the spring crops for seed are generally given at 25 per cent for the period between sowing and harvest, while in the famine years the rate increased to 50 per cent. For the seed of the autumn crops, 25 per cent is charged for *juar* and 50 per cent for the other grains while the rate for oil seeds is 100 per cent. Loans of seed grains are generally made orally or by entries in account books, bonds being taken only from untrustworthy clients."²

Apart from these professional moneylenders, Standen in his Settlement Report observed that, *Malguzars* of means always endeavoured to supply the needs of their tenants to keep professional moneylenders away from their villages. As a rule they were more lenient.³

For the recoveries of their debts, these bankers engaged a number of bad characters, *badmashes*, and sent them round to extract the money due from cultivators by dint of threat or force.

Till the mid-'thirties, the innocent villagers continued to be exploited by the relentless unscrupulous *mahajans* through their underhand dealings and malpractices, whereafter, following the Banking Enquiry Committee Report, the Government came out with various protective measures. The Government enacted the Central Provinces and Berar Moneylender's Act, 1934 (XIII of 1934). The Act was further amended at various occasions for making it more and more effective. Apart from this the Government also enacted the Usurious Loan (Amendment) Act, 1934. The Central Provinces and Berar Debt Conciliation Act was also passed in the year 1933 with the object of reducing the quantum of debt, and facilitating the clearing of debts in easy instalments. In 1937 there was also introduced the Central Provinces Protection of Debtors Act against the threat and intimidation of debtors at the hands of these moneylenders.

1. The C. P. Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report, 1929-30, Vol. II, p. 383.

2. Betul District Gazetteer, pp. 135-36.

3. Ibid., p. 145.

But it may be interesting to note here that yet the institution of money-lenders preserved in rural areas its age-long sway. The internal trade of the District, as also the agriculture, still to a great extent depends on them. The reasons may not be far to seek. Operational flexibility, as said earlier, is the greatest of their virtues. Commercial banks, as also the co-operative banks and societies, and Government assistance through their agencies, because of their method of working restrict their use to the villager. It is generally difficult for him to understand the intricacies of commercial credit. The Central Provinces Banking Enquiry, as late as in 1929-30, assessed that about 67.38 per cent of the loans in the District were supplied by these *Mahajans*. The magnitude of dependence on this agency of rural finance can be seen from the number of registered moneylenders in the District. Their number since 1951, in tahsil-wise break-up is given in the following Table.—

Year	Number of Registered Moneylenders			Total
	Betul	Multai	Bhainsdehi	
1951-52	89	64	58	211
1952-53	98	73	59	230
1953-54	102	59	56	217
1954-55	95	70	52	217
1955-56	99	66	53	218
1956-57	87	68	58	218
1957-58	82	69	65	216
1958-59	83	80	65	228
1959-60	80	82	66	228
1960-61	79	97	69	245
1961-62	82	85	67	234
1962-63	79	93	71	243
1963-64	78	78	75	231
(Till Jan. '64)				
1965-66	—	—	—	222
1966-67	—	—	—	195
1967-68	—	—	—	175
1968-69	—	—	—	172

In Betul Tahsil the number of moneylenders between February, 1964 and November, 1965 was 146, while their number in Multai and Bhainsdehi Tahsils during the same period was 154 and 107, respectively. The total number of registered moneylenders, however, declined gradually from 222 in 1965-66 to 172 in 1968-69.

GENERAL CREDIT FACILITIES AVAILABLE

The important agencies for supplying credit in the District, apart from those discussed above, viz., local moneylenders and professional moneylenders are traders, commercial banks, Government agencies and co-operative credit

societies. Though the Agricultural Banks were established in the District as early as 1905 but the real break-through in the sphere of commercial credit in the District is of very recent origin, i. e. in 1956, when a branch of State Bank of India was established in Betul. The co-operative credit had its way in the District as early as in 1907 when four rural societies and a Bank were formed. Government has also been granting loans to the cultivators under the provisions of the various acts, viz., Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884 and Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883 for productive purposes. More recent additions to the list are the Financial Corporations and the Industries Department of the State Government for industrial development. Land Mortgage Bank, established in 1939 at Betul, also supplied loans for the land improvement for long-terms. But subsequently in 1946, it was amalgamated with the Co-operative Central Bank, Betul.

Indebtedness

In absence of any information about the precise figures of the extent of District debt in the recent years, it is difficult to speak with certainty about the same. However, references of the same appear in the old Gazetteer and in the Central Provinces Banking Enquiry Committee Report, 1929-30. The old Gazetteer referred to the advancing of "substantial sums during the famine of 1897, when they were granted loans, free of interest, as a means of affording employment in villages.....The total sum advanced under the Acts, from 1877 to 1905 was Rs. 39,000, of which Rs. 31,000 have been recovered and Rs. 4,000 remitted. Interest to the amount of Rs. 3,000 has also been recovered.....Under the Agriculturists' Loans Act Rs. 21,000 were advanced between 1883 and 1896, while during the next five years a sum of Rs. 2.61 lakhs was given out, principally during the famines of 1897 and 1900."¹

During the first decade of the present Century, the indebtedness of the "agricultural class had increased to a very serious degree after the two famines, and in 1903, proceedings for the conciliation of debts were undertaken. These extended over 1904 and 1905, and ultimately brought to a conclusion with very substantial result achieved.....The proceedings extended to 344 villages of the Multai and 477 of the Betul Tahsils or more than two-thirds of the total number in the District, and arrangements were made in respect of debts of 117 *Malguzars* and 3,483 tenants..... The total amount of debt owed by them was Rs. 20 lakhs, of which the creditors remitted Rs. 12 lakhs or three-fifths, and the balance was made payable by instalments or by the sale and lease of estates."²

It was in the late 'twenties that the position of indebtedness was again investigated in the District by the Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry

1. Ibid., pp. 134-135.

2. Ibid., p. 145.

Committee, 1929-30. It was found that villagers were heavily indebted to *Mahajans*. The total *Malguzars'* debt in the District was Rs. 8,82,183 while that of tenants it was Rs. 40,70,114.¹ The following were the principal sources to which the debts were owed.

1. Government.
2. Co-operative Credit Societies and Banks.
3. Landlords.
4. *Mahajans*.

Government was responsible for giving loans only to the tune of Rs. 37,090, or 0.74 per cent while the co-operative credit societies advanced loans amounting to Rs. 2,09,621 or 4.20 per cent. However, the landlord and *Mahajans*, who accounted for the major share in the District debt advanced Rs. 13,50,279 or 27.68 per cent and Rs. 33,55,307 or 67.38 per cent, respectively.² It may be gathered that the *Mahajans* largely retained their prominent position in rural finance.

The purposes for which the loans were borrowed were.³—

	Per cent
Payment of earlier debts	28.4
Marriage and ceremonials	15.5
Maintenance and household expenses	1.9
Payment of revenue and rent	6.6
Agricultural expenses	19.56
Improved agricultural implements	7.7
Field embankments and land improvements	12.1
Purchase of property	12.64
Litigation	1.6

Writing about the rate of interest in Betul District during this period, the said Committee noted that prevalent average rate is 12 per cent on secured and 25 per cent on unsecured loans. Of the total debts, it was estimated that 16.6 per cent was secured and 83.4 per cent unsecured debts.⁴

As said above, 28.4 per cent of the fresh debt is incurred by the villagers for the repayment of ancestral debt which proves to be a serious drag on their resources. The said Report was also of the opinion that in Sasundra

1. The C. P. Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report, 1929-30, Vol. II, p. 694.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid., Vol. II, p. 695.
4. Ibid., p. 696.

village of the District, "the real trouble is the inherited debt which is 67 per cent of the total debt. Leaving it out 20 per cent is for unproductive and 80 per cent for productive purposes."¹

In view of the deteriorating condition of the tenantry in the District, the Government appointed a Joint Debt Conciliation Board for Betul and Multai Tahsils in this District on the 15th April, 1935. This Board was split-up into two, one for each of the two tahsils from 13th April, 1936. As the Joint Board caused inconvenience to members and parties, the third Board for Bhainsdehi Tahsil was also constituted on the 1st July, 1936. The Betul and Multai Boards continued their operations till 15th September, 1938, and the Bhainsdehi Board till the 31st August, 1938. During this period of three years and five months, these three Boards received 7,043 applications, involving a debt of Rs. 72.24 lakhs. Of these, 1418 applications involving a debt of Rs. 17.26 lakhs were dismissed (under section 7 (1) of the Central Provinces Debt Conciliation Act). Further, 495 applications covering the debts amounting to Rs. 10.10 lakhs were also dismissed under section 14 of the Act. Agreement under section 12 (1) were executed in 5,103 cases for debts amounting to Rs. 20.69 lakhs, securing a remission of Rs. 24 lakhs or 54 per cent of the demand. Certificates numbering 340 under section 15 (1) (declaring the creditors had unnecessarily refused amicable settlement) were issued in 311 cases for debts amounting to Rs. 1.41 lakhs.

During the 'fifties the position of indebtedness was again reviewed by the Rural Credit Survey Committee, 1951 in the former State of Madhya Pradesh. It was estimated that the average debt per cultivating family in the former Madhya Pradesh was Rs. 224.9, and that of per non-cultivating family it was Rs. 43.6. It was reasserted that yet the professional moneylenders supplied the largest share of the average debt in the State.

To ameliorate the condition of the tribals, the Government, as late as in November, 1963 established a Debt Relief Court at Bhainsdehi Tahsil of Betul. Its Jurisdiction, however, was confined to the Tahsil of Bhainsdehi. The Court received 89 cases of which 54 cases were decided involving an amount of Rs. 27,224, which was reduced by the court to Rs. 15,391.

Urban Indebtedness

In absence of reliable information about the extent of urban indebtedness, nothing can be said. However, the principal sources supplying loans and advances in these areas are the *Mahajans* and the State Bank of India. The State Bank of India is a very recent venture in this District. It only finances the merchant class on the pledge of foodgrains, etc. The trading class receives advances from their own resources. Because of the formalities involved in commercial credit, most of the advances come from the private agencies.

1. Ibid., p. 389.

Next to agriculture, the other important occupation in the District is the forest exploitation. Majority of the forest contractors are Punjabis who are financed by their principals, engaged in import-export business-timber in particular. Advances to the tune of Rs. 1.29 lakhs were, however, supplied by the joint-stock banks in Betul during the year 1964.

Joint-Stock Banks

As early as in 1905, Betul was selected alongwith Hoshangabad for the experimental introduction of agricultural banks. Consequently, three banks were opened at Betul, Shahpur and Amla. The Betul bank had a share capital of Rs. 2,650, that of Shahpur bank Rs. 385 and that of Amla bank Rs. 2,660. The capital was issued in shares of Rs. 5 each, sold to proprietors and tenants. Betul bank had received deposits of Rs. 650 also, soon after its opening. The Bank used to lend money at 12 per cent. Now the only existing joint-stock bank in the District is the branch of the State Bank of India, situated at Betul with its Pay-Office at Multai. This branch office was opened in October, 1956, while its Pay-Office at Multai was established in January, 1959.

There was also a branch of Laxmi Bank in the District, which was opened in the year 1946. But on the petition filed by the Reserve Bank of India under Section 33 of the Banking Regulation Act, 1949, a Provisional Liquidator was appointed for the Bank on the 30th May, 1960 and the Bank was, alongwith its branches, finally ordered to be wound up by the High Court of Maharashtra on the 20th June, 1960.

The figures of average deposits and advances of the joint-stock banks are given as under:—

Year	(Rs. in Lakhs)	
	Average Deposits (Rs.)	Average Advances (Rs.)
1957	3.34	0.17
1958	3.84	0.11
1959	4.54	0.32
1960	6.30	0.96
1961	9.53	1.49
1962	11.54	1.87
1963	16.86	N.A.
1964	37.06	1.29

Defence Efforts

The State Bank of India, Ltd., Betul, and the Postal Department played a prominent role in the collection of 'Defence Funds' from various individuals and institutions. The total collection in cash up to December, 1965 was to the tune of Rs. 3,88,072, while the gold weighing 4,900 grams was also deposited in the State Bank for the defence purposes. Defence Certificates worth

Rs. 4,53,365 were also sold in the District till November, 1963. Besides this, two persons also donated 17.12 acres of land in the District.

Small Savings Scheme

The following small saving schemes continued their operation in the District,—

1. Post Office Savings Bank Account
2. National Defence Certificates
3. Defence Deposit Certificates
4. Cumulative Time Deposit

The gross and the net deposits in the said schemes for the year 1963-64 were Rs. 28,46,718 and Rs. 9,72,251, respectively, while the corresponding figures for the year 1964-65 were Rs. 34,93,623 and Rs. 9,98,682, respectively.

The total sale of 'Prize Bonds' in the District for the year 1963-64 was Rs. 13,260.

Warehousing Corporation

The Madhya Pradesh Warehousing Corporation was established in the year 1958 under the Agricultural Produce (Development and Warehousing) Corporations Act, 1956. This placed additional facilities within the reach of the cultivators. Apart from the facility of storing the goods, the traders could also raise loans and advances on easy terms from the branches of the State Bank of India or any other Scheduled Bank on the authority of the Warehouse Receipt. On 13th October, 1960, a Warehouse was established at Betul. The usual commodities stored in this Warehouse are Gram, jowar, maize, *teora*, rice, groundnuts, *rajgira*, etc.

The aggregate of the annual deposits in the said Warehouse from the year 1961-62 to 1964-65 are given as under.—

Year	Aggregate deposits (in M. Tonnes)
1961-62	938
1962-63	259
1963-64	205
1964-65	168

The procedure for obtaining loan is, that the agriculturist or any other depositor who deposits his produce in the warehouse, and pays charges including the insurance against fire, accident etc., gets in return a Warehouse Receipt. On the authority of this Receipt the Banks advance money to the

extent of 60 to 65 per cent of the total value of the goods deposited at a comparatively low rate of interest, ranging from 5-1/2 per cent to 7 per cent.

The amount advanced by the State Bank of India against the authority of Warehouse Receipts in the District is given as follows.—

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1961	60,000
1962	1,31,000
1963	40,000

Co-operative Credit Societies and Banks

The Co-operative Credit movement in this District took roots in the year 1907. In that year there were only four rural Societies with a membership of 782. The societies naturally needed the central financing agency to manage funds for them, and as such under the guidance of Arthur Mayne, the then Deputy Commissioner of this District, Co-operative Central Bank was started with a very modest share capital of Rs. 9,875, contributed by 38 individual members, and the above mentioned four credit societies.

The co-operative primary credit societies are formed at village level, and these societies cater to the financial needs of the agriculturists for raising crops. The co-operative movement gradually gained popularity in the District, and the number of societies increased to 194 in 1915, and 311 in 1922. There was general economic depression during 'thirties onwards, and the debtor-members of the credit societies were not in a position to repay the loans of these societies. Due to the defaults in repayment and hopes of revival also dwindling, a number of credit societies were put under liquidation. Consequently, their number decreased to 184 in 1932, and further to 154 at the end of the year 1941-42. With the out break of World War II in 1939, the prices of commodities showed upward trend. The prices of agricultural commodities also improved, which allowed the agriculturists to rehabilitate themselves and to repay their debts.

The national Government after Independence laid greater emphasis on co-operative movement with the ideal of a "Co-operative Commonwealth." While preparing the Five year Plans, therefore, special schemes were also formulated in this sector. Under these schemes, 21 large-sized primary credit societies were established in the District. Out of these societies, four societies were given loans and subsidies to the extent of Rs 10,000 each for the construction of godowns. All the societies were given share capital contribution by the Government, ranging from Rs. 75,000 to Rs. 85,000. Later on emphasis was shifted from largesized societies to village service societies. This District could establish 62 service societies at the village level, till 30th June, 1961. These societies were expected to meet the financial needs of their members, as also

to take up service functions, including the marketing of their farm produce. As such three marketing societies, each at tahsil level were organised with financial assistance in the form of share capital contribution, and subsidy to the extent of Rs. 42,500 was given by the Government.

On the eve of the launching of Third Five Year Plan (1960-61), co-operative movement had much headway in the District. The progress of different types of societies during the decade 1950-61 is given in the following table.—

Type of Society	Year	No. of Societies	No. of Members	Owed Funds (Rs.)	Working Capital (Rs.)	Loans Advanced (Rs.)
Credit						
a. Central Bank	1951-52	146	260	1,47,594	5,27,571	1,94,019
	1955-56	217	448	1,79,392	7,66,147	4,50,200
	1960-61	268	848	4,17,850	16,76,465	3,64,106
b. Agricultural Societies	1951-52	140	1,022	1,17,766	2,36,661	14,486
	1955-56	211	4,448	..	..	4,23,642
	1960-61	268	10,493	4,53,078	13,92,525	3,05,182
c. Non-Agricultural Societies	1951-52	5	48	2,534	5,918	264
	1955-56	13	219	..	..	..
	1960-61	13	276	5,047	33,169	2,673
Non-Credit						
a. Agricultural other than Primary	1951-52	3	370	10,883	89,906	..
	1955-56	3	396	16,278	1,11,125	..
	1960-61	4	2,665	61,056	3,59,902	..
b. Non-Agricultural Societies	1951-52	10	333	7,340	26,668	..
	1955-56	16	553	11,793	52,882	..
	1960-61	52	1,671	23,702	1,15,085	..
c. Societies other than Primary (Rural areas)	1951-52	8	159	3,339	18,472	..
	1955-56	11	192	6,151	42,238	..
	1960-61	38	1,066	10,555	76,113	..
d. Societies other than Ordinary (Urban Areas)	1951-52	2	174	4,001	8,196	..
	1955-56	5	361	5,642	10,644	..
	1960-61	10	605	11,472	38,972	..

During the Third Plan period, co-operation assumed new dimensions, and great stress was laid on further extending the scope of co-operative movement. As such, sectors other than credit were increasingly brought under the fold of co-operation.

A host of non-credit societies were opened in the District. By the end of the Third Plan period (1965-66), total number of all types of societies excluding Central Co-operative Bank increased to 401 with a membership of 39,222 persons. The paid-up share capital, consequently, stepped up to Rs. 11,69,846.

in 1965-66 and to 12,28,582 in 1966-67. the working capital increased to Rs. 85,26,215 in 1965-66 and to Rs. 95,80,528 in 1966-67. These included 246 Agricultural Credit Societies, 7 Non-Agricultural Societies, 22 Weaving and other Industrial Societies, 18 Co-operative Stores, 35 Multipurpose Societies, 4 Marketing Societies, 16 Forest Labourer's Societies, 3 Housing Societies, 1 each Primary Land Mortgage Bank and Co-operative Union.

Co-Operative Central Bank, Betul

To meet the financial needs of these credit societies, the Co-operative Central Bank, Betul, established in 1907, had an annual business of Rs. 8,98,722 approximately. The Bank was progressing well from the date of establishment till it met a very strong Jolts during the depression of 1930 onwards. The Government had established the Debt Conciliation Boards and Debt Relief Courts in the District. The debts were conciliated, and were allowed to be repaid in instalments. The Bank as a creditor also suffered due to deferred payments, and it could not recoup for a number of years. The Bank under the Plan schemes got the honorary services of a Manager and a Chief Group Officer in 1954-55. It also received the Government contribution toward the share capital to the tune of Rs. 1,18,000.

Progress of the Bank till the end of the Second Plan period (1955-56) has already been reviewed in the forgoing table. During the Third Plan period, great strides were made, and the Bank membership, (societies and individuals) increased to 1,168, with a paid-up share capital of Rs. 7,04,775 in 1965-66 and Rs. 7,73,555 in the following year. The position of Bank as in 1966-67 is given as under.—

Members	1965-66	1966-67
Societies (Nos.)	320	301
Individual (Nos.)	848	847
Paid of Share Capital (Rs.)	7,04,275	7,73,555
Govt. Grants-in-aid (Rs.)	1,18,000	1,18,000
Reserve and other funds (Rs.)	2,11,047	1,84,660
Securities (Rs.)	20,78,243	15,95,937
Working Capital (Rs.)	66,86,265	63,32,911
Loan distributed (Rs.)	38,85,685	33,93,252
Over dues (Time barred) (Rs.)	18,19,563	26,59,004

Land Mortgage Bank

With the increased indebtedness of the cultivators due to the period of slump, importance of long-term finance for liquidation of old debts as well as for land improvement, and also consolidation of holdings was felt more keenly. A Land Mortgage Bank, therefore, was established in the District in the year 1939. This Bank, however, could not make much headway as a viable unit

and ultimately amalgamated with the Central Co-operative Bank in 1946. During the three successive Plan periods Steps were taken to make the Bank play more important part in financing long-term land improvement plans in the District. The progress of the Bank during 1950-51 to 1966-67 is given in the following table.—

Particulars	Years				
	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1966-67
Members	143	205	376	1,975	2,640
Paid-up Share Capital (Rs.)	1,227	3,341	3,882	47,596	65,660
Loan advanced (Rs.)	10,650	12,100	17,520	2,27,450	3,61,600
Loan out standing (Rs.)	29,556	99,066	98,396	6,37,713	8,63,818

GENERAL AND LIFE INSURANCE

There is no separate office of any general insurance company or Life Insurance Corporation in Betul. However, the work of general insurance in this District is also being looked after by the office of the Life Insurance Corporation of India, situated at Chhindwara. From the year 1956 to 1963, the total sum insured by this office, for Betul was Rs. 1,09,54,900 and the number of lives insured was 4,043. During the years 1963-64 and 1964-65, new policies numbering 983 and 800, respectively were sold in Betul District. The number of agents for the Life Insurance Corporation in the District increased from 108 in 1963-64 to 114 in 1964-65.

As regards general insurance, the names of the prominent companies having offices outside the State, and doing some business in the District are as follows.—

1. Oriental Fire and General Insurance Company, Ltd.
2. National Fire and General Insurance Company, Ltd.
3. Co-operative Insurance Company, Ltd.
4. British India General Insurance Company, Ltd.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

The Industrial Survey of the former Central Provinces and Berar, 1908-09 was the first to draw attention towards the need of assisting the industries by the State. But it was not earlier than in 1933, that we see the enactment of Central Provinces and Berar State Aid to Industries Act, 1933. But due to the restrictive character of the provisions of the Act, neither did it prove of great assistance to industries nor in promoting new industries.¹ Consequently, the Act was suitably amended in 1946 and 1947.

1. Provincial Industries Committee Report, C. P. & Berar, 1946, p. 89.

After the formation of the new State, a comprehensive Act was passed, which came to be known as State Aid to Industries Act, 1958. During the first Five Year Plan period, loan worth Rs. 12,000 was disbursed to three concerns. During the Second Plan period, the total sum of Rs. 1,31,033 was disbursed in 150 cases. During the Third Plan period the total sum of Rs. 1,55,440 was disbursed in 268 cases. The details of Loan granted from 1966-67 to 1968-69 are given below.—

Year	No. of Cases	Amount of Loan (Rs.)
1966-67	28	29,460
1967-68	43	58,000
1968-69	56	56,000

Under the State loan scheme, sugarcane-crushing industry, which produces either *gur* or *khandsari*, hosiery industry, cane and bamboo industry, radio-assembling industry, musical instrument industry, etc., have progressed well. After the establishment of the office of Assistant Director of Industries at Betul, attempts are being made to popularize this scheme further.

Away from this, there is one more agency which readily gives loans for the industrial development, viz., the Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation, with its headquarters at Indore. The main aim of the said Corporation is to supplement the activities of the Industrial Finance Corporation of India by aiding private enterprise through long and medium term credit to qualified small-scale industrial establishments. However, till 1965 the Corporation has not sanctioned loan to any industrial concern in the District.

In order to meet the difficulties experienced by the small-scale industrial units in securing adequate financial resources for their working capital, the State Bank of India introduced a liberalised scheme in April, 1956 for providing them with credit facilities at certain selected centres. Soon after this scheme was extended to all the branches of the State Bank of India from 1st January, 1959. However, so far, no advances were given by the Bank to any of the industrial units in the District.

Hire Purchase

The number of applications entertained and machines supplied by the National Small Industries Corporation, on hire-purchase basis to the industrial units in Betul, during the year 1961-62 to 1964-65, are as follows.—

Year	No. of Application	Amount Rs.
1961-62	9	80,744
1962-63	8	35,435
1963-64	7	27,211
1964-65	4	10,023

CURRENCY AND COINAGE

When the Saugor-Nerbudda territories were ceded to the British in 1818, it seems that the coins prevalent in the British India were extended to this region. Recently, decimal currency was introduced in the District, as elsewhere in India in the year 1957. This reform was welcomed in this District, especially in the urban and semi-urban areas. In the beginning when this change was introduced the conversion of old coins into new coins created confusion, but now this difficulty is not being felt, and these have become popular in urban as well as in rural areas of the District.

TRADE AND COMMERCE

The people who are dependent on 'Trade and Commerce' in the District as per the Census of 1961, constitute only 00.87 per cent of the total population. Out of this, 0.52 per cent were in rural areas while 0.35 per cent in urban areas.

Certain amount of trade by road, the value of which was estimated at Rs. three lakhs, was recorded at the time of the 30 years' Settlement by Ramsay. Opium and sugarcane were then exported alongwith timber and other forest produce to adjoining districts. Rice was also an item of export, which was exported to Burhanpur, and other cereals to Nagpur and Berar.¹ The said Settlement Report further observed that the "chief traders of the District are Telis and Kulars; they export large quantities of jungle produce to Berar chiefly. It (trade) comprises the flowers of the *mhowa* tree from which the common country spirit is distilled, *chitroojee* the seeds of which are used in cookery, the hurra-nut from which a dye is extracted, a small quantity of lac and a few other sundries. Ghee is also manufactured largely by Gowlees, who sell it to the Telis for sale in the District or export."² *Gur* was also exported then to Hoshangabad and rice on bullocks to Burhanpur.³

The main imports of the District a century back were salt, coconuts and other sundries, which were brought from Berar by the Telis in return for the *mahua* and other jungle produce they exported. Cotton cloth and utensils of brass and iron were also imported in limited quantities.⁴

In the following table the estimated value of the chief articles of export and import for the year 1865, as recorded in 30 Years' Settlement is reproduced.⁵

Articles	Export (Rs.)	Import (Rs.)
Cotton	1,300	15,000
Sugar and <i>gur</i>	35,000	1,500
Wheat	20,000	13,000

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 164.
2. Baltool Settlement Report, 1866, p. 79.
3. Ibid., p. 80.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid., p. 81.

Articles	Export (Rs.)	Import (Rs.)
Salt	49,000	60,000
Rice	28,000	13,000
Other grains	12,000	5,000
Raw opium	50,000	—
English cloth	6,000	36,000
Country cloth	35,000	44,000
Sundries	70,000	62,000

At the turn of the Century the bulk of the exports were to Itarsi station. "Mr. Standen estimated that the balance of agricultural produce available for export was 16½ lakhs of maunds of food grains, 1,30,000 maunds of oilseeds, and 30,00,000 maunds of *gur*",¹ estimated to cost Rs. 47½ lakhs. But Russell in 1907 observed that *gur* exports had declined considerably. Wheat and gram exports were also reduced. However, *jowar* which was formerly imported, assumed the status of exportable commodity. Oilseeds still formed an important commodity of export trade, observed Russell in 1907. San hemp became an important product of Betul which was exported through Itarsi. Apart from these, importance of Betul as an exporter of forest produce was still retained by the District in 1907. These consisted of timber of teak and *tinsa*, bamboos, and other minor produce such as *mahua* flowers, myrabolans, *chironji*, etc.

The most important imports of the period were salt, sugar, cloth, thread, iron, kerosene oil, spices and coconuts. Much of the imports came through Itarsi.²

By the time of Re-Settlement of the District, 1916-21, the advent of the railway turned Betul into the leading market for all agricultural produce grown in the District. Internal market abounded everywhere. "The itinerant traders used to visit the remotest hamlets of Bhainsdehi Tahsil for oilseeds, cotton and food grains,"³ which they exported through Itarsi.

Situated on the Satpura plateau, the District has rich forest belt. According to 1961 Census, Trade and Commerce give principal work to 1.5 per cent of the District's working force. Participation in 'Trade and Commerce' is as high as 1.3 per cent in Betul Tahsil but falls to 0.8 per cent in the entirely rural Bhainsdehi Tahsil. Multai Tahsil has 1.6 per cent of its working population in 'Trade and Commerce'.

Wholesale trade accounts for 5.9 per cent of workers in trade and commerce; three fourths (74.3 per cent) of which in cereals and pulses. The rich

forest resources are exploited by 7.6 per cent of the workers in wholesale trade. Following this, are persons engaged in export of *gur* (Betul *gur* has more than a local reputation), oilseeds like *jagni*, *ramtila*, and *gulli*; forest produce, *ghi*, etc, employing 4.5 per cent of the workers in wholesale trade.

Retail trade, however, engages 91.7 per cent of the workers in trade and commerce. Most of the trading activity of the rural areas is carried on in weekly markets, 71 in number. A list of the villages where these weekly markets are held is given in Appendix. As said earlier, forest produce still forms a considerable portion of the District's export trade. Betul yields teak, and other valuable timber and forest produce which is largely exported from the District. The fire-wood is turned into coal by the local contractors for export purposes.

Wheat is also an important produce which is exported to the State of Maharashtra. The value of export is, however, not known but during the period from 1st January, 1961 to 31st August, 1961, wheat to the extent of 13,673.72 quintals was exported. Besides, rice, jowar, oilseeds and pulses also form important items of trade. The direction of export trade is generally towards south. During the year 1961-62, Betul railway station and Betul *Mandi* exported the following commodities.

Commodity	Quintals
Wheat	12,340.50
Rice	9,949.51
Jowar	4,538.25
Oilseeds	90,379.06
Pulses, etc.	2,383.52

The inward and outward flow of goods from two railway stations of the District, viz., Betul and Multai, shows that during the year 1962-63, food grains formed an important commodity of imports, while pulses, of export. The following are the import and export figures of the aforementioned railway stations.

Commodity	(in Quintals)			
	Betul		Multai	
	Import	Export	Import	Export
Wheat	2,393	48	..	220
Gram	379	240	..	..
Rice	390	..	..	..
Maize	557	..	..	..
Jowar	399	..	..	..
Pulses	890	8,904	..	18,080
Others	39	351	..	..

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 165.

2. Ibid., p. 171.

3. Betul Re-Settlement Report, 1916-21, p. 8.

TRADE CENTRES

There are no Regulated Markets in the District. As for the centres of wholesale business are concerned, Betul Ganj can be said to be a small wholesale centre for the agricultural produce in the District. The important commodities that are dealt in this market are wheat, rice, jowar, maize, gram, oilseeds, etc. in the normal year. Apart from this there is also a *mandi* at Multai where the agricultural produce is brought for sale.

Weekly and Fortnightly Marketing Centres

In all there are about 71 weekly marketing centres in the District. The highest number of such markets are in Multai Tahsil, i. e., 29, the second closest being Bhainsdehi with 24 markets, and lastly the Betul Tahsil with only 18 such marketing centres. This gives one market per 54.80 sq. mile of area in Betul. The detailed list is given in the Appendix.

Fairs and Melas

From time immemorial religious fairs have been an inevitable part of the religious community life. As the means of communications developed they started adopting commercial character also. In this District also, fairs are associated with important deities or festivals. The traders usually transact brisk business in these fairs. The names and places of the important fairs are given in Appendix.

CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING

It appears that the advent of co-operative marketing was very late in this District. It was in 1941 that Tapti Co-operative Marketing Society, the first of its kind, was established at Multai, followed by the Popular Co-operative Marketing Society Ltd., at Betul, in the following year. Consequent upon the recommendation of the Rural Credit Survey Committee, the State Government sanctioned a scheme for the development of co-operative marketing in the State during the Second Plan period. Consequently, two more marketing societies were established in the District. Poorna Co-operative Marketing Society Ltd., Bhainsdehi, came into being in 1950 and two years later, Bhimpur Co-operative Society Ltd., Bhimpur was also established.

These societies arranged for the sale of agricultural produce of the member-societies apart from purchasing the same in the *mandies*. They also deal in fertilizers, agricultural implements, etc. Bhimpur Society deals in *kirana*, and Bhainsdehi in cloth, apart from the above mentioned commodities.

In 1960-61, the 4 marketing Societies in the District had a membership of 36 societies and 2,629 individuals. In subsequent years of Third Plan period and till the year 1966-67, though the number of societies remained 4, yet the member societies increased to 251 and individuals to 3,298 in 1966-67. Similarly, the paid-up share capital and working capital also increased from Rs. 1,10,152 and Rs. 4,32,951, respectively in 1960-61, to Rs. 1,36,831 and Rs. 6,35,648 respectively in 1966-67.

It is estimated that these societies transact enormous business yearly, and in the year 1960-61 business amounting Rs. 2,64,308 in agricultural produce and Rs. 5,31,348 in consumers goods was transacted. The corresponding figures for the year 1966-67 show that these societies transacted business amounting to Rs. 15,77,718 and Rs. 21,08,026 respectively. For the storage of commodities, the societies are maintaining 14 godowns in the District and also transacted Rs. 8,50,014 worth of business in agricultural goods and implements.

STATE TRADING

The growing concern of the State Government in maintaining the price line of essential commodities in the recent years has led it to increasingly participate in the procurement and distribution of these commodities to its people at fair price. The Government procures wheat and jowar through the co-operative societies under the Madhya Pradesh Wheat Procurement (Levy) Order, 1965, and Madhya Pradesh Juwar Procurement (Levy) and Monopoly Purchase Order, 1965. Since April, 1965, wheat to extent of 1,770 quintals, valuing about Rs. 91,000 was procured by the Government in Betul by 31st January, 1966. As reported in February, 1966, the State Government fixed the following prices of wheat, Rice, Jowar, and gram.

Commodity	Wholesale rate per qtl. (Rs.)	Retail rate per kg. (Rs.)
Wheat	Grade I 65.00	00.67
	Grade II 61.00	00.63
	Grade III 57.00	00.59
	Grade IV 52.00	00.54
Rice	71.40 to 101.62	00.74 to 01.05
Jowar	40.00 to 43.00	00.43 to 00.44
Gram	61.00 to 75.50	00.63 to 00.78

The procured commodities are kept in the godowns at Betul and Multai. In Betul town there are to Government godowns having capacity of 5,000 bags each. Multai godowns is also of the capacity.

The provisional arrangement for the distribution of wheat, rice and jowar has been done in some portions of the District. For the purpose, the Government opened 17 fair-price shops in this District in September, 1965. The tahsil-wise distribution of these is given as under.—

Tahsil	Name of place	No. of Fair-Price shops
Betul	Betul proper	6
	Shabpur	1
	Chicholi	1
	Sarni	1
	Ghoradongri	1

Tahsil	Name of place	No. of Fair-Price shops
Multai	Multai proper	2
	Amla	2
Bhainsdehi	Bhainsdehi proper	1
	Bhimpur	1
	Athnair	1

Till February, 1964, their number remained unchanged.

MERCHANTS' AND CONSUMERS' ASSOCIATIONS AND LABOUR ORGANISATIONS

There are only two labour unions in the District, viz., Central Railway Mazdoor Sangh, Amla, and Defence Employees Union, Amla.

Central Railway Mazdoor Sangh, Amla

This Union consists of loco-workers and other class III and class IV employees of Central Railway. Its Office is situated in Pir Manzil at Amla. It was started in September, 1961.

Defence Employees Union, Amla

This is a union of civilian non-gazetted employees of Indian Air Force. It was registered in the year 1949. Its registration number is 45.

There are no registered merchants' unions in the District.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

The details of the old weights and measures have been given in old District Gazetteer (1907). From the following extract it would be clear that in the past measures like *Paili* and *Kuro* were common. For weights, the people used tolas, seers, maunds, etc. For length-measures, people used foot and yard, etc. Russell in the old Gazetteer observed that "The *paili* and *kuro* are the measures of capacity generally in use for grain. A *paili* contains 90 tolas and the *kuro*, 8 *pailis* or 9 seers. In Betul Tahsil, a *mani* of 24 *kuros* or 5 maunds 16 seers is generally employed, as in the Narmada Valley. While Multai Tahsil has the *khandi* of 20 *kuros* or 4 maunds 20 seers which is used in Berar and Nagpur. For Payments for agricultural labour and contributions to village servants there is a small *kuro* containing 6 or 7 *pailis*. The above measures of capacity are for wheat, but according to a statement given by Mr. Standen, the *kuro* of *juar* contains 18 lbs., the *kuro* of wheat 19.3 lbs., and the *kuro* of gram 18.8 lbs. A *khandi* of wheat-land is 5 acres, while a *hal* or plugh of land is from 10 to 13 acres. Fields sown with jowar and til are sometimes spoken of by the *awar*. The *awar* consists of 8 *harras* and *harrai* of 1½ *parainas*. The *parain* is the cattle-goat used in ploughing and is 7 feet long. The *harrai* is 1½ *parainas*

or 9 to 12 feet broad and its length is that of the field. The *awar* is usually about 1½ acres of land. Salt is sold both by weight and measurement and *ghi* and sugar by weight. A maund of 10 seers is used for tobacco and 14 seers for *gur*. A *khandi* of *gur* is 20 maunds or 7 Government maunds."¹

Present Position

In accordance with the decision of the Government of India in favour of switching over to the Metric System, the State Government passed the Madhya Pradesh Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1959. In Betul, the Act was extended on 1st October, 1961, with one year's transitional period, and subsequently the system of metric weights was made compulsory from 1st October, 1962.

So far as the use of the metric capacity and length measures is concerned the same were introduced from 1st April, 1962 and from 1st April, 1963, the use of metric measures was made compulsory in the District.

In Betul District, the Inspectorate was established in 1961. Two Inspectors were posted in the District with headquarters at Betul. One of them is looking after Betul proper and Betul Tahsil, and the other Bhainsdehi and Multai Tahsils.

The progress in regard to the implementation and enforcement of weights and measures in Betul District has been quite satisfactory. Almost all the traders and commercial establishments have started using metric, weighing and measuring instruments. The position of enforcement has particularly been very satisfactory in remote places of the District including weekly *hats*, where weighing and measuring is being done only in metric units. This achievement, of course, has been without any prosecution and other legal action but only through persuasion and propaganda. However, seizure of old weights and measures was done just to withdraw units from circulation, and in Betul District the position of seizures was as under.—

Weights	1,191
Beams	70
Measures	218
Length measures	12

1. Betul District Gazetteer, pp. 161-62.

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

Conditions regarding transport and communications were far from satisfactory in the early days and the road system in the District is still in the primary stage of development. Due to the uneven topography of the District the construction of roads and railways has always been a difficult task. The roads were generally built along the wider parts of the Plateau, keeping a distance from river banks.

In 606 A. D.¹, Shashank, king of Gaur, defeated and killed King Rajyavardhan of Kanauj. From fragments of historical accounts it appears that a part of the Gondwana kingdom was conquered by Malwa at an early period of history. Some copper-plates found at Multai in Betul District dated 799 A.D. belong to the Rashtrakuta dynasty. This indicates the probability of Multai plateau being in the possession of the Rashtrakuta dynasty from 750 to 950 A.D. The next mention of Betul is given in a religious work called the *Vivek Sindhu* written by Mukund Raj Swami, a religious ascetic who lived about the end of the 13th Century A. D. His tomb is within the premises of Kherla fort and a temple has been erected² over it. After the decline of the Mughals (18th Century) the kingdom of Deogarh extended its territories to Betul.

These facts show that in the various periods of history Betul and Kherla were the important seats of administration and were approached by the routes from Deogarh in the east, Hoshangabad in the north and Achalpur in the south-west.

Modes of Conveyance

In old times when there were no good roads in the District, the goods were transported either as head-load, or on bullock or horse-back in a most difficult tract. In the remaining area of the District carts were used for transport purposes. With the construction of roads in these areas this mode of transport was replaced by cars, buses and trucks. In the interior areas of the District, which have not yet become accessible by roads the older modes of transport still continue.

Roads in the 19th Century

As early as in 1868, there were five main roads traversing the District.

1. Road from Budnour (Betul) towards Nagpur, partially bridged.
2. —do— towards Hoshangabad, bridged the whole way, a branch from Shahpur to Sohagpur in Hoshangabad.
3. —do— towards Mhow, *via* Hurdah.
4. —do— towards Ellichpur and Budnaira.
5. —do— towards Chhindwara.

Carts can travel at all seasons of the year on the above five roads."¹

The road from Hoshangabad to Nagpur traversed the length of the District and was more or less bridged. From Betul to the boundary of Hoshangabad, the road was passable for vehicles throughout the monsoon, so that the railway station of Itarsi, which was situated at two miles from the foot of the hills, just within Hoshangabad District, was accessible from Betul in all seasons. It was on the direct road to Hoshangabad at a distance of 63 miles (85.29 km.) from Betul. The road from Civil Station (Betul) to Achalpur was partially bridged.

The main road from Badnur (Betul) went towards Nagpur and passed through Betul 6.40 km., Sasoondra 22.53 km., Multai 45.08 km. and Chichanda within the District.

The second important road went from Badnur (Betul) to Hoshangabad *via* Neempani, 21.31 km., Shahpur 49.06 km., Dhar 61.15 km., Kesla 69.20 km.

The third important road in the District originated from Badnur (Betul) and went to Mhow *via* Harda. Within the District the road passed through Chicholi, 26.25 km., Chherpalla 46.67 km., Gosain 64.37 km. and Lokhartali 93.34 km.

The road from Badnur (Betul) to Achalpur and Badnera passed through Khairi 12.87 km., Jhallar 32.18 km., Goodgaon 48.28 km., Sawamenda 67.59 km. and Dhala 83.69 km.

The road from Badnur to Chhindwara passed through Amla, while the road from Shahpur towards Sohagpur passed through Dhansee at a distance of 16.09 km.

The road system as existing in the beginning of the 20th Century is described below:—

"The north-west road which runs from Nagpur through Betul and Hoshangabad to the north traverses the District almost from end to end, passing Chichanda, Multai, Betul, Badnur and Shahpur and leaving the District at Dhar. It is now metalled almost throughout and provided with bridges and causeways. The dis-

1. R. S. Tripathi, History of Ancient India, p. 293.

2. Betul District Gazetteer, pp. 25-26.

1. Central Provinces Gazetteer, 1868, p. 3.

tance from Itarsi Junction to Badnur is 55 miles, from Badnur to Multai 28 miles, and from Multai to the Chhindwara border 14 miles, the length of the road in the District being 27 miles. Its direction is south from Itarsi to Nagpur, the road south of Multai being of minor importance as compared with that between Multai and Itarsi."¹

Other Roads

"Of the other routes leading from Badnur, the Ellichpur road through Jhallar is partly metalled and runs for 51 miles in the District. Some timber is taken to Berar along with road. The Badnur-Harda road has a length of 51 miles to the border, passing Chicholi and Chirapatla and is gravelled. A gravelled road also leads for twenty-two miles from Badnur to Atner. From Multai there is a road to Chhindwara, but it is of no importance for trade. Nor is there much traffic on the north-west road beyond Multai, though cloth, thread and fruits and spices are brought along it from Nagpur. Of the routes connecting the south of the District with Berar, the road leading from Multai through Pattan by Bikatghat to Sendurjana and on to the Ellichpur-Amraoti road at Badnur was made passable for cart traffic in 1897 and has recently been metalled. Produce is taken along this road to the important market of Chandel in Amraoti District. The Badnur-Ellichpur road has also been made practicable for carts down the passes. Two other routes lead to Berar, one through Atner to Hiradehi and the other from Multai through Masod down the Dabka ghat, but these are at present only village tracks. Another road runs across the south of the District for 4 miles from Masod through Atner and Satner to Bhainsdehi. The total length of metalled roads in the District is 95 miles and of unmetalled 152 miles. The annual expenditure on maintenance is Rs. 48,000. The Public Works Department are in charge of 244 miles of road and the District Council of the remainder and of some village tracks on which they spend only about Rs. 600 annually."²

In the year 1944 a metalled road was constructed commencing from 69th mile (58 miles, 4 furlongs) of the North-West Road and having a length of 10 miles. It was maintained by the Military Engineering Services.

After 1944 the road communication in the District has been considerably developed and road surface has been improved, specially, during the period from 1950 to 1963 and road length has also appreciably increased.

Road Development in Plan Period

There has been an alround development of road works in the District during development Plan Periods, as depicted in the Table below,—

Period	Road Length	
	Class I	Class II
	km.	km.
(1) Before I plan	216.15	134.50
(2) After I plan	229. 0	197.80
(3) After II plan	271. 0	186.30
(4) After III plan	590.40	76.50

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 173,

2. Ibid.

Road Activities During Second Plan

The schemes of road construction undertaken during the Second Plan include the improvement of 4.21 km. of the Chicholi-Dhekna Road at a cost of Rs. 2,70,875; construction of 12.80 km. of Pattan-Zilpa-Chilhati Road at a cost of Rs. 53,732; construction of 14.07 km. of metalled and 57.52 km. of unmetalled village roads; improvement of Kharpi-Muktagiri Road at a cost of Rs. 11,343; construction of Bhainsdehi-Nanda-Bhimpur Road at a cost of Rs. 1,76,229; and construction of Chicholi-Bhimpur road at a cost of Rs. 1,47,893. Other works taken up related to the Multai-Khedli-Bordehi Road, Baretna-Ghodadongri Road, Nawegaon-Amla Road and Pattan-Zilpa-Chilhati Road. In addition, upgrading of Multai-Athnair-Chilkapur Road was also undertaken during the same period.

Progress During Third Five Year Plan

During the Third Five Year Plan an expenditure of Rs. 42.89 lakhs was envisaged for maintenance of old roads and construction of new ones.

The works of construction of the following carry over schemes were taken up for completion.

S. No.	Name of Scheme	Lakhs of Rs.
		Financial Provision
1.	Pattan-Zilpa-Chilhati Road	1.60
2.	Improvement of Chicholi-Dhekna Road (length 31 miles)	2.27
3.	Kharpi-Muktagiri Road	0.34
4.	Bhainsdehi-Nanda-Bhimpur Road	7.98
5.	Chicholi-Bhimpur Road	3.27
6.	Upgrading of Multai-Athnair-Chilkapur Road	1.37
7.	Multai-Khedli-Bordehi Road	1.15
8.	Baretha-Ghoradongri Road	4.20
9.	Nawegaon-Amla Road	0.27
10.	Pattan Zilpa-Chilhati	1.60
11.	Construction of Adna Bridge in mile 50 fg. 4 of Betul-Achalpur Road	1.97
12.	Rest House at Chirapatla on Chicholi-Dhekna Road	1.49

The construction of two new roads, namely, Betul-Ranipur Road⁽¹⁾ and Multai-Khedli-Bordehi Road was also taken up during the Plan period. An expenditure of Rs. 5.35 lakhs for a length of 28.96 km. was earmarked for the work. Under the work of upgrading of existing roads 2 roads were taken up; out of which the work on Chicholi-Dhekna Road was continued from the Second Plan

period. An expenditure of Rs. 10.37 lakhs was earmarked for the Third Plan period and the total length to be taken up for upgrading was 57.93 km. During the Third Plan, work on Multai-Athnair-Masod-Gudgaon road was taken up at an estimated cost of Rs. 1.37 lakhs for a length of 11.20 km.

New Fair Weather Roads

Under this scheme two roads, namely Hiwarkhedi-Nanda road and Nawegaon-Bordehi-Amla Road were included for construction at a cost of Rs. 77,000 for a length of 26.60 km.

Surface-wise Road Length

During the Third Plan period, there has been constant improvement in the surface of the roads in the District. The length of roads having bituminous surface increased from 354.02 km. in 1963-64 to 371.75 km. in 1964-65 and to 381.41 km. in 1965-66. Similarly roads with water bound surface also registered a rising trend from 143.23 km. in 1963-64 to 193.21 km. in 1964-65 and to 198.03 km. in 1965-66. The roads falling under fair weather category declined gradually due to their conversion into superior type of surface. The relevant length was 2592.10 km. in 1963-64; 2584.05 km. in 1964-65 and 2569.55 km. in 1965-66.

The table below shows the category-wise distribution of Roads in the District for the period 1947 to 1968-69.—

Year	State Highways (Km)	Major District Roads (Km)	Minor District Roads (Km)	Village Roads (Km)	Forest Roads (Km)
1963-64	126.49	237.32	147.41	72.50	—
1964-65	126.19	237.32	187.23	72.50	—
1965-66	126.49	237.32	188.44	72.50	—
1966-67	134.30	431.60	484.75	68.42	—
1967-68	174.30	431.30	425.00	69.39	—
1968-69	174.30	436.15	446.40	67.45	1417

State Highways

The total length of the State Highways in the District on 31st March, 1969 was 174.30 km. The roads falling under this category are:

(1) North-West Road	125.17 kms.
(2) Betul-Khandwa Road	17.30 kms.
(3) Multai-Chhindwara Road	31.83 kms.
	174.30 kms.

Major District Roads

The total length of the roads under this category in the District on 31st March, 1969, was 431.15 kms. They are maintained by the State Public Works Department. The following are the roads which fall under this category:

(1) Betul-Achalpur road via Jhallar and Gudgaon	44.12 miles	71.03 kms.
(2) Betul-Harda Road	41.00 "	66.00 kms.
(3) Betul-Athnair Road	21.50 "	34.60 kms.
(4) Multai-Athnair-Chilkapur	44.00 "	70.85 kms.

The Betul-Achalpur Road passes through Jhallar and Gudgaon. It is black-topped through-out the length. The Betul-Harda Road has a length of 66.00 kms. It passes through Chicholi, Pathakhed and Chirapatla. The Betul-Athnair Road has a length of 34.60 kms. From this length 12.66 km. are metalled with stone metal and the remaining length is gravelled with *morram*. The Multai-Athnair Chilkapur Road has a length of about 70.85 km. Out of the length, 26.46 km. are gravelled with *morram* and the remaining length is black topped.

Minor District Roads

The length of Minor District Roads on 31st March, 1969 was 446.40 kms. They are maintained by Public Works Department. The only important road is the Bhains dehi-Chilkapur Road with a length of 10.50 km.

Name of Road	Length Km.
Khamapur-Rangheli	56.32
Nanda-Hiwarkhedi	31.18
Nanda-Amdhana	19.31
Chikhli-Ui	19.31
Taeri-Ratamalji	22.53
Piparia-Dasli	19.31
Piparia-Patri	24.14
Bhainsdehi-Tapti	27.35
Khamla-Kothalkund	28.53

VEHICLES AND CONVEYANCES

Apart from the Railway and transport by Petrol or Diesel driven trucks, the people, in general, depend on the following vehicles and means of conveyance in the interior places of the District.

Beasts of Burden

Bullock and horse-drawn carts are mostly used in the undeveloped areas of the District, where good roads do not exist. The number of horse-drawn carts is very small. Passenger buses are used for travelling to important places which are on the main roads. Jeeps and cars are used by Government Officers, contractors and well-to-do persons. Trucks are engaged for transportation of goods, etc. in the District as well as out side the District by the business people. Cycle Rikshas are used in town portion of Betul only. The use of cycle in the District is very common. The number of motor-cycles is very small.

Automobiles

The automobiles in the District have gradually extended their area of operation and also multiplied in number during the recent three years in the District. Their running and plying are controlled by the Regional Transport Authority, Bhopal. The Table below shows the year-wise number of motor vehicles, upto the year 1967.—

Year	Cars	Buses	Trucks	Motor-cycles	Taxies	Total
1961	12	10	52	10	—	84
1966	—	22	136	32	1	291
1967	58	32	199	44	—	333

Bicycles

The bicycle has now become a vehicle of the common man because of its cheapness, least running cost and suitability for all round use.

Horse-driven Tongas

They are the vehicles utilised for carriage of both men and goods within the towns, though with the introduction of motor vehicles their importance is diminishing gradually.

Cycle-Rikshas

These vehicles are manually driven and are found only in Betul Municipality limits.

Bullock-Carts

The bullock-cart still remains the only popular and multipurpose utility vehicle of rural population. Even with the advent and progress of modern science,

it has not undergone any change in its structure. It still essentially retains its primitive form and shape.

The table below shows the yearwise growth of these vehicles.

Year	Tongas	Rikshas	Bicycles	Bullock Carts
1955—56	21	14	385	544
1956—57	25	18	540	579
1957—58	18	19	609	703
1958—59	21	20	566	638
1959—60	23	18	716	650
1960—61	26	13	683	644
1961—62	26	22	573	661
1962—63	27	22	1121	783
1963—64	19	32	976	578
1964—65	26	36	865	647
1968—69	22	49	1105	841

WATERWAYS, FERRIES AND BRIDGES

Bridges

All the important roads of the District are provided with a good number of bridges, culverts and cause-ways. The maintenance of these is the responsibility of the State Public Works Department. Due to the existence of these, the roads are open for traffic during all seasons of the year. The Table below shows the details regarding their maintenance on different categories of roads during recent years.—

Class of Roads	Number of Bridges, Culverts and Cause ways										
	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1969
1. State High ways	182	182	182	182	182	182	182	182	182	182	276
2. Major District Roads	383	383	383	383	383	383	383	383	383	383	401
3. Minor District Roads	62	62	62	62	62	62	69	71	72	80	99
4. Other District Roads	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
	635	635	635	635	635	635	642	644	645	653	784

Construction of Bridges and Culverts in the Third Plan

The following table shows the details of the roads selected for providing new

bridges and culverts during the Third Plan period.—

Scheme	Financial Targets	Physical Targets
1	2	3
(1 Lakhs Rs.)		
I. Continued works		
A. Minor Works on.		
(a) Kharpi-Muktagiri road		
(b) Chicholi-Dhekna road		
(c) Bhainsdehi-Nanda-Bhimpur road	8.27	165 Minor
(d) Patan-Zilpa-Chinehati road		3 major
(e) Chicholi-Bhimpur road		
B. Major Works on.		
(a) Chicholi-Dhekna road		
(b) Bhainsdehi-Nanda-Bhimpur road		
C. Patan-Zilpa-Chichehati road		
II. New Works		
A. Minor Works on.		
(a) Betul-Ranipur Road		
(b) Multai-Masod-Gudgaon road		
(c) Multai-Kheri-Berdehi road	2.68	1 major Bridge and other minor Bridges
B. Major Works on the River Abna—This bridge has a length of 150 ft. It had two spans of 45 ft. each and one span of 60 ft.		

RAILWAYS

Till 1913 there was no Railway line running through Betul District. But the scheme for laying a railway line was approved by the Government as early as 1906. It was described as follows.—

“Betul will be the last District in the Central Provinces to be provided with railway communication. No part of it is at present (1906) traversed by a railway line but this isolation is not likely to last long. A project for a loop-line from Nagpur to Amraoti, which would pass through the north of the Wardha District and from some point on which a new railway will be taken through Betul District to Itarsi is under consideration. This will probably be in supersession of a former project for a railway running direct from Wardha to Itarsi through Multai, the survey of which was completed in 1902. Feeder-lines are also projected from Multai to Chhindwara on the east and from Betul to Ellichpur and Amraoti on the south-east.”¹

1. Ibid.

Itarsi-Betul-Nagpur Section (5' 6" Gauge)

The Railway line in Betul District falls under the jurisdiction of Nagpur Division of Central Railway and passes through the District from miles 486 to 488.5 and from miles 492 to 572 for about 82.5 miles. (132.80 Km.)

This Railway line forms a part of the Delhi-Madras Grand Trunk route. The line enters the District from Itarsi side and Dhodra Mohar is the first station in this district followed by Barbatpur, Ghoradongri, Dharakoh, Maramjhiri Betul, Bursalie, Amla, Jaulkhera, Multai and Chichonda, 6 miles beyond which the railway leaves the District. The Table below shows the progress of the opening by stages.—

1. Central Railway (Broad gauge 5' 6")

S. No.	Section	Date of opening	Length	
			Miles	Km.
1.	Itarsi-Betul	1-5-1913	66.39	106.88
2.	Betul-Amla	20-2-1914	14.31	23.03
3.	Amla-Narkher	4-9-1924	50.07	80.61

2. Amla-Parasia Section

A branch-line of the broad Gauge line connects Amla Railway Station with Parasia (Chhindwara District) in the Pench Valley Collieries—It was opened on 1st November, 1915, serving the District for about 21 miles from mile 543 to 564 and entering Chhindwara district after Bordehi station. The Railway stations on this line are Amla, Jambada and Bordehi.

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES

Rest Houses, etc.

There are several rest-houses and dak-bungalows in the District which provide facilities for boarding and lodging. There is one Circuit House at Betul, situated near the District Court on mile 1st, furlong 8th, of the Civil Station Road. It has got three suits of rooms with one dinning-hall for accommodation of tourists. Formerly there were 17 P.W.D. rest-houses in the District out of which six have been recently abandoned. The Table in the Appendix shows the location of these.

POSTS, TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES

History

When the Postal Department was started letters and parcels were normally carried by postal runners. These runners were easily susceptible to every type of

1. Ibid.

danger and sometimes were assaulted and plundered by dacoits. From time to time many such cases came to the notice of the Government. The injured employees of the Postal Department were usually granted a pension. In course of time postal-runners were substituted by mail-carts drawn by horses. This change was first made in 1842 and gradually adopted in all parts. Mails were carried from one station to the other by contractors who had entered into contract with the Post-Office to carry mails and passengers between any two stations at fixed charges, speed and time. The post distributing peons or postmen were paid rupees five per month which was considered to be a handsome salary in those days.

Most of the official communications were conveyed from one place to another by the 'District' Mail also, besides the post offices. The District Mail was confined to communication from the district headquarters to the tahsil headquarters and the interior of the district only. In 1846 the facilities of the District Mail were thrown open to the public also. The District Mail continued to be controlled by District officials till 1865 when it was transferred to Post Office Department.

According to the recommendations of the Postal Commission of 1859, the Post Office was established as a separate department to be supervised by the Director-General of Post Offices. The Government also decided to open branches of Post-Office throughout the country. Moreover, irrespective of distance and inconvenience in the conveyance of letters and parcels, a uniform rate of postage was fixed for the whole country. Postage stamps were introduced which were to be purchased and affixed to letters, etc. and the previous practice of paying for them in cash at different post-offices was given up.

The latter progress regarding the opening of the post-offices is described thus: "Measures have been taken for the establishment of a District Post-Office at each Police Station-House, and at each Sudder Station. The general Rules of the Post-Office Department have been adopted. The Nazir of the District Court House is "the Officer in charge of the District Post." The Police writers at Station-house are the District Post-Masters; and at each District Post-Office there is a Delivery peon for the postal sub-division of the district, which correspond with the Police limits of the Station-House. Dak-runners between the Sudder station and the Station-Houses in the interior existed before. It has further been arranged to establish District Post-Offices, when desired by the inhabitants in the larger towns in the interior of districts, which may be on the Postal rates, and in which no Station-Houses may be established. The Police Officers perform the duties of Inspectors of District Post-Offices, and Deputy Commissioners are responsible for the efficiency of the arrangements. By these means, it is hoped that Postal facilities may be placed within reach of all classes of the community."¹ The Imperial Post-Offices in the Central Provinces continued under the separate administration of Post-Master-General of the North-Western Provinces till

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1863-64, p. 88.

1964-65 when a proposal was submitted for placing postal arrangements in these Provinces under a separate Post Master-General. As a result of the repeated recommendations the Imperial Post-Offices were placed under the charge of a Chief Inspector of Post-Offices in 1865-66. The rural postal service was also sanctioned in that year. This was also placed under general supervision of the Chief Inspector. The cost of this service was defrayed in part by special cess paid by landholders. These interior postal lines, branching minutely throughout the interior were in fair order.¹

Present Working and Set-Up

On 1st March, 1969 there were 117 Post Offices in the District comprising one Head Post-Office at Betul, 13 Sub-Offices, and 103 Branch-Offices, out of which 30 were permanent and 73 temporary. In addition on the same date there were 10 combined Post and Telegraph Offices. The list of important offices is given in the Appendix. The Table below gives the progress of the number of the Post Offices in the District.—

Year	No of Offices		
	Sub-Offices	Branch offices	Telegraph offices
1960-61	(11+1)	98	6
1965-66	(13+1)	103	10
1966-67	(13+1)	103	10
1967-68	(13+1)	103	10
1968-69	(13+1)	103	10

Telephone

The first telephone connection in the District was started at Betul on 22nd June, 1955. At that time 26 telephone connections were given in the town. In the year 1963, were two telephone exchanges at Betul and Multai—the Betul Exchange being manually worked while the Multai exchange was automatic. Later on, on 31st March 1964, one telephone exchange was opened at Amla which has automatic working system. It was provided with 25 telephone connections.

Public Call-offices in the District are provided at Betul Head Post-Office, Betul Ganj Post-Office (in Betul Tahsil), Multai and Amla (in Multai Tahsil) and at Bhainsdehi.

1. Ibid., 1865-66.

The Table below shows the yearwise number of telephone connections at Betul.—

Year	No. of Telephone connections		
	Betul	Multai	Amla
1955-56	31	—	—
1956-57	40	—	—
1957-58	40	—	—
1958-59	42	—	—
1959-60	47	—	—
1960-61	48	—	—
1961-62	62	—	—
1962-63	64	22	—
1963-64	80	22	8
1964-65	104	24	12
1965-66	118	24	13
1966-67	138	29	14
1968-69	142	28	89

RADIOS AND WIRELESS STATIONS

There is no radio or wireless station in the District. The population of the District is served by the Bhopal Radio Station.

The number of radio licences registered was 1790 in 1962-63, 1739 in 1963-64; 857 in 1965-66; 1243 in 1966-67; 6714 in 1967-68 and 7463 in 1968-69.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

According to Census 1961, the cultivators and agricultural labourers formed 83.77 per cent of the total 'workers' in all the different sectors of the economy of the District. This means that only 16.23 per cent of the 'workers' were engaged in industries, commerce, transport and services sectors. The occupational group IX—'Other Services' of Census 1961 in which majority of the occupations dealt with in this Chapter falls, engaged 4.92 per cent of the total 'workers' only.

There was no survey or an enquiry ever conducted to ascertain the social or economic conditions of the persons in any of the many miscellaneous occupations in the District. As such occupational statistics as emanating from the decennial censuses have to be utilized. Here also the changes in concepts and contents of different occupational groups from one census to another make any comparison of the occupational data infructuous. However, with an increase in the developmental activities in agriculture, industries, transport and communications, under planned economic development, services and occupations are also likely to increase. This trend is observed especially in the administrative services, teaching and public health services, and occupational data broadly indicate these trends.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Services under Central and State Governments as well as under Local Bodies offer substantial employment opportunities. Activities under the Community Development programme also offer opportunities for employment to a number of administrative personnel.

According to Census 1951, there were 342 employees of the Union Government, 1,601 of the State Government and 352 of the local Government Bodies in the District. These figures were exclusive of those already classified under other divisions and sub-divisions of occupations for Census purposes. In 1961, the number of persons in administrative departments and offices of the Central Government increased to 386; in the State Government administrative departments and offices, there were 258 persons, while in the local Government organizations, Municipalities and Local Bodies, the number was 423. These figures indicate the growing opportunities of employment for persons in public services.

The persons in this occupation being fixed income-earners are hard pressed economically because of the rising cost of living everywhere. As amongst these categories of employees, those in Central Government Service are economically better off than those under the State Government and Local Bodies' employment. This is so, because the resources of the State Government and next to them those of Local Bodies are limited and the rising cost of living could not be neutralized by increasing the dearness allowances to the extent desirable. However, Government servants as well as the employees of Local Bodies get dearness allowance, benefit of provident fund, old age pension, gratuity, etc., besides their pay. Facilities for reimbursement of medical treatment expenses incurred on self and families also exist. Housing accommodation is also provided to the Government Servants if the nature of duty of the person requires his presence on the place of work at all hours. Due to all these benefits and other guaranteed service conditions, the educated persons are always on the look-out for entrance in this occupation. As such, there are always more applications for jobs in the Government service than the number of jobs available.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS

Teachers

Among different occupations a place of prime importance goes to the profession of teaching. After the establishment of National Government great stress has been laid on education of the masses and to this end, free and compulsory primary education was introduced. This has created a demand for a large number of teachers at different stages of education. The number of schools and colleges also increased in the District. The pattern of old-time academic institutions is gradually being changed to suit technical education, in order to fulfil the needs of the technical man-power requirements.

According to Census 1951, the percentage of literacy in the District was 9.64, while in 1961, i.e., during 10 years' period, it had increased to 16.7. This indicates the leeway that has to be made in achieving literacy for all. Employment opportunities in teaching profession at different levels are increasing. This can be seen from the fact that while in the year 1957-58 the number of teachers at primary stage was 837, in 1962-63, this number increased to 1,266. The number of lady teachers at this stage had increased from only four in 1957-58 to 88 in 1962-63. At the middle school stage for the year 1957-58 the number was 233 which had increased to 395 in 1962-63. In 1957-58, there was no lady teacher at this stage of education, but in 1962-63 there were 55 lady teachers. At the secondary stage there were 116 teachers including five lady teachers in 1957-58. In 1961-62, the number increased to 248, including 25 lady teachers. At collegiate stage the number of lecturers was 25 in 1962-63. This number increased to 29 in the year 1964-65. Government have started training institutions for teachers to provide qualified teaching personnel. The number of teachers in training which was 153 in 1957-58 had increased to 246 in the year 1962-63.

As a measure of economic betterment of the persons in this profession Government have made the revised pay-scales for their employees also applicable to institutions run by Local Bodies and aided private institutions. However, in the current day conditions of rising cost of living the persons in this class are also subject to the hardships of other fixed income earners in the society.

The teachers, especially the low-paid primary teachers in the District are organised in five teachers' associations of the Local Body employees. All these associations were started in the year 1946 with the total membership of 531 teachers as detailed below.—

S. No.	Name of Association	Membership
1.	The Municipal Teachers' Association, Betul.	55
2.	The Municipal Teachers' Association, Multai.	13
3.	The Municipal Teachers' Association, Betul Bazar.	13
4.	Janapada Teachers' Association, Betul.	150
5.	Janapada Teachers' Association, Multai.	200
		431

Medical Profession

Next to the teaching profession from the point of national importance is the medical profession. Even after about two decades of Independence, the Nation is lacking in trained physicians to serve the millions in the rural areas of the Country. It is a general tendency among the medical practitioners to settle in urban areas for their practice. In the rural areas of the District, as elsewhere in the Country, there is a great dearth of qualified medical practitioners. According to Census 1951, there were 24 registered medical practitioners, 27 *Vaidyas*, *Hakims* and other persons, 5 Midwives, 1 Vaccinator, 4 Compounders and 24 Nurses. Thus, for a population of 4,51,655 persons, there were only 85 persons of all categories in the medical profession. This gave a proportion of about 5,314 persons per medical man. As per Standard Industrial Classification, in the year 1961 there were 724 persons in the medical and public health services in the District. This figure is in no way comparable with the 1951 figure; but because of the opening of Primary Health Centres and dispensaries, etc., during different plan periods the number of persons in this profession has certainly increased. But with the increase of population to 5,60,412 in 1961 the proportion of population per medical personnel is not likely to have improved.

Economic condition of the persons in this occupation is generally satisfactory, because besides the remuneration pertaining to particular job, private practice also provides addition to income. New entrants sometimes find it difficult to establish their practice in competition with the veterans in the profession. The Government's policy of providing free medical treatment to the people at Government dispensaries and the introduction of the enactments like Employees State Insurance Scheme, etc., are stated to be the obstacles in the way of fresh

entrants to establish their practice. Inspite of this, there is a great scope of employment in this occupation if the entrants start to live and serve the population in rural areas.

Government have taken a policy decision as early as in 1937 to promote indigenous systems of medicines. *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* is conducive to the extension of medical facilities to the rural areas. As a result during the Third Five Year Plan period, there were three Government *Ayurvedic* dispensaries and 13 dispensaries managed by Janpad Sabhas in the District. Each dispensary has a qualified *Vaidya*. There is also one Homoeopathic dispensary under the management of Betul Bazar Municipal Committee. It has one Homoeopathic Assistant Medical Officer, incharge.

This shows that scope in the medical profession is increasing, generally for all the different systems of medicine.

Legal Profession

According to Census 1951, the number of lawyers of all kinds including *quazis*, law agents and *mukhtars* in the District was 54. As against this, according to 1961 Census 44 persons were engaged in legal services. In the District, there are three Bar Associations, working at Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi, in which 30 legal practitioners are associated. Besides this, there are one Public Prosecutor and two Assistant Public Prosecutors for conducting Police cases in the courts.

Persons in the legal profession, especially the new entrants, find it difficult to attract clientele. It is also found that there are great diversities of income in this profession, as the income depends on the professional skill and success in the cases taken. Besides, quite a long period of apprenticeship has to be gone through, before a lawyer's services are in demand. Due to this, occupation of lawyer is not a great attraction.

In the year 1961, the artists, writers and related workers, as classified under the 'National Classification of Occupations' numbered 452. Of these, the largest groups were musicians and related workers numbering 420. The remaining ones included actors and related workers 25 (21 males and 4 females), dancers, etc., 5 (all males), translators and artists, writers, etc., one each.

Occupations of teachers, medical and veterinary doctors, lawyers, artists and writers etc., might be broadly termed as learned professions. Besides these, there are other occupations like retail and whole-sale trade, money-lending, etc., which are connected with the commercial activity.

COMMERCIAL ACTIVITY

Whole-sale and Retail Trade

The 1951 Census enumerated 2,362 persons in retail trade in grain and pulses, sweetmeats, sugar and spices, dairy products, etc. The Standard Industrial

Classification comparable to this category of retail trade is trading in cereals, pulses, vegetables, fruits, sugar, spices, oil, fish, dairy products, etc. The Census 1961 enumerated 2,477 persons in this activity. These two categories are mostly comparable in their contents and, therefore, it can be said that there was an increase in the number of retail traders in this group, which, however, is not much in view of the increase in population and the passage of a period of 10 years.

Retail traders in textiles and leather goods numbered 380 as per 1951 Census. The comparable category from the Standard Industrial Classification is retail trading in fibres, yarns, dhoti, sari readymade garments of cotton, etc., excluding leather goods. In the year 1961 the number was 537. Retail trading in foot-wear, head-gear, umbrella, shoes, etc., engaged 10 persons in the District. Together this gives a total of 547 persons in 1961 as against 380 of 1951. But 1961 groups are more comprehensive than 1951 and the increase is likely to be due to this comprehensiveness.

There were 219 persons in 1951 engaged in retailing *pan*, bidis and cigarettes. As against this retail trading in tobacco, bidi, cigarettes and other tobacco products in 1961, engaged 295 persons.

Whole-sale trade in grains and pulses, sweetmeats, sugar and spices, dairy products, etc., engaged 53 persons, as per 1951 Census. As against this, Whole-sale trading in cereals and pulses itself engaged 214 persons. In addition, trading in vegetables, fruits, sugar, spices, oil, fish, dairy products, etc., engaged 13 persons in 1961. Together, for comparability with 1951 classification, it makes a total of 227 in 1961, as against only 53 of 1951 Census. However, it is difficult to conclude from these figures that the number of wholesalers in 1961 had increased to about four times as much over that of 1951, because the categories are not exactly comparable. Except these categories other categories of wholesalers of the two censuses are not even remotely comparable. With the increase in population facilities of easy transport and planned developmental activities, increase in whole-sale and retail trading activities engaging larger numbers over a period of years, is not altogether unlikely. This can be corroborated from the fact that under Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act, 1958 which is applicable to Betul town in the District, there were 29 grocery (*Kirana*) shops employing 17 persons in the year 1959. By additions every year thereafter, the number had increased to 57 in the year 1965 with a total of 24 employees.

Hotels and Restaurants

The management of hotels, restaurants, lodging and boarding houses is becoming a specialized occupation, especially in big industrialized urban centres. Betul District, however, is neither industrialized nor are there any fast-growing urban centres in the District. Betul town to which the Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act, 1958 is applicable had nine hotels coming under the provisions of the Act in the year 1959 with 11 employees. By 1965, the number had increased to 22 with 29 employees. This shows the increasing scope in this occupa-

tion, inspite of the fact that Betul is not an important urban industrial centre. Development of this occupation has been made possible by the increasing industrial and commercial activities, which keep people away from homes for a longer period at a stretch. Hotel-keeping in the form of providing light refreshments, tea, coffee etc., has invaded even the far off rural areas. At every bus stand, cinema house and confluence of roads, some sort of hotel is found. The 1951 Census count enumerated 239 persons in the whole of the District engaged in the occupation of hotels, restaurants, etc. A decade later at the 1961 Census count 255 persons were enumerated under the services rendered by hotels, etc.

Money-Lending

Inspite of development of banking institutions, co-operative societies, etc., individual money-lenders still continue to be a source of credit to a large section of rural population. This occupation is as a matter of fact deeply rooted in the economic conditions of the Country. A villager finds it convenient to go for loans, whenever required, to the village money-lender as he is readily available, rather than to engage himself in a long-drawn process of applying for loan through co-operative credit society or bank. This being so the occupation of money-lender still continues, inspite of many restrictions imposed by the Government on his business methods with a view to making institutional credit popular amongst the rural masses. In the year 1951-52 there were 211 registered money-lenders in the District. As against this in the year 1963-64 the number had increased to 231.

Repairing of Bicycles

With bicycle becoming a mode of cheap conveyance for the masses in the rural and urban areas, a number of persons are now engaged in the activity of repairing bicycles. This activity cannot be said to have assumed such dimensions as to form a separate category of occupation, yet a number of persons are earning their livelihood in this activity. At Betul proper, there were nine cycle repairing establishments covered under the Shops and Establishments Act in the year 1959, employing four persons. By 1965, the number had increased to 20 with 5 employees. This shows that majority of the establishments are worked by the owners themselves. These figures however, do not give the correct idea of the number of establishments and persons in this occupation. First, because the number refers to Betul town only and, secondly, because quite a large number of persons in this activity have no regular shops as such. Majority of those working as cycle-repairers work on the roadside nearer to office establishments, factories, cinema-houses, hotels, etc., and work is generally carried on at peak hours of traffic. The 1951 Census classification besides cycle repairing included manufacture, assembly and repair of railway equipment, motor vehicles, etc. In 1961, however, the repairing of bicycles and tricycles formed a separate occupational class and 55 persons were enumerated for the whole of the District in this occupation.

DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL SERVICES

Domestic and personal services include the occupations like those of tailors, *dhobies* (washerman), barbers, cooks, personal drivers, etc. In olden times such

a retinue of domestic servants used to form part of the larger families of the landowning gentry and other well-to-do classes in the society. With the changes in the socio-economic conditions and higher costs of living, circumstances have changed. Greater opportunities of employment becoming available elsewhere, the domestic services are taken up as a source of livelihood in the last resort. Here again instead of full-time jobs, part-time work is preferred. Moreover, general economic conditions, except those of the people in the upper strata of society, do not permit employment of domestics on a full-time basis. *Nais* (barbers) and *dhobis* prefer to set up their saloons and laundries where the customers are served. In rural areas also the old occupational traditions are changing, though the change is prominently marked in urban areas. There are now everywhere tailoring, hair-cutting and laundry establishments, where customers are not lacking. Besides, these occupations are no longer restricted to particular castes in the society. A person in laundry business, need not necessarily be a washerman by caste or the one working in hair-cutting establishment a barber. Such establishments are found to be run by other caste people in the society. In the occupation of tailoring even, high caste people are also found.

According to 1951 Census, cooks, gardeners and other domestic servants numbered 653, in the District. In 1961, the number of domestic servants, cooks, etc., was 926. The increase in the number in 1961 is likely to be either due to the larger content of occupational class or increase in population.

Laundry and Hair-cutting

In the year 1951, there were 184 persons engaged in laundries and laundry services. In the year 1961, this number had increased to 478 persons. The number of barbers, hair-dressers, etc., in 1951 was 589 while in 1961, the number of persons in similar categories was 779. Most of the laundries and hair-cutting saloons are carried on by owners themselves without any assistance. In a few cases, the members of family like brothers, etc., are taken as helpers. Though both the occupations are restricted in majority to the *dhobis* and *nais*, persons belonging to other castes are also entering these occupations with the advent of dry-cleaning and other machines. There were only two laundries and 10 hair-cutting saloons in the year 1965 in Betul town, covered under the Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act, 1958.

Tailoring

In this occupation, there were 477 persons in the District, classified as tailors, milliners, dress-makers and darners in 1951 Census. In the year 1961, the persons engaged in the making of textile garments, including rain-coats and headgears numbered 1,150. Increase of population and greater sophistication in sartorial habits of the people provide opportunities for taking up this occupation. The economic condition of persons in this occupation is generally satisfactory.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Pattern of Livelihood

In the earlier Gazetteer of the District it was observed that, "The proportion of the population dependent on pasture and agriculture is 70 per cent of the total as against the provincial figure of 73. But if general labourers are included, the numbers in Betul are higher than elsewhere. . . . The District has no factories and no hand industries of any special importance, while the numbers supported by the latter have almost invariably declined since 1891."¹

The pattern as above, refers to the beginning of the present Century. Fifty years later in the year 1951, the population of the District was recorded as 4,51,655 persons. Rural population formed 92.52 per cent of the total at this Census. In the year 1961, the number of persons in the District was 5,60,412. Percentage of rural population at this Census was 91.59. There was thus no change in the rural set-up of the District.

The number of economically active persons in the District in the year 1951, taking self-supporting persons plus earning dependents in respect of their secondary means of livelihood as economically active, numbered 2,54,326. The percentage of those engaged in agriculture was 84.29. The total number of "workers" as per 1961 Census was 3,24,511, out of which cultivators and agricultural labourers formed 83.77 per cent. This means by far the most important source of livelihood in the District is agriculture.

Production other than cultivation as per 1951 Census occupational classification, provided livelihood to 6.78 per cent of the total economically active persons. Taking mining, quarrying, livestock, etc., together with household industry and manufacturing other than household industry of 1961 Census, as equivalent activities to production other than cultivation of 1951 Census, the percentage of "workers" to total "workers" in 1961 was 8.03. How far this increase in percentage indicates development of industrial activity and dependence of people for their livelihood on that activity is doubtful, because classification of occupations, as well as economic status classifications for both the censuses are different. Hence, the figures though broadly comparable, no categorical conclusions can be derived out of such a comparison. Moreover, percentage increase

in 1961 over 1951 is only 1.25. When this increase is considered in the light of 10 years' period and about 24.07 per cent increase in the population of the District during this period, it appears insignificant.

The percentage of self-supporting and earning dependents together, in the occupational class Commerce was 2.71 of the total of all those in different occupational classes in 1951. In 1961 the percentage of "workers" in the same occupational class had fallen to 1.50. As this occupational class is one of the least disturbed in its contents, the fall in the percentage is not easily explicable for want of any other relevant data in this connection. It is possible that actually trade and commercial activities in the District have declined or the difference is due to the different scope of the terms 'self-supporting' and "earning dependents" of 1951 and 'workers' of 1961.

In the occupational class Transport the percentage of self-supporting plus earning dependents was 1.12 of the total in 1951. In 1961 it was noticed that 1.30 per cent of the total of all "workers" was in similar occupational class.

In the Miscellaneous and other Services group of 1951, the percentage of self-supporting and earning dependents was 5.09 while in 1961 this group had 4.92 per cent of the total "workers." The fall in the percentage of this occupational class can be explained as Construction and Utilities group formed part of 1951 Miscellaneous and Services group, while in 1961 it was given separately. The percentage of "workers" in construction activities in 1961 was 0.47 of the total "workers." If for the sake of uniformity the Construction, Miscellaneous and Services are combined in 1961 as in 1951, the percentage to total "workers" in this combined group works out to 5.39 in 1961 as against 5.09 of 1951. This shows a very little change in this occupational group as well.

Thus, not only during the decade 1951-61 but even during the period of writing of the earlier gazetteer, inspite of the considerable increase in the population, the pattern of livelihood in the District, had remained virtually the same. Diversion of population away from agriculture to other occupational groups is minimal. There is also no shifting of population from rural to urban areas which usually follows the industrial and other occupational development. In this respect change was only from 92.52 per cent rural population in 1951 to 91.59 per cent in 1961.

The proportion of dependents to economically active persons in 1951 was 1:0.77, which has slightly fallen to 1:0.72 in 1961. This fall is most likely due to the wider scope of the definition of "workers" in 1961 as against the terms "self-supporting" and "earning dependents" used in the 1951 Census. Economic conditions in the District appear to have remained static over a period of half a century and more, taking the period beginning with the present Century.

PRICES

The trends in prices obtaining in a particular region, besides being the result of local season and crop conditions obtaining from year to year, are also condi-

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 49.

tioned by circumstances in the distant corners all the world over. As a proof of this phenomenon it may be cited that immediately after 1860 the prices in the District were referred to as having increased largely in consequence of the American War, and were sustained by the Bundelkhand Famine of 1868-69. After a slight fall in the early 'seventies of the last Century price level again rose to scarcity rates in 1877 and 1878, on account of the Madras Famine. These instances from the history of price level in the District of the bygone Century, when means of communication and trade relations of the Country as a whole, were less developed, brings home the fact that the level of prices obtaining in a particular tract or a region, at a particular time is the product of the sum-total of the conditions all over the world. If American War in the last Century could cause a dissonance in the price rhythm of the District the events in this fleet-footed Century like the First World War, Economic depression, Second World War, Korean War, Partition of the Country and our efforts in planned economic development, could certainly introduce a virtual discord in price trends in the District. In fact, it is the effect of all these world events and events in the country itself, that is found mirrored in the price level in the District, as a reflection of a universe above in the waters of a pond.

Jowar is the staple foodgrain of the District, "but the standard adopted for measuring the variations in value of the produce of the land has always been the price of wheat."¹ During the period 1891-99, the price of jowar was the highest in the year 1897 being 9.8 seers a rupee. In this year the price of wheat was also the highest, i.e., about 8 seers a rupee. This was due to the famine conditions prevailing in the District in the year 1896-97. However, in the following years, i.e., 1898 and 1899 the price situation improved, jowar being sold at 19.8 and 19.9 seers per rupee, respectively.

In the first decade of the current Century the high level in the price of jowar was again reached in the year 1908. This time the price was still higher than that obtaining in the famine year of 1897 in the last Century. The price of jowar in 1908 was 9.6 seers a rupee. The wheat price in this year was again at the same level as obtained in the year 1897, the price being 8 seers a rupee. The reasons for this rise in prices to famine level might be sought in the season and crop conditions that obtained in the year 1907-08. The Jowar crop was reported to have suffered much from excessive and continuous rain throughout the Province. Wheat was sown under most unfavourable conditions. The out-turn of this foodgrain in all the districts of the Province was below that of the preceding year. Besides, jowar and wheat, kodon and kutki which are sown extensively and form the staple food of Gonds and Korkus in the District suffered extraordinarily in this year. Added to these bad season and crop conditions, the year 1908 saw the visitation of plague in the District. Combined effect of all these, was to raise the prices to famine level, though there was no declaration of famine as such in the District. Price situation, however, was easy in the succeeding years. In the year 1910, jowar

1. *Ibid.*, p. 146.

sold at 18.8 seers a rupee, wheat was 12.8 seers a rupee, ordinary rice was 8.4 seers and kodon-kutki was 13.4 seers a rupee.

In the year 1913, i.e., the year preceding the First World War, the price of wheat in the District was 12.34 seers a rupee, rice 7.13 seers and kodon-kutki 9.31 seers a rupee.

In the year 1914, jowar was sold at 12.23 seers a rupee, but during the succeeding War years the price of jowar actually dropped from the 1914 level, reaching 18.47 seers a rupee in the year 1916. Wheat was sold at 9.35 seers a rupee in the year 1914. The price of wheat, however, increased in the following year to 8.87 seers a rupee. In the year 1916, there was also a fall in the price of wheat, i.e., 10.61 seers a rupee, as in the case of jowar. Prices of rice and kodon-kutki also decreased in the year 1916. During subsequent two War years, i.e., 1917 and 1918, there was a progressive rise in prices of wheat, jowar and kodon-kutki also. Of all these three foodgrains there was very steep rise in the price of jowar in the year 1918. The price was quoted at 5.14 seers a rupee as against 13.30 seers a rupee in 1917. The wheat price in the same year, i.e., 1918 was 6.39 seers per rupee. This rise in prices was due to the adverse monsoonic conditions. In the year 1917 jowar crop was damaged due to heavy rain and in the absence of winter showers, coupled with cold winds and cloudy weather, wheat crop also suffered. The season in the year 1918 was also not favourable for jowar and kodon-kutki, though for wheat it was comparatively better. Considering the price situation generally for the whole of the State during 1917-18, it was observed that, the prices "had risen by 150 to 200 per cent towards the close of the period under review."¹ This was attributed partly to the holding-up of stocks by small merchants, but mainly to the reduction of stocks on account of the comparative failure of crops for the past two years. These movements in prices during the First World War period bring out the fact that the foodgrain prices in the District were not much affected by the War time increase in demand as such, but higher prices during the closing years of the War were due to the local adverse seasonal conditions.

After the war, in the year 1919 the price of jowar in the District registered a marginal fall, i.e., from 5.14 seers a rupee in the year 1918 to 5.77 seers a rupee in 1919. Prices of wheat, rice and kodon-kutki increased in the year 1919 over that in the preceding year. The prices of all foodgrains in the 'twenties of the Century remained at a higher level as compared to those obtaining during the actual War years. A number of factors were responsible for comparatively higher prices of foodgrains. For example, "The monsoon of 1920 had been one of the worst on record and the scarcity which followed was in respect of crop failure and high prices one of the severest ever experienced."² In the year 1921 there was a severe out-break of cholera, plague and malaria also played havoc. After some two or three years of comparatively better conditions, in the year 1926 there was again an out-break of plague. Thus, while on the one hand visitations of different epidemics practi-

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1917-18, p. vi.

2. Census of India, 1931, C. P. and Betar, Part I, p. 12.

cally every year reduced the vitality of working population, alternating good and bad monsoon conditions also contributed to scarcity of foodgrains and consequent higher prices. It was only in the year 1923 that the prices of jowar and wheat were comparatively at a low level. Jowar was sold at 12.01 seers a rupee, while wheat was sold at 8.22 seers a rupee. This fall in prices was due to better crop conditions, especially wheat, the out-turn of which was quoted at full 16 annas. Out-turn of jowar was 14 annas.

In the year 1930, as compared to the preceding year, the prices of rice, jowar and wheat were lower. The fall in the price of rice was only marginal, i.e., from 6.3 seers a rupee in 1929 to 6.4 seers a rupee in 1930. Jowar price had fallen substantially, i.e., from 8.6 seers a rupee in 1929 to 11.1 seers in 1930. Wheat in the year 1930 happened to be sold at 9 seers a rupee as compared to 8.1 seers in 1929. Price of kodon-kutki in 1930 was 7.3 seers a rupee as against 7.4 seers in 1929. The year 1931 happened to be one of the general fall in prices of all foodgrains. The substantial fall in the price was in case of jowar, i.e., from 11.1 seers a rupee in 1930 to 22.8 seers in 1931. Price of wheat had fallen to 19 seers a rupee from 9 seers in the previous year. Out-turn of rice, kodon-kutki and wheat was higher than in the previous year. While part of the fall in prices might be attributed to the generally better out-turn of crops, the economic depression all the world over and fall in demand of foodgrains due to wide-spread unemployment were mainly responsible for the low level of prices. In the year 1932 there was a rise in the price of jowar and wheat against the prices obtaining in the previous year, but there was a further fall in the prices of rice, and kodon-kutki. Rice which was sold at 7 seers a rupee in 1931, was sold at 13 seers a rupee in 1932. This precipitous fall in the price of rice might be attributed to the generally good conditions of rice crop all over the State. "In important rice growing districts the out-turns were nearly full", while in others they ranged from 57 to 112.5 per cent. In the year 1935 there was a general rise in the prices of all foodgrains compared to the years 1932 and 1933; the prices in 1935 being 9.3 seers of rice, 13.7 seers of jowar, 14.6 seers of wheat and 12.7 seers of kodon-kutki per rupee. In the following year, i.e., 1936, except in case of wheat, price of which rose to 13.8 seers a rupee, there was general fall in the prices of rice, jowar, and kodon-kutki. In the year 1937, there was a further rise in the price of wheat, while prices of rice, jowar and kodon-kutki had fallen still further. Fall in the price of rice was marginal, i.e., from 10.5 seers a rupee in 1936 to 10.6 seers a rupee in 1937, but there was a substantial fall in the price of jowar, i.e., from 14.5 seers a rupee in 1936 to 17.0 seers a rupee in 1937.

In the year 1939, i.e., at the beginning of the Second World War, prices of rice, jowar, wheat and kodon-kutki in the District were 11.5, 14.2, 12.5 and 12.5 seers a rupee, respectively. In the year 1940 the prices of all these foodgrains had increased. As per anna notation of out-turn, except for wheat, out-turn of all other crops had fallen during the year 1940 over that of 1939. Out-turn of wheat was quoted at annas 10 for both the years 1939 and 1940. It is difficult to state whether the rise in price was due to reduction in out-turn or was a result of War

time conditions. Apart from the seasonal conditions affecting the out-turn of the crops and their prices, it is a fact well-known that during the 'forties of the current Century, the prices of foodgrains and other commodities were the controlled prices fixed by the Government from time to time necessitated by War conditions. For example when the price of wheat showed a tendency to rise steeply in the year 1941, Government fixed maximum prices of wheat in parity with the maximum price at Hapur vide memorandum to the Deputy Commissioner dated the 2nd January, 1942. For Betul District the maximum retail price of wheat per maund was fixed at Rs. 6-2-6. In the year 1942, rice was sold at 6.3 seers a rupee, jowar at 11.2 seers, kodon-kutki at 7.3 seers and wheat at 6.2 seers a rupee in the District. Out-turn of all these crops had fallen in the year. Fall in the out-turn of wheat was highest of all the crops. In the subsequent years of War, prices of foodgrains soared still further inspite of the control measures. Prices of these foodgrains from 1939 to 1945 were as under.¹—

(In seers per rupee)				
Year	Rice	Jowar	Wheat	Kodon-kutki
1939	11.5	14.2	12.4	12.5
1940	8.1	12.0	11.2	9.1
1941	7.6	15.3	10.7	10.0
1942	6.3	11.2	6.2	7.3
1944	3.5	5.9	3.10	4.0
1945	2.90	4.70	3.70	3.25

The cessation of hostilities was expected to ease the price situation but in the year 1946 entire wheat crop suffered severe damage due to rust. Rice and jowar crops were also below normal. As a result, prices of all foodgrains increased. Rationing and provisioning had to be introduced even in rural areas. In the year 1947, with the advent of the National Government at the Centre and in the State, the question of controls was re-examined by the Government of India which decided on a policy of gradual decontrol. In pursuance of this policy the State Government removed all ban on the inter-district movement and rigid system of monopoly procurement was abandoned. Rationing and provisioning schemes were cancelled. This policy, however, proved a failure, as can be seen from the soaring prices of foodgrains that obtained in the District in the year 1948. Rice was sold at 2.7 seers, jowar 3.3 seers, wheat at 1.2 seers and kodon-kutki at 4 seers a rupee. Government of India decided to resume control system. The State Government also followed suit. In the following year, i.e., 1949 there was a marginal fall in the price of wheat, viz., 1.8 seers a rupee over 1.2 seers of the previous year. Rice and kodon-kutki were sold at higher rates, while price of jowar decreased a little.

With the year 1951 begins an era of economic planning in the Country. In view of War time scarcities and high prices of foodgrains everywhere, agricultural production was given a priority consideration in the First Five Year Plan. As a matter of fact, the Grow More Food Scheme was already working even during

1. Season and Crop Reports of the Central Provinces and Berar.

the years of War. As a result of concerted efforts towards increasing food production and favourable seasonal conditions there was an increase in the out-turn of all important foodgrains in the District over the previous year. Consequently, there was a fall in the whole-sale market prices of wheat and jowar. Price of rice, however, increased inspite of the increase in production, being Rs. 21.44 in the year 1951-52 against Rs. 16.00 per maund in the year 1950-51. Production of jowar in the year 1951-52 was more than double that of in the year 1950-51, the price being Rs. 11.75 per maund in 1951-52 over Rs. 14.56 per maund for the year 1950-51. Increase in the production of wheat in the year 1951-52 over that of 1950-51 was of the order of about 2,000 maunds, but fall in the price per maund was considerable, being Rs. 14.94 per maund in 1951-52 against Rs. 23.31 per maund in the year 1950-51. From the year 1951-52, to the end of the First Five Year Plan period, i.e., 1955-56, lowest prices of all food-grains obtained in the year 1954-55. This was also a year of maximum out-put of wheat and jowar, the two important food-crops, in the District, as compared to all other years of the First Five Year Plan. Production of jowar was 49.4 thousand tons, and that of wheat 38.8 thousand tons in the District in the year 1954. The whole-sale harvest prices were Rs. 6.50 and Rs. 12.94 per maund, respectively. Price of gram was also lowest in this year being Rs. 5 per maund, though the production was not the highest, being only 12.5 thousand tons. Highest production of gram, i.e. 16.5 thousand tons obtained in the year 1951-52 against the whole-sale harvest price of Rs. 11.60 per maund in that year. In the year 1955-56, the last year of the First Plan the whole-sale harvest prices of wheat, jowar, rice and gram were Rs. 15.31, Rs. 6.31, Rs. 10 and Rs. 10.19 per maund, respectively.

In the year 1956-57 except for wheat there was an increase in the out-turn of jowar, rice and gram over the previous year. However, prices of not only wheat but all foodgrains registered a considerable increase over those of the previous year. This rise in prices inspite of the increased out-turn might be attributed to the Government's investment and expenditure policies in the planned development. As a matter of fact, analysis of the price trends in any tract or region, on the basis of supply and demand conditions of commodities and services becomes impossible against the background of planned economic development of the Country as a whole. The fact that production of foodgrains or in other words supply thereof, had no relation to their prices can be seen from the following figures of prices and production from 1956-57 to 1960-61¹ which covers the Second Five Year Plan period in the State and the Country as a whole.—

Farm Harvest Prices				
(Rs. per maund)				
Year	Wheat	Jowar	Rice	Gram
1956—57	18.75	14.25	18.56 (fine)	12.50
1957—58	16.21	10.64	20.81 (,,)	10.21
1958—59	16.68	12.91	18.95 (medium)	16.50
1959—60	14.96	11.87	17.44 (fine)	13.52
1960—61	15.46	10.61	17.64 (,,)	13.69

1. Season and Crop Reports of Madhya Pradesh.

Out-turn of Principal Crops				(in '000 tons)
Year	Wheat	Jowar	Rice	Gram
1956—57	28.6	37.3	10.4	12.3
1957—58	20.0	42.3	8.8	9.8
1958—59	41.6	51.0	11.7	12.0
1959—60	38.6	31.3	11.4	15.5
1960—61	34.9	54.0	13.3	12.3

In all the above five years wheat production was the highest in the year 1958-59 and yet in the very same year the farm harvest price of wheat was also the highest, i.e., Rs. 16.68 per maund, barring first year of the Plan. The production of jowar in the same year, i.e. 1958-59 was 51 thousand tons as compared to 42.3 thousand tons in the previous year, but price of jowar in 1958-59 was Rs. 12.91 per maund as against Rs. 10.64 in the previous year. This shows that higher production of foodgrains, is not necessarily followed by the fall in prices, because prices are determined by several other factors like monetary and fiscal policies and investment and expenditure pattern of the Government. Economic planning in the Country has resulted in stepping-up of investment and expenditure on the part of State Government, and increasing quantum of investment and expenditure in successive five year plans has generated inflationary trends in the economy. The prices of foodgrains and also of other commodities in the District as elsewhere are, therefore, at a higher level. In the year 1961-62 in the first year of the Third Five Year Plan prices of all foodgrains have further increased, though there was increase in the production of all the above foodgrains except jowar. In 1961-62 there was a general increase in the prices of all foodgrains over that of the previous year. The price of wheat increased to 19.27 per maund, jowar was sold at Rs. 11.54, rice at Rs. 19.32 and gram at Rs. 14.17 per maund. In the year 1962-63 the harvest price of wheat was quoted at Rs. 44.14, jowar at Rs. 31.15, rice at Rs. 52.16 and gram at Rs. 33.66 per quintal in the District.

These prices increased further in the year 1963-64. The harvest price of wheat in this year was Rs. 56.61, jowar Rs. 32.94, rice Rs. 56.50 and gram Rs. 49.13 per quintal. In the year 1963-64 there was a fall in the production of wheat, jowar and gram over that of the previous year. There was, however, an increase in production of rice over that of the previous year and yet the price of rice in the year 1963-64 was higher than in the year 1962-63, which makes the fact of rise in prices a general condition irrespective of the trends in production. In the year 1964-65, price of all the above foodgrains increased further, wheat and jowar prices being the same, i.e., Rs. 69 per quintal. Rice was sold at Rs. 144 per quintal and gram at Rs. 50 per quintal.

WAGES

As famine conditions prevailed in the year 1900 the position of wage earning and labouring classes in the District deteriorated, as compared with previous years. In the year 1902, the Deputy Commissioner of the District stated

that "we are not I think, far off from the stage when unskilled labour will be freely available at the lowest wage on which a man can subsist."¹ Though the official wage-rate of a coolie in the year was stated to vary from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 annas a day, it was possible to get as much labour as one required at the rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ annas a day. The monthly wage-rate of the able-bodied agricultural labourer, which was Rs. 5 in the year 1900 had fallen to Rs. 4 per month in the subsequent year and remained as such upto year 1905. In case of skilled workers like Mason, Carpenter and Blacksmith, the monthly wage-rate of Rs. 15 as in the year 1900 continued till 1905. In the year 1906 there was an increase in the monthly wage-rate of unskilled labour, i.e., able-bodied agricultural labourer by Re. 1, but wage-rate of skilled workers remained unchanged at Rs. 15 per month. The reason for the rise in wage-rate of the unskilled labourer might be sought in the general demand and supply conditions of labour in the State as a whole. "The supply of labourers continued scarce for sometime, especially in the Northern districts and the Nagpur country owing to the marked development in industrial enterprises such as manganese mining, railway construction and unusual military works at Jubbulpor & C."² In the following year, i.e. 1907, there was a general rise in wages of unskilled as well as skilled workers. The monthly wage of able-bodied agricultural labourer increased from Rs. 5 to Rs.6. Wages of Mason and Carpenter were quoted at Rs. 20 a month in 1907 as against Rs. 15 per month in the previous year, an increase of Rs. 5 per month in a year. Increase in the wage-rate of Blacksmith was, however, not so marked as in case of Mason and Carpenter, the wage-rate being Rs. 17 per month as compared to Rs. 15 in the previous year. This general rise in wage-level was to be expected because of the adverse season and crop conditions that obtained in the District in the year 1907-8 and visitation of plague in the year 1908 in the District for the first time. The high wage-level obtained also in the year 1909. In the year 1910, there was a fall in the wage-rate of the able-bodied agricultural labourer from Rs. 6 to Rs. 5 per month. Wage-rate of Mason remained at Rs. 20 per month, while there was a fall in the wage-rate of Carpenter by Rs. 5 per month, i.e., Rs. 15 from Rs. 20 per month which obtained in the three previous years 1907, 1908 and 1909. The wage-rate of Blacksmith remained unchanged at Rs. 15 per month. From the year 1911, there was a definite upward swing in the wage levels in the District for skilled as well as unskilled workers. For able-bodied agricultural labourer, wage-rate was quoted at Rs. 5 to Rs.8 per month. Wage-rate for Blacksmith which was stationary at Rs.15 per month for some years reached a level of Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 per month. The wage-rates for Mason and Carpenter were quoted at Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per month. This general increase in wage-rates in the District might be due to the increase in demand for labour on account of the construction of railway line at Betul. In the subsequent two years, viz., 1912 and 1913, the rates of wages as obtained in the year 1911 more or less prevailed. In the year 1913, the year preceding the First World War, the wage-rate of able-bodied agricultural labourer varied from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8 per month, that of Mason from Rs. 15 to Rs. 25 per month, of Carpenter from

Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per month and of Blacksmith from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 per month.

In the year 1914, the first year of the First World War, there was an immediate increase in the wage-rate of Mason. The wage-rate was quoted at Rs. 22 to Rs. 30 per month. This means there was an increase in the minimum as well as the maximum level of wage-rates. The wage-rates of Carpenters and Blacksmiths varied from Rs. 15 to Rs. 25 per month, thus actually bringing down the minimum and maximum wage levels of Blacksmith from those which obtained in the earlier years, viz., 1911 and 1912. In case of Carpenters, however, there was an increase in the maximum level by Rs. 5 as compared to that of the previous years. The wage-rate of able-bodied agricultural labourer was quoted at Rs. 7 to Rs. 8 per month. It is difficult to assign specific reasons for an upswing in the wage-rates of Mason as compared to other skilled workers in the year 1914. The increase might be, however, due to local shortage of this type of skilled labour in the face of demand thereof. War-time increase in the demand for all type of labour everywhere seems to have affected the wage level in the District from 1915 onwards and in a more pronounced manner in case of the wage-rate of unskilled labour. The wage-rate of able-bodied agricultural labourer increased to Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 per month in the year 1915. In the years 1915 and 1916 there was actually a fall in the wage-rate of Mason as compared to the rate that obtained for this type of skilled worker in the year 1914. In case of Carpenter and Blacksmith there were marginal changes in the wage-rates in the years 1915 and 1916. For able-bodied agricultural labourer monthly wage-rate of Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 per month prevailed till the year 1918, i.e., the closing year of the First World War. In case of skilled workers like Masons, Carpenters and Blacksmiths the monthly wage-rates were quoted at Rs. 30 as maximum while minimum level varied from Rs. 22 to Rs. 18, for different types of skilled workers in War years. In the year 1919 the wage-rate of able-bodied agricultural labourer was quoted at Rs. 6 to Rs. 12 per month. This gives an increase in the maximum by Rs. 2 over that of the previous years while there was a fall in the minimum level from Rs. 8 to Rs. 6. The wage-rates of skilled workers like Masons and Carpenters moved from Rs. 22 to Rs. 30 and Rs. 15 to Rs. 30 per month, respectively. This shows that even after the termination of First World War which was supposed to have generated demand for labour resulting in the rise in wage-rates, there was no downward move in the wage-rates. On the contrary, there was actually a rise in the wage-rate offered for unskilled worker. This may be partially explained by the fact that the out-break of influenza in an epidemic form in the year 1918 and the heavy toll of working population taken by this epidemic everywhere and also in the District resulted in the scarcity of labour. Besides, the year 1918 was the year of very bad season and crop conditions in the District as elsewhere and though the year 1919 was favourable, the shortages of foodgrains in the previous years kept the prices of foodgrains at a higher level and consequently the wage-rates also continued to be high. In the year 1919 the wage-rate of the able-bodied agricultural labourer was quoted at Rs. 6 to Rs. 12, Masons' and Carpenters' rates of wages ranged from Rs. 22 to Rs. 30 and Rs. 15 to Rs. 30, respectively.

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 150.

2. Season and Crop Report, C.P. and Berar, 1906-7, p. 8.

In the 'twenties of the Century the wage-rates remained at a higher level, generally. The season and crop conditions in the year 1920 were unfavourable, the prices of the foodgrains were high, but there was no immediate change in the wage-rates as compared to those of the previous year. The wage-rates for unskilled and skilled workers in the year 1920 remained the same as in the year 1919. In the year 1921 there was, however, a general increase in the wage-rates of skilled workers. The minimum as well as maximum rates increased in cases of all the three types of skilled workers, the highest increase being in case of Mason which was Rs. 30 to Rs. 45 per month as compared to Rs. 22 to Rs. 30 per month in the previous year. The wage-rate of Carpenter moved from Rs. 25 to Rs. 30 and that of Blacksmith from Rs. 25 to Rs. 35 per month. The minimum wage-rate in case of able-bodied agricultural labourer was quoted at Rs. 8 while maximum was at Rs. 10 per month. Though the year 1921 was itself not unfavourable from the point of view of crop conditions yet there was a fresh demand for labour due to the extension of railway line from Amla to Nagpur in this year and this might have caused an increase in the rates of wages as stated above. For subsequent years in the decade wage-rate for Mason remained constant at Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per month, for Blacksmith from Rs. 30 to Rs. 35 per month and for Carpenter from Rs. 15 to Rs. 40 per month. The wage-rates for able-bodied agricultural labourer moved between Rs. 7 to Rs. 8 as minimum and Rs. 10 to Rs. 12 as maximum per month from year to year.

The year 1927-28 was the first of a series which led to the depression of 1930. The wage-rate of able-bodied agricultural labourers may be, as a result of setting in of depression, came down to Rs. 7 to Rs. 8 per month though this does not appear to have affected the wage-rates of skilled workers in the year. The general price-level in the depression period was low, the employment opportunities for labour were scarce and, therefore, wage-rates were also low. It was in the year 1935-36 that the wage-rate of agricultural labourer was lowest, i.e., Rs. 4 to Rs. 8 per month while for skilled workers like Masons, Carpenters and Blacksmiths the lowest wage-rate obtained in the year 1937-38, i.e., Rs. 15 per month. For all other years of the 'thirties the wage-rates for skilled workers varied from Rs. 25 to Rs. 30 per month and for unskilled agricultural labourer from Rs. 7 to Rs. 8 per month.

In the year 1938-39, the year preceding the Second World War the wage-rate of able-bodied agricultural labourers was Rs. 8 to Rs. 12 per month and that of Mason was Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per month. Carpenters' and Blacksmiths' wage-rates were Rs. 22 to Rs. 35 and Rs. 30 to Rs. 35 per month, respectively. It is curious that in the year 1940, there was a considerable lowering down of wage-rates for skilled as well as unskilled workers in the District in spite of the fact that prices of foodgrains were higher in this year and general demand for labour was on the increase due to the progress of the Second World War. The wage-rate of agricultural labourer was Rs. 6 per month and Carpenters and Blacksmiths were paid Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 per month, while wage-rate of Mason which was Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per month in the previous year had come down to Rs. 18 to Rs. 20 per month.

It is difficult to explain this peculiar phenomenon in respect of wage-rates in the District in the year 1940 in the absence of any relevant records in this respect. The wage-rates began to increase from the year 1941. In the year 1942-43 for skilled workers the monthly wage-rates ranged from Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 for Mason, Rs. 50 to Rs. 60 for Carpenter and Rs. 40 for Blacksmith. In this year the able-bodied agricultural labourer got Rs. 10 to Rs. 12 per month. In the next year, i.e., 1944 there was a fall in the rates of wages for skilled workers but wage-rate of agricultural labourer increased, being Rs. 18 to Rs. 22 per month.

After the cessation of hostilities in the year 1946, the daily wage-rates of village Blacksmith and village Carpenter were Rs. 2 to Rs. 2-8-0 and the unskilled worker in agriculture got from 10 to 12 annas per day. By the year 1950 there was an increase in the daily rates of wages of unskilled agricultural labourer and the village Blacksmith, the rates being annas 14 to Rs. 1-4-0 and Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 3 per day, respectively. The wage-rate of village Carpenter remained the same, viz, Rs. 2 to Rs. 2-8-0 per day as in the year 1946.

The year 1951, which was the first year of the first Five Year Plan, saw the levelling up of the wage-rate of the Carpenters with that of the Blacksmiths, i.e., the wage-rate of Carpenters also increased to Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 3 per day. There was no change in the rates of wages of Blacksmith and other agricultural labourer.

In the year 1952 the wage-rate of other agricultural labourer had fallen to annas 12 to Re. 1 per day and remained at that level in the year 1953. There was no change in respect of wages of the village Blacksmiths and Carpenters, the rates remaining at Rs. 2-8-0 to Rs. 3 per day. By 1955 the last year of the First Five Year Plan there was a fall in the wage-rates of village artisans like Blacksmiths and Carpenters as well as other agricultural labourer, the wage-rates being Rs. 1-9-0, Rs. 1-4-0 and annas 12 per day, respectively. This downward trend might be traced to the greater production, throughout the First Plan period, of important foodgrains like wheat and jowar in the District in the year 1954-55. The prices of foodgrains were also at a lower level.

In the first year of the Second Five Year Plan, there was a rise in the wage-level of artisans as well as unskilled agricultural labourer. The wage-rates of Carpenters and Blacksmiths were Rs. 2 per day, while those of agricultural labourer annas 14 per day. In the subsequent years of the Second Five Year Plan there was a general rise in wage-rates of skilled as well as unskilled workers. This may be attributed to the general increase in the price level of foodgrains and other commodities which in their turn were the result of increasing investment and expenditure under the Plan schemes. In the year 1957, the wage-rate of Carpenters was Rs. 2.50 which had declined to Rs. 2 per day in the year 1958. There was a slight fall in the wage-rates of Blacksmith in the year 1957 as compared to those of the year 1956, the rate being Rs. 1.75 in the year 1957 as compared to Rs. 2 per day in 1956. The year 1958 was one in which there was a lowering down of wage-rates of Carpenters and Blacksmiths as compared to those of the year 1957.

But immediately in the next year, i.e., 1959, the wage-rates increased as if admonished for a stoop, and soared further in the year 1960. The wage-rates for Carpenter in 1960 were found to be Rs. 3.50 per day, and of Blacksmith Rs. 3 per day. The other agricultural labourer got Re. 1 per day generally. In the year 1961 the wage-rate for artisans like Carpenters and Blacksmiths had fallen to Rs. 3 and Rs. 2.50, respectively. These wage-rates for skilled and unskilled workers indicate that the swing is within narrow limits of 50 paise more or less year to year but from the year 1946 these slight jerks have gradually pushed the minimum and maximum wage-limits from Rs. 2 to Rs. 2-8-0 in 1946 to Rs. 3 to Rs. 3.50 by 1961, i.e., the first year of the Third Five Year Plan.

In the year 1962, there was a slight increase by 25 paise in the rate of wages of Carpenter from Rs. 3 of the previous year to Rs. 3.25. The wage-rate for Blacksmith remained the same as that of the previous year. There was a slight rise in the wages of other agricultural labour from Re. 1 of the previous year to Rs. 1.12 in 1962. In the year 1963, while there was fall in the wage-rate of Carpenter from Rs. 3.25 of the previous year to Rs. 3, wage-rate of Blacksmith increased from Rs. 2.50 in 1962 to Rs. 2.75, the wage rate of other agricultural labourer further increasing from Rs. 1.12 in 1962 to Rs. 1.50 in 1963. In the year 1964, there was a big leap forward in the rates of wages of the skilled as well as unskilled labour. The Carpenter's wage was Rs. 4.50, that of Blacksmith Rs. 3.50 and of other agricultural labourer Rs. 1.75 per day. In the year 1965 the wage-rate of other agricultural labourer remained Rs. 1.75 per day, but that of Carpenter and Blacksmith recorded a further increase by 0.50 paise in each, being Rs. 5 for Carpenter and Rs. 4 for Blacksmith. Demand for all types of labour generated by different development programmes in the District, as well as the ever rising cost of living might be the reasons for this steep rise in wage-rates.

Standard of Living

This topic, though most important from the point of view of assessing the economic conditions of different classes of people in the society, is the least enquired into. This is so, perhaps because the topic in itself is complex, requiring not only the assessment of economic but also social conditions. Needless, therefore, to say that there never was any survey conducted in the District to assess the standard of living of the people. There was not even a simple enquiry in either industrial, agricultural or other workers' family-budgets.

In the Agricultural Labour inquiry conducted by the Government of India, Ministry of Labour, during the year 1950-51, the then State of Madhya Pradesh was divided into three zones viz., cotton-jowar zone, wheat zone and rice zone. Betul District happened to be in the wheat zone. If the findings regarding agricultural labour conditions for the zone as a whole are taken *mutatis mutandis* to be those for the District, then some idea of the economic conditions of agricultural labourers in the year of enquiry can be formed.

Size of the family of agricultural labourers in the zone¹ was 4.2, lower than that of other two zones, viz., cotton-jowar and rice. The strength of earners was also lowest being 2.4. Out of these, the number of wage-earners happened to be 2.2.

The average number of days worked by casual workers in agricultural labour in the zone was 183 by men and 97 days by women. The non-agricultural labour provided employment for 50 days to casual male workers and 37 days to female workers. The number of days of unemployment for adult male worker on an average in the zone was 62, being the highest as compared to other two zones. The wage-rates of both male and female workers in agriculture were slightly higher than for non-agricultural labour. This was stated to be an inducement wage to agricultural workers to work in agriculture rather than in non-agricultural labour like bidi-making. It may, however, be remembered in this context that Betul District neither had nor has a bidi-making industry of such significance as to divert agricultural labour to bidi-making.

"Income of both casual and attached workers' families was the highest in Wheat zone; this zone provided more employment on wages which were on an average, comparatively high."² Thus, average annual income was Rs. 497 for the earning strength of 2.4 in a family. As against this consumption expenditure per family was Rs. 523, and Rs. 4 on ceremonies. While income per capita was Rs. 118.4, per capita expenditure on consumption was Rs. 124.5. Expenditure on food happened to be the highest in percentage terms in this zone, being 91.8, but annual expenditure for a family on milk and milk products was only Rs. 1.6. Annual expenditure on sugar and gur (jaggery) was only Rs. 6.4, on vegetables Rs. 2.2, and on meat and fish Rs. 1.7. This standard of consumption of the only items of some nutritive value on food is indicative only of the extent of poverty rather than richness or any standard of the diet.

The very fact that the value of such bare minimum expenditure on consumption exceeded income, leaves no room for the consideration of the subject of standard of living.

It is a fact that in the year 1965 the rates of wages of the common agricultural labourer had increased to Rs. 1.75 from the low level of 1950-51, but in the face of rise in the cost of living and of foodgrains the increase in the wage-rate is nothing.

While some of the facts and figures from the Labour Enquiry as above point only to the poverty of the agricultural labourer, others also remorselessly emphasize the negation of any standard, the condition of workers in industrial and tertiary sectors being in no way better. There are no large-scale industries in the District. All the industries are either agriculture or forest produce based

1. The word zone wherever occurring may be taken to mean wheat zone, unless otherwise specified.
2. Agricultural Labour Enquiry, Government of India, Ministry of Labour, 1950-51, Vol. VI, p. 24.

industries. Most of the factory establishments work seasonally and process agricultural and forest produce. Government have, no doubt, introduced protective legislation like Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Act of 1962 under which minimum wages to the workers in Scheduled Industries are guaranteed. But persistent increase in the cost of living is eating into the wage increases and salary incomes of industrial as well as other workers. Price-spiralling of the commodities of essential consumption everywhere in the country, and no less in the District, has banished all thoughts of standard of living, leaving people to think in terms of living alone.

GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT

In the section dealing with pattern of livelihood in the District, it was found that of the total population of "workers" as per 1961 Census, cultivators and agricultural labourers formed 83.77 per cent. This means the "workers" in all other activities were 16.23 per cent. Household and manufacturing other than household, mining and quarrying, etc., engaged 8.03 per cent of the total "workers". These percentages bring out the fact that opportunities of employment in general are meagre, there being no scope for the shifting of population of "workers" from agriculture to other sectors of the economy.

There are no large-scale industries. Small-scale industries such as they are, are based on agricultural and forest products. These work mostly on seasonal basis. The workers in industries like handloom-weaving, engineering, tailoring, oil-pressing, earthen pots making, basket weaving, etc., are mostly self-employed. On the basis of Employment Market Information data, for 80 public sector establishments covered under the Scheme by the end of 1965, there were 10,009 employees in the District. Out of these the highest number, viz., 6,380 was under the services division. Employment in the private sector from which 44 establishments were covered by the end of 1965, under the Scheme was 5,210 persons.

On the basis of these figures the Employment Officer observed that, "The employment opportunities to the unemployed of this district registered with this Exchange for employment assistance, therefore, are confined only to the vacancies arising in the establishments under the public sector." Sixty percent of the applicants seeking employment assistance through the Employment Exchange belonged to the unskilled category. The monthly average registrations of the applicants at the Exchange seeking jobs, was 350, whereas average monthly placement figure was 60 against the available vacancies notified by the different establishments in the public sector. This shows the vast gap between the supply and demand position in the employment market of the District.

Every year there is reported to be bulk recruitment of skilled and unskilled workers against the seasonal temporary vacancies of field workers and surveillance workers in the department for the control of malaria. A large number of unemployed persons are reported to be placed in these vacancies. Similarly, in the

occupation of teachers, in primary and middle schools, a substantial number is also recruited through the Exchange. The establishments of Garrison Engineer, M.E.S., Amla, are also offering good employment opportunities to the unskilled persons.

Some of the schemes that are being worked under the Third Five Year Plan in the District were—installation of Thermal Power Station by the side of Tawa river near village Sarni and coal-mining near village Pathakheda. These schemes are progressing rapidly. The Hindusthan Construction Co., in the private sector, are busy with the construction of buildings, roads, etc. In connection with doubling of railway track between the Maramjhiri, Dharakhoh, construction of tunnels is also progressing. The employment of skilled and unskilled workers generated under these works in the District from the year 1963 to the end of 1965 was,—

National Coal Development Corporation

Year	Employment
1963	130
1964	444
1965	500

Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board

1963	52
1964	269
1965	355

Hindusthan Construction Company

1963	46
1964	109
1965	96

Doubling of Railway Track

1963	537
1964	561
1965	800

Employment Exchange

The Employment Exchange Office at Betul was started on the 28th March, 1960 during the Second Five Year Plan. The jurisdiction of this Exchange extends to the Revenue District comprising its three Tahsils, viz., Betul, Mutai and Bhainsdesahi.

Consequent upon the enforcement of the Employment Exchanges (Compulsory Notification of Vacancies) Act, 1959 in the public sector with effect from the 1st May, 1960 and in the private sector from the 1st August, 1960, all establishments in public sector—Central and State Government, Quasi-Government, Local Bodies and Statutory organizations and those establishments in the private sector where ordinarily 25 or more persons are employed, are required to draw all their manpower requirements on a compulsory basis through the Exchange by placing their demands with it.

The Employment Market Information Scheme at this Exchange was introduced from the quarter ending December, 1960. Later from the quarter ending December, 1961 the District was selected for intensive study both in the public and private sectors for Employment Market Information Scheme. Under this Scheme employment market data are collected regularly and trends are analysed. Such a study on a continuing basis is of use in ascertaining the impact of development schemes on employment position.

During the Third Five Year Plan an Employment Information and Assistance Bureau was started at Shahpur in the District. Through this Bureau information regarding employment market conditions in urban and rural areas is supplied to the rural population.

An idea of the working of the Employment Exchange at Betul can be had from the following figures regarding registrations, placings and the number on Live Register from 1960 to 1968.—

Year	Registrations	Placings	On Live Register
1960	4,130	448	1,656
1961	4,259	652	1,466
1962	5,266	810	1,925
1963	4,280	672	1,732
1964	4,089	959	1,831
1965	3,907	626	2,147
1966	3,997	638	2,573
1967	4,592	482	3,120
1968	4,602	404	2,708

NATIONAL PLANNING AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT¹

In the larger perspective of the economic development of the Country, in which about 70 per cent of the population inhabits the rural areas, Community Development Programme has its own importance as a means of a co-operative development of rural life as a whole.

During the First Five Year Plan period, two Community Development Blocks were started on the 2nd October, 1953, one at Betul proper and the other at Prabhat Pattan in Multai Tahsil of the District. Betul Block had 174 villages with 61,401 population and 301 sq. miles (779.58 sq. km.) of area. Prabhat Pattan Block had 129 villages with 54,878 population and an area of 373 sq. miles (966.06 sq. km.).

Five additional Blocks were started during the Second Five Year Plan, thus making a total of seven Community Development Blocks in the District. Out of

1. Particulars regarding dates and years of opening of the Blocks, number of villages in the Blocks, area and population figures are given from the publication "Particulars relating to Development Blocks in Madhya Pradesh (As on 1st April, 1963), of Administrative Intelligence Unit, office of the Development Commissioner, Madhya Pradesh.

the five additional Blocks two were started on the 2nd October, 1956 one at Shahpur in Betul Tahsil and another at Bhimpur in Bhainsdesi Tahsil. The Block at Bhimpur was established as a special Multipurpose Tribal Block. The Shahpur Block had 201 villages with 50,846 population and area of 313 sq. miles (810.67 sq. km.). Bhimpur Block had 157 villages with 33,847 population and an area of 363 sq. miles (940.17 sq. km.). Another Block at Chicholi in Betul Tahsil was started on the 2nd October, 1957. This Block had 160 villages with 45,383 population and an area of 303 sq. miles (784.77 sq. km.). The Block at Multai was established on the 1st April, 1959, which had 139 villages with a population of 68,304 persons and an area of 318 sq. miles (823.60 sq. km.). Another Block in Multai Tahsil was established at Amla on the 1st October, 1960 having 161 villages, and 56,102 population and an area of 262 sq. miles (678.58 sq. km.).

Two more Blocks were added during the Third Five Year Plan period. Both these Blocks were established in Bhainsdehi Tahsil. The one at Bhainsdehi proper was established on the 1st October, 1961, having 139 villages with 49,833 population and an area of 295 sq. miles (764.05 sq. km.). Another Block was established at Athnair on 2nd October, 1962. This Block had 111 villages with 43,367 population and an area of 271 sq. miles (701.89 sq. km.). One more Block at Ghodadongri was started on the 1st April, 1964. This Block has an area of 1282.56 sq. km., 132 villages having 38,178 population.

Thus, by the Third Five Year Plan period, practically all the villages in the District were brought under the Community Development Programme Organization. Activities under the Community Development Programme broadly fall under two heads, viz., economic and social welfare of the village community.

Agriculture

To promote economic well-being of the village community, emphasis is laid on the improvement of agriculture. For this purpose, improved seeds, chemical fertilizers, and improved agricultural implements are made available to the agriculturists.

During the Second Five Year Plan period, in all the seven Development Blocks then existing a total of 35,267 maunds (13,163.13 quintals) of improved seeds and 33,369 maunds (12,454.71 quintals) of chemical fertilizers were distributed. During the Third Five Year Plan period from 1961-62 to 1963-64, the quantity of improved seeds distributed was 14,507 maunds (5,414.62 quintals) while the quantity of seeds other than cereals distributed was 31,906 maunds (11,908.66 quintals). Distribution of chemical fertilizers was of the magnitude of 58,160 maunds (21,707.75 quintals) and the quantity of other fertilizers distributed was 4,733 maunds (2,774.31 quintals). In the year 1964-65, the improved seeds distribution of cereals was 2,126, the seeds other than cereals was 15,933 quintals, chemical fertilizers 12,166 quintals and other fertilizers was 1,332 quintals. Besides the distribution of improved seeds and fertilizers, agricultural

demonstrations are also given to farmers in order to educate them in the better methods of farming.

Provision of small-scale irrigation facilities also constitutes an important part of the Community Development Programme in the sphere of agricultural development. The emphasis, however, is always on the provision of well-irrigation facilities. As such, during the Second Five Year Plan period a total of 199 new wells were constructed in the seven Blocks in the District and 124 old wells were repaired. There was no activity in the construction or repairing of tanks.

During the Third Five Year Plan period upto the year 1964-65, about 1,927 new irrigation wells were constructed in all the nine Blocks in the District. The number of old wells repaired and renovated was 1,147 during the same period. Irrigation tanks were not constructed during this period also.

Another aspect of the agricultural development activities in the Block areas is reclamation of land. In this connection Second Five Year Plan period achievement was 4,444 acres (1,798.42 hectares).

During the Third Five Year Plan from 1961-62 to 1963-64 the area reclaimed was 11,953 acres (4,837.21 hectares) and in 1964-65 reclaimed area was 1,212 hectares.

Figures as available for the net additional area likely to be irrigated was 84,539 acres (34,211.75 hectares) from 1961-62 to 1963-64. In the year 1964-65 the area was 1,906 hectares.

Besides these activities in the sphere of agriculture, provision of compost-pits, bunding of fields, construction of field channel, etc., are also carried on in the Block areas.

Public Health

In the matter of public health, emphasis is rightly placed on provision of drinking water facilities by constructing new wells and renovating the old ones. During the Second Five Year Plan period 301 new drinking water wells were constructed in all the seven Block areas then working. The number of old drinking water wells repaired was 184. Four Primary Health Centres were set up during the plan period. Construction of rural latrines, drains and digging of soakage-pits was also undertaken during the plan period.

During the Third Five Year Plan period the public health activities in the Block areas appear to have been stepped up. In the years 1961-62 and 1962-63 the number of drinking water wells constructed was 110 and the number of renovated drinking water wells was 59. Besides this 11 Primary Health Centres, 31 rural dispensaries and 22 Maternity and Child Welfare Centres were functioning in the Block areas of the District. In the year 1963-64, the number of drinking

water wells constructed and renovated was 127. The number of Primary Health Centres and rural dispensaries functioning was 6 and 14 respectively. In the year, there were 8 Maternity and Child Welfare Centres functioning in the Block areas. In the year 1964-65, 244 new drinking water wells were constructed and 136 wells were renovated. Three Primary Health Centres and Sub-Centres were started. There were four Maternity Child Welfare Centres and nine rural dispensaries functioning in the Block areas.

Education

In the sphere of education in the Block areas stress is laid on adult literacy. During Second Five Year Plan period a total of 186 literacy centres were started in the Block areas, and a total of 1,210 adults were made literate. During the first two years of the Third Five Year Plan, 1961-62 and 1962-63, a total of 71 adult literacy centres were started in the Block areas, and 558 adults were made literate. In the year 1963-64 there were 30 adult literacy centres in the Block areas, and 539 adults were made literate. The number of adult literacy centres in 1964-65 was 54 and the number of adults made literate was 483.

In addition to the adult literacy the number of ordinary and basic type schools functioning in different Blocks in the years 1961-62 and 1962-63 was 414 and 486, respectively. Enrolment in these schools for these two years was 29,765 and 32,875, respectively. Number of such schools functioning in the year 1963-64 was 559 with an enrolment of 45,921 students. In the following year 1964-65 the number of schools increased to 599, so also the enrolment, being 51,139 students.

Reading-rooms and libraries are also provided in the Block areas. During the Second Five Year Plan period 155 libraries and reading-rooms were started in the then existing Blocks. From 1961-62 to 1964-65 the number of reading-rooms and libraries started was 106.

Co-operative Societies

In the Community Development Programme, co-operatives are playing a vital role towards economic uplift of the rural population. Besides the usual co-operative credit societies, a number of old-time cottage industries are being organized on a co-operative basis to give them a face-lift. During the Second Five Year Plan period, therefore, 233 co-operative societies of all type were started in different Blocks. During the Third Five Year Plan period from 1961-62 to 1963-64 it is recorded that 114 societies were started. In the year 1964-65 a total of 371 co-operatives were functioning in all the Development Blocks in the District.

Communication

Block Development activities in this respect were confined to the construction of *kutch*a and *pucka* roads and culverts. The mileage of such roads constructed

was 93 (149.67 km.) during whole of the Second Plan period. The number of culverts constructed was 10. In the first two years of the Third Plan, viz., 1961-62 and 1962-63 there was no activity in road construction. In the following year, i.e., 1963-64, 28 miles (45.06 km.) of *kutchha* and *pukka* roads were constructed. In 1964-65, 11 km. of *pukka* roads were constructed.

Social Welfare

A large number of activities like setting up of recreation centres, organization of youth camps, farmers' unions, *mahila samities*, mandals, etc., were undertaken in the Block areas in this sphere.

Government expenditure and peoples' contribution towards all the different Block Development activities was.—

Year	(Rs. in lakhs)	
	Government expenditure	Peoples' contribution
1951-56	5.95	0.71
1956-61	43.26	5.89
1961-65	44.41	5.57

All the above and many other activities besides, under the Community Development Programme in the sphere of economic betterment and social welfare cannot but have their beneficial effects on the life of the people. An element of peoples' participation on a voluntary basis in these activities is significant in so far as it enthruses people to act for the betterment of a community as a whole.

Latest information on the subject is to be found in the Appendix.

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

Before considering the position of the District Collector in the present day context, it will not be out of place to give a brief resume of the evolution of District Administration of India. The concept of district as a unit was derived from the pattern of the French Prefecture, with the District Officer as the Prefect. When the East India Company was made the governing agency of the British Government in London, it took over the administration and gave up trading altogether. And the Company's Chief Representative in the district became the Collector of land revenue. Simultaneously, this official became responsible for the maintenance of law and order too. The next phase in the evolution was the district coming directly under the control of the Imperial power. At this stage the Collector levied and collected land revenue and other taxes and, as a District Magistrate, maintained law and order and in doing so he functioned also as a judicial officer. To assist him there was a Police Officer. Later, when the necessity of rendering medical aid to the people was felt, the Civil Surgeon came into the picture.

Thus gradually the District Administration grew into a complex apparatus operated by a team of officers—the Collector and Magistrate, the Superintendent of Police, the Civil Surgeon, the District Judge, the Engineer (S.D.O.) for public works, the District Educational Officer, etc. But the District Collector continued to exercise overall control over the entire district administration.

With the introduction of the Local Self-Government institutions, the Collector had to assume a new responsibility of co-ordination. After Independence the Collector has been vested with more powers. To be brief, now he is responsible for the maintenance of law and order, revenue administration, social development activities, and the economic and social advancement in the district. Rightly has it been said that the District Collector is the pivot of the district administration.¹

COLLECTORATE

The Collector of Betul has six Deputy Collectors to assist him. An Assistant Collector and four Probationary Deputy Collectors are also at present posted in the District for training. Two of the Deputy Collectors are in charge of the two

¹ T. S. S. Khara, District Administration in India PP. 246-247.

sub-divisions of Multai and Bhainsdehi, while the remaining assist the Collector in the work relating to development, treasury, food and civil supplies, election and census, land records, etc. One of the Probationary Deputy Collectors has been placed in charge of Betul Sub-Division. The narrative on the organisational set-up of the Collectorate may be divided into three main groups, viz., (i) land revenue, land records and other allied matters, (ii) law and order and (iii) development.

Land Revenue and Land Records

For the administration of the first group of subjects, Betul District is divided into three tahsils, each tahsil constituting a sub-division. Each sub-division is in charge of a sub-Divisional Officer of the rank of a Deputy Collector, who is also the Sub-Divisional Magistrate. Each Sub-Divisional Officer is in charge of the Janapada Sabha of the place and is styled Chief Executive Officer while discharging duties pertaining thereto. There is a Tahsildar in each tahsil, who is assisted by Naib Tahsildars their number in Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi tahsils being two, three and two, respectively. In addition to the above seven Naib Tahsildars, two more are posted at Betul, one as a leave reserve and the other as training reserve. At the village level, the revenue and land records work is carried on by the Patwari whose office was in the past hereditary. There are in all 262 Patwaris working in the district. Of these three are posted at the three tahsil headquarters, while the remaining are in charge of the 259 Patwari circles of the district. Supervising their work are 12 Revenue Inspectors, and the following Table gives details of the distribution of work.

Tahsil	No. of R. I. Circles	No. of Patwari Circles
Betul	4	94
Multai	4	99
Bhainsdehi	4	66

It is interesting to note in this context that in pursuance of the policy of the Government, 29 Gram Panchayats of Betul District have been entrusted with the work of land revenue collection.

At the district level, a Superintendent of Land Records, assisted by two Assistant Superintendents, supervises the work of Revenue Inspectors and Patwaris.

Law and Order

In the maintenance of law and order the Collector as District Magistrate is assisted by the magistracy and the police. The Police force of the District is headed by a Superintendent of Police. The revenue officers of the District, including Naib Tahsildars, enjoy such magisterial powers under the Criminal Procedure Code, as are necessary for effective maintenance of law and order, and prevention and suppression of crime. Under this arrangement, the Collector functions as the District Magistrate while the Deputy Collectors, Tahsildars and

Naib Tahsildars are styled as Executive Magistrates. The Executive Magistrates deal with problem with regard to prevention of crime, and restoration of peace and order. The actual trial of cases is done by Judicial Magistrates.

Development

As has been mentioned earlier the collector is assisted by a Deputy Collector in the work relating to the development section of the collectorate. There are ten development blocks in the District. Each Block¹ is provided with a team of Extension Officers drawn from various departments including Agriculture, Veterinary, Industries, Public Health, and Social Education. Further down there are village level workers both men and women known as Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas. Each Block is provided with at least two Gram Sevikas, while a Gram Sevak is provided for every ten to twenty villages.

In order to ensure effective participation of people in planning and execution of development programmes, a Block Advisory Committee is constituted at each Block the pattern of which is uniform throughout the State. Headed by the District Collector, the Committee consists of local members of the Parliament and State Assembly, Chairman of the Janapada Sabhas, members of Gram Panchayats, etc. The Committee advises the formulation of Working Plans and Development Programmes of the Block, reviews the progress made, and promotes people's participation and co-operation, especially in such programmes as are oriented towards increased agricultural production.

The Collector is also associated with a number of other Committees in the District. Important among them is the District Advisory Committee, constituted in 1958, in pursuance of the policy of the Government. The Collector is the Chairman of the Committee which consists of several non-officials such as local M.L.As., M.Ps., Chairman of Janapada Sabhas, etc., as members. The functions of this committee are advisory in nature. Problems purely of local importance are discussed by this Committee.

Statutory Powers of Collector

The Collector is also vested with statutory powers under Excise Act, so as to enable him to implement the excise and prohibition policy of the Government. For this purpose, the District is divided into six circles—each headed by an Excise Sub-Inspector. Supervising their work is the District Excise Officer, and an Inspector of Excise. Besides these, there are five more Sub-Inspectors in the department, three of whom are working as Ware Housing Officers at Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi. Of the other two, one is a leave reserve, and the second is a Prosecuting Excise Sub-Inspector.

The control of the District Treasury and Sub-Treasuries is vested in the Collector. A Deputy Collector functions as a Treasury Officer of the District

1. Prior to 1st January 1966, each Block was headed by a Block Development Officer, but the post has since been abolished.

Treasury at Betul, while the two Sub Treasuries at Multai and Bhainsdehi are incharge of the respective Tahsildars.

The Collector is also charged with authority under Registration Act, and in this work too he is assisted by the Treasury Officer, who functions as *ex-officio* District Registrar. In addition, there are three sub-registration offices, located at Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi. A sub-Registrar each is posted at Betul and Multai, while the Tahsildar at Bhainsdehi functions as *ex-officio* Sub-Registra.

The Collector is also assigned work relating to many other miscellaneous subjects, such as Elections, Food and Civil Supplies, Agriculture, Welfare of the Scheduled Tribes, Castes and Other Backward Classes, etc. In the work relating to agriculture he is assisted by the Deputy Director of Agriculture, while one or the other of Deputy Collectors assists him in other functions.

The Collector also controls the mining work done in the District. One of the Deputy Collectors, functioning as Mining Officer, assists him in this behalf; while the actual inspecting work is carried out by a Mining Inspector of the Department of Geology and Mining. Among the duties of a Mining Inspector are assessment of revenue, checking of illegal mines and collection of samples.

The Collector works as an agent of the State Government in the District and is the chief co-ordinating authority at the district level. In order to strengthen his position as the chief administrator of the district, the State Government during the year 1965, conferred upon him various powers. The Collector has been authorised to issue instructions to any district officer almost of mandatory nature. But in the event of the district officer concerned feeling that the instructions issued are either wrong or impracticable, he could refer the matter to the Commissioner of the Division, the Commissioner having been authorised to take the final decision in consultation with Head of the Department concerned. Besides the supervisory powers, the Collector has also been empowered to inspect the district offices.

Further, every important scheme to be implemented in the District has to be brought to the notice of the Collector, so that he could keep an eye on their work being done.

Other District Level Offices

The following list of other district level officers, who are administratively under the control of their own heads of departments, gives an idea of the different departments functioning in the district.—

1. Additional District Sessions Judge, Betul.
2. Superintendent of Police, Betul.
3. Civil Surgeon, Betul.
4. Divisional Forest Officer, North Dvn., Betul.
5. Divisional Forest Officer, South Dvn., Betul.

6. Executive Engineer, P.W.D. (B & R), Betul.
7. Executive Engineer, Irrigation, Betul.
8. Dy. Director of Agriculture, Betul.
9. Dy. Director of Horticulture, Betul.
10. District Rehabilitation Officer, Betul.
11. District Treasury Officer, Betul.
12. Superintendent, District Jail, Betul.
13. Superintendent, Land Records, Betul.
14. District Educational Officer, Betul.
15. District Statistical Officer, Betul.
16. District Publicity Officer, Betul.
17. District Panchayats & Welfare Officer, Betul.
18. District Organizer, Tribal Welfare, Betul.
19. District Live-Stock Officer, Betul.
20. District Excise Officer, Betul.
21. Employment Officer, Employment Exchange, Betul.
22. Asstt. Sales Tax Officer, Betul.
23. Asstt. Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Betul.
24. Malaria Medical Officer, Betul.
25. Company Commandant, Home Guards, Betul.
26. Inspector, Weights and Measures, Betul.
27. Mining Inspector, Betul.
28. Inspector of Industries, Betul.
29. Asstt. Fishery Officer, Betul.

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT OFFICES

The following are some of the offices of the Government of India located at Betul. The organisational set-up of these, is briefly as follows:

Office of the Inspector of Central Excise

The entire district of Betul constituting one Excise Range, is headed by an Inspector of Central Excise stationed at Betul. He is assisted by a Sub-Inspector working at Betul. The Betul Range falling within the jurisdiction of the Assistant Collector, Integrated Division, Nagpur, is responsible for collection of revenue from central excise items.

Railways

The Assistant Engineer (Railways) stationed at Betul is responsible for the maintenance of the Railway track and buildings, within his jurisdiction. The office of the Executive Engineer (Doubling) is also located here since 19th July, 1963. The Executive Engineer and the four Assistant Engineers, who assist him, are responsible for the construction of a new main-line between Chhoradongri and

Maramjhiri. This office works under the control of the Chief Engineer (Construction), Central Railway, Bombay.

Telephones

Three telephone exchanges are installed in the District—one each at Betul, Amla and Multai. The Engineering Supervisor, Itarsi, is responsible for their maintenance. He is assisted by the Phone Inspector at Betul, the Sub-Post Master at Amla and the Lineman at Multai.

Office of the Inspector of Post-Offices

The Inspector of Post-Offices, with his headquarters at Betul, is in charge of the Betul Sub-Division which was formed on January 3, 1957. Mostly he inspects the sub-post-offices and branch post-offices in the Sub-Division once a year, and attends to the complaints from the public. This sub-division is controlled by the Superintendent of Post-Offices, Chhindwara.

Small Savings

The people of Betul District are engaged in varied occupations. Many of them are agriculturists, some are engaged in forest business, and a significant section of the population at Amla are employed in the Railway, army and air force establishments there. Besides, the whole of Bhainsdehi and a part of Betul tahsil is occupied by those belonging to Scheduled Castes and Tribes. Thus the scope for small savings in the District is quite promising.

The District Organiser, Small Savings, Betul, administers the Small Savings Scheme launched by the Government of India in the District. He is mainly responsible for propagating the schemes, and for inculcating the habit of saving among the people. The scheme includes selling of various Certificates such as Ten Year National Savings Certificates, Twelve Year National Defence Certificates, Ten Year Defence Deposit Certificates and Fifteen Year Annuity Certificates of various denominations carrying different rates of interest. The official also publicises the need for people to open Post-Office Savings Bank accounts, and Cumulative Time Deposit accounts, besides purchasing Savings stamps and Gift Coupons. In order that all people, especially those at the village level, might take advantage of the scheme, agents are appointed for collection of savings.

The District Organiser, Betul, is under the administrative control of the Assistant Regional Director, National Savings, Bhopal.

Income Tax

Betul District falls within the jurisdiction of the Additional Income Tax Commissioner, Khandwa. Assisted by one Income Tax Inspector, he tours the District for execution of income tax work, as there is no separate office of the department situated here. Appeals on the orders of the Income Tax Officer, are heard by the Appellate Assistant Commissioner, Indore.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

The revenue system which the British Government found in operation in the tracts acquired from the Marathas was one, under which villages were farmed out to the highest bidder. As a matter of fact under the Maratha regime, each village had its Patel or headman, who had to collect the rents from the tenants and pay them into the Government treasury. The amount of these collections had been previously fixed by the District Revenue Officer by an *ijmaili* or estimate based on the collections for the past year and the changes calculated for the current year. The Patel was supposed to receive one-eighth of the gross collections as his own share, but as the collections were precarious owing to the uncertainties of seasons and other causes, and as all deficiencies had to be made good by him, the Patel seldom reaped the full *inam* or profit for which he was entitled. He, in fact, was often involved in loss. In later years, therefore, partly with the consent of Government and partly with the connivance of the local authorities, the Patels began to appropriate to themselves a field free of rent which then became the most valuable appanage of their office and represented the *sir* land held by the proprietor. In addition to his fiscal duties the Patel enjoyed certain powers in criminal matters and was in a way more or less the arbiter of the village destinies at a time, when law was weak and might was right as far as the poor man was concerned. Ramsay, the author of the 30 Years' Settlement Report, has remarked, "It has been said that the office of patel was not hereditary, but in point of fact it did descend from father to son so long as the duties of the office were duly performed and the revenue demanded was regularly paid. But during the system of over-exaction, which commenced after the peace of Deogaon, the majority of the "Watandar Patels" as they prided themselves on being termed had to make way for a race of speculating farmers who agreed to any conditions the revenue authorities might make in the hopes of securing a footing in the village for better times to come."¹

So far as can be gathered from past records, the total assessment of the District previous to the peace of Deogaon in 1803 was about Rs. 1.65 lakhs.² At

1. Quoted in Betul District Gazetteer, pp. 197-198.

2. According to *Ain*, the revenue of 12 parganas included in the *sarkar* of Kheria, mainly situated in Multai and open parts of Betul tahsils was more than 17½ million *dams*, equivalent to nearly 4½ lakhs of rupees.

that time, Betul was represented as having been in a tolerably flourishing condition, the people well-off and the revenue realised without difficulty. But after the dismemberment of the Maratha empire, the Government of Nagpur commenced an indiscriminate system of rack-renting and extortion throughout the dominion. Despite the unsettled conditions, however, we find the average assessment of the 13 years following the year 1803 to have reached the sum of Rs. 2.47 lakhs, i. e., an increase of not less than Rs. 80,000; in spite of the effects of mis-government and oppression on the part of the administration. The District during the period was subjected to the unceasing raids by the Pindaris, Gonds and other wanderers who sacked the whole of the villages. The revenue had to be levied frequently by actual force.

First British Settlement, 1818

When Betul District first came under British administration, the Britishers thought that the introduction of a settled Government should lead to a speedy influx of capital and labour and an increase in the value of land. Their idea was that the territories handed over to British rulers should pay regularly an assessment equal to the highest nominal demand in the worst period of Maratha rack-renting, particularly when a number of miscellaneous imposts known as *pattis* and *bargans* were abolished. In such conditions the first British Settlement was made for a term of five years in 1818 and a demand was fixed at Rs. 2.78 lakhs which was 16 per cent more than the average demand in the Nagpur kingdom. In actual fact the District was too far removed from important markets to permit of any influx of external capital, while the restoration of tranquillity had the effect of producing an enormous decline in the prices of agricultural produce. Wheat, which had been 32 seers to the rupee between 1803 and 1816 declined to 43 seers to the rupee between 1821 and 1824, 64 seers in 1825 and 96 seers in 1826. Therefore, people were unable to pay the enhanced land revenue and remissions had to be granted. The average annual collections during the period did not amount to more than Rs. 2.56 lakhs.

Second Settlement, 1823

The next assessment was made in 1823 for three years by Captain Low. The revenue was reduced to Rs. 2.03 lakhs or by nearly a lakh of rupees on the nominal amount of the previous Settlement. But even so, considerable remissions had to be granted mainly owing to the poor crops of 1824-25.

Third Settlement, 1826

In the year 1826, another quinquennial settlement was made by Captain Low in which the demand was further slightly reduced to Rs. 2 lakhs. The average collections for the period were Rs. 1.85 lakhs. The Settlement was carried with large annual remissions. All the reports of that period speak of the general poverty both of Patels and cultivators. The stability of this quinquennial Settlement was sorely put to the test by three successive seasons of failures of crops terminating in 1830, the last year of the Settlement. So bad

was the condition that not less than Rs. 92,000, accumulated in arrears of revenue, had to be written off as irrecoverable. The rate of assessment on soils was apparently very high amounting to Rs. 1.40 per acre on *morand* land.

Fourth Settlement, 1831

A new settlement was made in 1831 by Smith for a period of three years, the demand being fixed at Rs. 1.61 lakhs, i. e., reduction of Rs. 39,000. At this time, a number of cultivators had left the District particularly from *Athnair pargana* for Berar, which was in a much better state than Betul, at that time. Several *malguzars* too had thrown up their villages and there was difficulty in finding any one to take their place. It was intended to leave the *malguzars* 25 per cent on the gross collections and to give abandoned lands on three years' lease free of rent to encourage cultivation, with the result that new men came forward to take up the village which had been thrown up by the former *malguzars*.

It will be seen that the first Settlement in 1818 was based solely on the supposed average collections of the previous few years. The second of 1823 was founded chiefly on the *lagwans* or village rent-rolls modified by Settlement Officer's own enquiries and the third, on rough survey, made by the Patwaris subjected to no regular test, but embracing only land under cultivation. A foundation of a system of rates and produce estimates was thus laid though no elaborate calculations were resorted to.

Fifth Settlement, 1834

The triennial assessment expired in 1834 and it was decided to have a 20 years' settlement on liberal terms. This work was entrusted to Major Ouseley. It was felt that as the settlement was contemplated for a long term, the assessment to be fixed must be such as to allow a good margin for the vicissitudes of the seasons and other contingencies, so as to ensure regular collection of the amount assessed. The amount of the new assessment was about Rs. 1.40 lakhs, there being a reduction of over Rs. 21,000 or more than 12 per cent upon the preceding Settlement.

Though the Settlement of 1837 was for 20 years, but in actuality it continued upto 1864 in consequence of the Great Uprising.

From the above, it is evident that all the settlements made from 1804 to 1834 were excessive, balances having accrued from year to year and the people reduced to a state of actual poverty and destitution, while from 1834 or for 30 years, i. e., upto 1864 the District had been in the enjoyment of a moderate assessment. During the currency of this Settlement the District prospered and there was an addition to the wealth and general resources of the community. The value of much of the land had been greatly increased both by the sinking of wells and by considerable rise in prices. The whole of the cultivable land

had been brought under the plough and even in the wilder parts, many inroads were made in the forest areas. At the same time prices of grain rose gradually. At the end of the Settlement, the demand fell apparently to only Re.0-3-6 per acre in cultivation.

Sixth Settlement, 1864

Ramsay concluded the 30 Years' Settlement from the 1st July 1864. Great stress was laid on as accurate a survey as possible. Measurement operations were first commenced in 1855 under a Deputy Collector and with an interruption of three years caused by the Great Uprising the work was finally completed in 1862. The measurements, however, could not be said to be accurate as it was not a professional survey and in many cases they bore very little affinity to the *khasra* numbers as traced upon the map.

The leading object of this Settlement was to recognize and maintain fixed rights and interests in whatever form they might have grown up, and to avoid all speculative interference with the same. In accordance with these views continued possession, during the term of the current Settlement, i. e., since 1837, was looked upon as conferring a right which must be respected unless under very special circumstances indeed. Thus, the basis of this Settlement was an estimate of the annual income that the *malguzar* should be able to raise from the village and it was made by applying fixed rent-rates to each class of soil. The District was divided into 14 groups (*chucks*) or circles of villages each of which was further sub-divided into three classes with different soil-rates. All the poor villages inhabited by Gonds and Korkus were thrown into the third class and no rates were applied to them. The guiding principles for framing *chucks* for assessment purposes were the situation-proximity to markets, prevailing quality of the soil, nature of the crops raised, facilities for obtaining water by means of wells or from streams, proximity to forests and haunts of wild animals, and nature of the agricultural population. Keeping these principles in view the former rates of rents were revised.

The rates guided in framing an assessment based upon a *khasra* survey and assumed rent-rates applied to the different qualities of soil. The *lagwans* or village rent-rolls had also been consulted.

The revenue was raised to Rs. 1.85 lakhs or by Rs. 45,000 being equivalent to an increase of 32 per cent on previous demand and falling at 64 per cent of the corrected assets after rental revision. *Siwai* income was apparently not assessed. Government rights were reserved in 1,079 sq. miles of waste land or 28 per cent of the area of the District. The increase in rent roll was from Rs. 2.72 to Rs. 2.87 lakhs or by 5½ per cent, the rate per acre in cultivation rising from Re. 0-6-9 to Re. 0-7-1.

At the Settlement there was no *jagir* in the Betul District, except of *Bordah* which had been resumed and settled at half *jumma* for the life time

of the Maharani, widow of late Jagirdar Gayadeen. This *taluk* comprised 54 villages and was granted in *jagir* by the Marathas to Benisingh. He was succeeded by his nephew Gayadeen who held possession until his death in 1862. Dabri village of Jamgarh *taluka* was also assessed on half *jumma* . *Muafi* patches numbering 149 with an area of 1,46,121 acres were in existence at the Settlement.

This Settlement constitutes, in a nutshell, an outstanding landmark in the history of land revenue administration on account of conferment of proprietary rights on the *malguzars* and other such cultivators who had the land continuously for last several years. Secondly, for the first time, different assessment of irrigated land, which had hitherto been treated very much like other land, was thought of.

During the currency of the 30 Years' Settlement, the District prospered greatly. Taking the average of the four normal years, 1891-95 preceding the famines, the area in occupation had increased by 33 per cent since 1864 and that cultivated including current fallows by 38 per cent. In spite of the large expansion of cultivation cropped area was only five per cent larger than that recorded at the previous Settlement. This has been attributed to the inaccuracy of the former record in which even waste land was included in holdings and recorded as cropped. The area held by tenants had increased from 7.10 lakhs to nearly 9 lakhs acres, while their payments had risen from Rs. 2.68 lakhs to 3.41 lakhs, the rate per acre having remained stationary at six annas. The home-farm of the proprietors had risen to 1.09 lakh acres, the increase in the same period being 47,000 acres.

In readiness to the next settlement during 1886-87, training of Patwaris of this District was taken up and 20 Patwaris out of 174 had been qualified. In the subsequent year, the remaining Patwaris were trained and the systematic instructions were issued and survey work preparatory to assessment was started in the District, (i.e., in 1888), but owing to lack of traverse plots, the work could not progress satisfactorily. Survey work was again in full swing in the year 1891-92, and it was completed in the year 1892-93.

Seventh Settlement, 1894

For the settlement of 1894-99 traverse sheets were furnished by the Survey Department and the cadastral survey of the village area was carried out by the Patwaris. Thus, the survey lasted from 1888 to 1893. The 30 Years' Settlement expired in 1894 all over the District except in 85 villages subsequently transferred from Chhindwara, where the term extended to 1897. The District was actually placed under settlement in 1894, but operations were not fairly begun till towards the end of that year. The work was delayed by the famine of 1897 and the revised assessment was announced between 1897 and 1899. This Settlement was made by B. P. Standen, whose Report gives a very interesting account of the District.

After an accurate survey and classification of the soils, the next step was to express the relative value of the various soils, differentiated in the classification by means of numbers, bearing the same proportion to one another as the net productive qualities of the soils to which they were applied. These numbers were termed 'soil factors' and the units of which they were composed 'soil units'. By multiplying the area under each class of soil in the holding or village by its factor and dividing rent by the resulting figure, the average incidence of rent per soil-unit was obtained. Similar average incidences were calculated for groups of homogeneous villages. The average incidence of rent per acre in this area was compared with that of Settlement, after making allowance for the occupation of land below the average of that occupied at Settlement. Then, by raising or lowering the unit incidence in the same proportion the incidence per soil-unit at settlement was deduced. The percentage, by which on the score of the rise in prices and general considerations it would be justifiable to raise the settlement soil-unit incidence, was then determined. The figure obtained by raising the unit incidence by this percentage was the standard incidence per unit to which the incidence of the group should approximate after revision of rents and was known as the standard-rate. The unit rates of individual villages were then fixed in a similar way, the standard for the group being borne in mind and deviations from it, though of necessity frequent, requiring justification. By multiplying the soil-units in each holding by the village unit-rate, the rent which was justified by statistical consideration was obtained. This was, however, not necessarily the rent adopted by the Settlement Officer. For instance, deductions were made from the deduced rent to allow for improvements effected by the tenants. The value of the *sir* and *khudkash* land and the holdings of privileged tenants was similarly fixed. This was the system on which the revised rents were determined under this Settlement.

The sanctioned standard of enhancement over the rental of 30 Years' Settlement was 50 per cent. The general increase in rent was 17 per cent on that paid before the Settlement or 34 per cent on the figures of the 30 Years' Settlement. The land revenue was raised from Rs. 1.85 lakhs to Rs. 2.77 lakhs. The incidence of the revenue per acre was raised from Re. 0-4-4 to Re. 0-5-2 on revision. At the Settlement of 1894-1899, the areas held by several classes of tenants were as follows.—

	Area Held (In Acres)					Total Ryoti Area
	Absolute Occupancy Tenants	Occupancy Tenants	Ordinary Tenants	Rent Free Tenants' Holdings		
				As Grant from Malguzar	In Lieu of Service	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Settlement, 1894-99	1,73,571	3,77,340	3,47,907	2,749	5,6 91	9,07,258

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
At previous Settlement	2,37,172	1,19,376	3,53,211	40	4,849	7,14,648
Percentage on total <i>ryoti</i> area						
Settlement, 1894-99	19	41	38	1	1	100
At previous Settlement	33	17	49	—	1	100

The new Settlement came into force during the years 1897 to 1899 in different tracts and was made for a period varying from 14 to 15 years. It expired in 1912 in 7 groups and in 1913 in 12 others.

As regard the cost of the Settlement total expenditure incurred was Rs.1,86,156. After accounting for certain debits balance came to Rs. 1,66,703, i.e., giving a rate of Rs. 66 per sq. mile. The cost of traverse and cadastral survey was Rs. 24 and Rs. 34 per sq. mile, respectively. The total cost of survey and settlement was Rs. 124 per sq. mile. The revenue increment was Rs. 85,371 which covered the whole cost of the operations in four years and the cost of Settlement excluding traverse and survey in two years.

It is now to be seen how the Settlement actually worked. This Settlement differed fundamentally from all preceding assessments in that every care was taken to avoid estimates, instead to obtain the actual assets of the different villages. The area held by *malik makbuzas* increased mostly due to the settlement in this right of lapsed revenue-free grants. Similarly, where the tenants had premia for a lease securing their right to hold the land on a fixed rent for ever or for the term of Settlement they were recorded as occupancy tenants and the area held by them also thus increased. Area held by the ordinary tenants, however, decreased as some of them were classified as occupancy tenants. Grass reserves or *birs* were exempted, unless they were partly used for growing fodder and thatching material and partly sold commercially, in which case the area of sale was assessed. Wells and embankments costing more than Rs. 50 made since the previous Settlement, were classed as durable improvements under the rule and were exempted from assessment. In cases where the land was held on *batai* a contract by which the tenants gave half the produce to the owner, the seed being first deducted, shares were converted into cash rents and where there was excessive rent on ordinary tenants, it was reduced with the consent of the *malguzar*.

The total area included in holding in 1904-05 was just over a million acres; out of which about 65,000 acres or six per cent consisted of *sir* land and 52,000 acres or five per cent of the *khudkash*. *Malik-makbuza* had only 7,000 acres or one per cent of the whole area, absolute occupancy tenants 1,61,000 acres or 16 per cent, occupancy tenants 3,33,000 acres or 32 per cent and ordi-

nary tenants 3,97,000 acres or 38 per cent, while 14,000 acres were held rent-free or in lieu of service. The District had no *zamindari* status and no land had been alienated under the Waste Land Rules. Inferior proprietary rights existed only in one village, Zitapati near Chachundra. Protected status was awarded at Settlement to the lessees of a few villages belonging to the Korku family of Chandu and the *killedars* of Bhainsdehi. There were 102 *raiayatwari* villages of the total area of 85,000 acres, excised from Government forests and 107 forest villages containing allotted area of 32,000 acres under the management of the Forest Department. Twenty nine villages were deserted.

The land revenue assessment fixed at the Settlement of 1894-99 continued to be in force till 1915.

Eighth Settlement, 1916

It was in the years 1916-1921 when this District witnessed the completion of another comprehensive settlement aimed at being more accurate, more scientific and more elaborate than all those that had come before.

After the revenue Settlement of the District had been effected in 1894-99, 32 villages of East Nimar District known as the Damjipura tract were added to Betul in the year 1908. Another 99 villages were excised from the Government forest for *raiayatwari* settlement.

The District was then regrouped into three tahsils, namely, Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi, the last named having been created in 1909. The District had 1,175 *malguzari* and 89 *raiayatwari* villages. Ten of the 99 *raiayatwari* villages originally excised were amalgamated with their parent *malguzari* areas. Because of perfect partitions, the *malguzari* villages comprised 1,227 *mahals*. As a preliminary to the settlement operations map correction was completed a year ahead with admirable accuracy. In map correction, the exact position of every patch was located and mapped, as far as possible, by survey. The attesting parties after this, prepared the record of the rights, as defined in section 45 of the Land Revenue Act, 1917, in compiling certain papers subsidiary thereto, to facilitate the work of settlement and in classing the soils. The District was re-distributed into assessment groups necessitated by the creation of Bhainsdehi Tahsil. In the new 23 groups, there were 7 groups in Betul, 8 each in Multai and Bhainsdehi tahsils. All land in occupation was, then, thrown into one or other of the following classes of soils.—

<i>Kali</i>	Very superior black soil, found in 2,200 acres.
<i>Morand I</i>	Level, good, wheat-bearing dark soil.
<i>Morand II</i>	The prevailing wheat soil, average quality.
<i>Morand III</i>	Inferior, sloping, dark soil.
<i>Mutbarra I</i>	Dark soil, shallow or mixed with stones.

<i>Mutbarra II</i>	The same, but inferior.
<i>Bardi I</i>	Very stony shallow soil, usually trap.
<i>Bardi II</i>	A variety of poor <i>bardi</i> found in Betul Tahsil.
<i>Sihar I</i>	Poor sand soil occasionally growing <i>rabi</i> .
<i>Sihar II</i>	The same, but lighter.
<i>Retari</i>	The poorest gravelly, sandy soil.
<i>Kachhar</i>	River-side deposit, only 27 acres.

Besides these classes, four positions, (i) irrigated garden cane land, (ii) irrigated field crops, mainly wheat, (iii) *baori* or *geonra*, the highly manured area surrounding the village site, and (iv) *dol*, the valuable, moisture retaining depressions in good soil, etc., were also approved for Betul Tahsil and with minor modifications for the most fertile and important tracts of Multai and Bhainsdehi Tahsils. Soil factors were adopted for each soil and position class in the unit-rated areas. For this *kali* and *morand I* and *II* were treated in class A and rest of the soils in class B. After recognizing the relative values of the soils and positions in the factor scale, the *wajib-ul-arz* or village administration paper was prepared. This work presented a real difficulty. The most contested were the right to gather *mahua*, *gulli* and *achar* (*chironji*), the right to cut green wood for agricultural implements well-props and house-building, and the right to graze cattle. The restoration or reiteration of these rights, partially or in entirety, was a problem decided on principles of equity, which generally found acceptance.

The broad principles guiding the Settlement of 1916-21 were the increase in the prices of the chief staples, wheat, etc., abnormally, or even preposterously by low general rental pressure and the good condition of the cultivators. The acre rates of assessment adopted varied from village to village, but in the great majority fell within following limits.—

Trap Area	Sand-Stone	Rate (Rs.)	Remarks
<i>Bardi</i>	<i>Retari</i>	0-3-0 to 0-5-0	The poorest soil of all.
<i>Mutbarra</i>	<i>Sihar</i>	0-5-0 to 1-0-0	Intermediate growing <i>rabi</i> .
<i>Morand</i>	<i>Morand</i>	1-0-0 to 2-0-0	The best soil.

The valuable house gardens were rated at Rs. 4 for 11 to 20 decimals upto a maximum of Rs. 3, the larger ones being valued more highly in proportion than the smaller. Irrigated land which in these groups was generally scarce was valued at Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per acre.

The general principle adopted for guiding the fixation of land revenue of *malguzari* villages was that the revised *malguzari* revenue of each village should

not ordinarily exceed half the *malguzari* assets. The land revenue of the *malik-makbuza* land increased to Rs. 9,956 as against Rs. 7,000 which was fixed at the previous Settlement. Its rental assessment was Rs. 1,28,913 as against the previous rental assessment of Rs. 1,01,096. The area of *malik makbuza* land was 10,556 acres. The acreage rates varied from Re. 0-9-8 to Rs. 1-5-10 per acre. The area of the land under absolute occupancy right was 1,58,317 acres, the percentage increase being 27. The area of land under occupancy right was 3,47,879 acres bearing rental assessment of Rs. 2,06,457 as against the previous assessment of Rs. 1,50,112. Thus there was a net addition of 38 per cent. The area under ordinary right was 4,43,991 acres which was assessed to Rs. 1,99,026 as against Rs. 1,55,555 during the last Settlement.

The 89 *raiya* villages of the District, situated on the northern sandstone tract and in the extreme south had the poorest agricultural quality excepting a few along the Maharashtra border, which grew cotton, and were cultivated almost exclusively by aboriginals. *Raiya*s here enjoyed grazing facilities with free *mahua* and other forest produce and enjoyed comparatively greater independence than their counterparts in *malguzari* villages. Of a cultivable area of 66,189 acres, 60,962 acres were occupied and assessed to Rs. 10,140 at average acre rate of Re. 0-2-8. The payments were enhanced by 48 per cent and the revised land revenue was Rs. 15,046. The fiscal result of the new Settlement was that the gross revised assets were estimated at Rs. 6,88,000 as against Rs. 5,15,910 at the preceding Settlement. Out of these, a sum of Rs. 3,66,444 was assessed as the revised revenue of the District. The term of this Settlement was fixed as below.—

Tract	Date of Commencement	Date of Expiry	No. of Years
Betul	1st July, 1918	30th June, 1938	20
Multai: Masod-Pattan group	1st July, 1919	-Do-	19
Other groups	1st July, 1918	-Do-	20
Bhainsdehi	1st July, 1920	30th June, 1939	19

The total cost of the settlement operations was Rs. 4,01,578. The net addition made by resettlement to the Government revenue was Rs. 79,614, so that five years must run before the money spent could be recouped.

The Settlement was thus broad-based. The assessment during the Settlement of 1916-21 remains in force even today, though the term of this revised Settlement was fixed up to 30th June, 1938-39. More lands out of the unoccupied areas of the undeveloped villages were gradually brought under the plough by the increasing population resulting in an increase of Rs. 16,646. After the Settlement of 1916-21, a few small *raiya* villages were amalgamated in the adjoining *malguzari* villages and one forest village, namely, Bijarata of

Multai Tahsil was declared as *raiya* village in the year 1940, thus raising the number of *raiya* villages to 92 in the District. From 1st October, 1955, i. e., the date from which Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code has come into force, the distinction between the *raiya* and proprietary villages ceased to exist.

The present system of survey is based on traverse survey and survey by cadastral system. According to this system the traverse marks on the lands of each village are fixed by professional traverse survey parties and the details are filled in by Patwaris after measurements by chains and cross-staff on the basis of the traverse marks. Maps prepared are on the scale of 16"=1 mile. This system was first introduced in the District in the year 1955 and continues till the present. Assessment is still on the basis of soil classification and acreage of the land except with certain modifications under different enactments passed from time to time, which are summarised below.

During the year 1938-39, the rental assessment was reduced by 12½ per cent to relieve the small land-holders, having land below 12 acres. This was necessary to reduce the heavy financial pressure, which was brought about by the abnormal fall in the prices of foodgrains in the year 1930-31.

With the setting up of the popular Government the percentage of land revenue on the total *malguzari* assets of the villages was raised to 75 per cent from agricultural year 1947-48 under the Central Provinces and Berar Revision of Land Revenue of Mahals Act, 1947. This resulted in the total *malguzari* land revenue being raised from Rs. 3,44,960 in 1946-47 to Rs. 5,04,367 in 1947-48, i. e., an addition to the State exchequer by Rs. 1,59,407.

The Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, removed all the prevalent exemptions from liability to pay land revenue and all the *muafi* lands were made liable to assessment.

The Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals and Alienated Lands) Act, 1950 (I of 1951) came into force from 31st March, 1951. This legislative measure, in fact, meant to establish the *raiya* system under which cultivators hold land directly from the State. All proprietary rights in the *mahals* vested in the State and the intermediaries were totally abolished. The landholders now became the tenants of the State and consequently the entire assessment of rents on the tenancy lands has become realisable direct by the State Government. Besides this the *siwai* income which so long swelled the purses of the intermediaries accrued to the Government. The home-farm lands owned by the ex-proprietors were assessed to land revenue and were declared as *malik-makbuzas* of the outgoing proprietors and all the *bila-lagan* lands and the lands given out on favourable terms without any rent were made liable to the payment of rent to the State. Tanks and

266

BETUL

groves left with the ex-proprietors were also assessed. Lands which are being diverted to non-agricultural purposes after Settlement are being re-assessed according to enhanced rates.

Income from Land Revenue and Special Cesses

The effect of implementation of the provisions of the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950, is reflected in the enhanced Government income under land revenue. The following table shows the annual demand and collection of land revenue in the District, during the period from 1951-52 to 1965-66—

(Figures in Rs.)		
Year	Demand	Collection
1951-52	8,04,325	6,72,807
1952-53	9,06,545	7,39,966
1953-54	9,33,848	7,77,219
1954-55	8,56,180	7,31,282
1955-56	8,41,609	7,20,656
1956-57	8,06,140	6,23,178
1957-58	8,09,044	6,20,813
1958-59	8,76,244	8,10,360
1959-60	7,32,744	6,77,851
1960-61	7,39,168	6,77,806
1961-62	6,84,462	6,42,995
1962-63	6,92,059	6,60,414
1963-64	5,76,895	5,64,738
1964-65	6,63,713	6,54,919
1965-66	6,75,164	6,50,657

Previously *lambardars* who were either the proprietors or one of the proprietors of village used to collect and deposit the land revenue in Government treasury. Since the enforcement of the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act 1950, the responsibility of collection of land revenue has been entrusted to the institution of Patels. Initially the Patels were appointed by nomination, later they began to be elected. They are also *mukaddams* of their villages. They are paid a commission by the Government, which is a percentage of the collections made by them.

This remuneration is paid from the Tahsil Office once annually. The following Table shows the amount of commission paid to the Patels from 1951-52 to 1965-66—

Years	Amount (in Rupees)
1951-52	2,489
1952-53	53,328

Year	Amount (in Rupees)
1953-54	66,735
1954-55	74,492
1955-56	78,406
1956-57	72,302
1957-58	67,640
1958-59	75,636
1959-60	66,328
1960-61	51,029
1961-62	53,099
1962-63	53,188
1963-64	53,363
1964-65	53,545
1965-66	53,665

In some places the Gram Panchayats have been entrusted with the work of collection of land revenue, etc., as an experimental measure. At the end of 1963, Gram Panchayats numbering 29 were entrusted with this work (11 in Multai and 9 each in Betul and Bhainsdehi tahsils).

The land revenue is recovered in two instalments in the District, i. e., the first instalment falls due on the 15th January and the second on the 1st May. A month after these dates, a defaulters' list is prepared by the Patwari and is sent to the Tahsildar for recovery.

Cesses

Besides land revenue, some cesses on land revenue have been levied by the Government from time to time. The earliest cess was the Patwari cess. The demand on account of the road, school and postal cesses in 1904-05 was Rs. 14,000, for additional rates Rs. 5,000 and for Patwari cess Rs. 14,000. The Patwari cess was calculated at $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on the land revenue, the road cess at three per cent, the education cess at two per cent, the postal cess at $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and additional rates at two per cent. The cesses thus amounted to 13 per cent on the land revenue, or eight per cent on the assets. The demand for cesses in 1904-05 was Rs. 33,000. The abolition of the Patwari cess and additional rates affected a reduction of Rs. 19,000 or about seven per cent on the combined demand. The tenants paid $7\frac{1}{2}$ pies per rupee of rental to the Patwari and from three pies to one anna to the Kotwar. In 1906, the postal cess was appropriated to road.

The position regarding cesses underwent a change in 1920, when under the C. P. Local Self-Government Act 1920 (IV of 1920) only a cess of $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of land revenue was introduced in the District for the maintenance of schools, roads, and for general purposes.

Another change took place in 1946, when a Panchayat cess was introduced under the C. P. and Berar Panchayats Act 1946 (I of 1947). This cess was payable at the rate of 6 pies per rupee on land revenue and rentals of proprietors and tenants, respectively, (other than sub-tenants) in respect of lands held by them in the Gram Panchayat area and the proceeds were paid to the Gram Panchayat concerned. When the District Councils were replaced by Janapada Sabhas in 1948, a Janapada cess was imposed under the C. P. and Berar Local Self Government Act, 1948 (XXXVIII of 1948). This was calculated at 30 pies per rupee and the proceeds were payable to the Janapada Sabha. With the passage of the M. P. Panchayats Act of 1960, a cess of 10 p. per rupee is levied only at the Panchayat level.

The Table below shows the annual demand and collection of cesses in the District during the period from 1951-52 to 1965-66.—

(Figures in Rupees)		
Year	Demand	Collection
1951-52	2,25,293	2,05,622
1952-53	1,58,546	1,47,845
1953-54	1,13,578	1,06,243
1954-55	1,32,230	1,23,675
1955-56	1,35,792	1,26,148
1956-57	1,15,808	95,437
1957-58	1,26,693	1,01,329
1958-59	1,35,804	1,22,841
1959-60	1,22,669	1,11,213
1960-61	1,21,345	1,08,126
1961-62	1,22,822	1,09,057
1962-63	1,23,484	1,10,285
1963-64	98,311	92,221
1964-65	1,13,375	1,08,488
1965-66	1,14,369	1,06,803

Siwai

Income derived from miscellaneous sources, viz., forests, grazing grounds flowers or fruits of forest trees is termed as *siwai* or miscellaneous income. At the Settlement of 1864, the amount of *siwai* income was estimated at Rs. 12,720. It was revised to Rs. 31,950 at the subsequent Settlement. The increase in value of *siwai* was due partly to the rise in price of commodities which possessed a market value at the Settlement of 1864 and partly to the growth of demand for articles, for which the demand at Settlement was non-existent, or so small, that the *malguzar* derived no appreciable income from the produce in question. The estimate of *siwai* income was made after local enquiry in each village, a draw-back being given on account of the fluctuating nature of the income. At the Settlement of 1916-21, the *siwai* income, assumed for

assessment purposes amounted to Rs. 54,480. The principal items of this income were timber and bamboos, Rs. 18,190, *mahua*, *gulli* and *chironji*, Rs. 13,790, *harra*, Rs. 7,135, and grazing and grass. Rs. 7,580.

Muafi Grants

At the Settlement of 1894-1899 and 1916-21 an area of 21,728.46 acres consisting of 81 holdings was recorded as *muafi*. The tahsil-wise distribution was as shown below.—

Tahsil	Holdings (No.)	Area (Acres)
Betul	18	13,723.82
Multai	51	5,985.29
Bhainsdehi	12	2,019.35
TOTAL:	81	21,728.46

The *muafi* grants were resumed consequent upon the enforcement of C. P. and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act, 1948, from the agricultural year 1948-49. Now an annual money grant of Rs. 350 has been sanctioned under clause I of sub-section (3) of section 5 of the said Act for the upkeep of the Dargah of Raheman Shah Dullah at Umari, Tahsil Betul. The entire area of *muafi* land was assessed in 1948-49 and vested in the State at the time of the abolition of proprietary rights.

Relations between Landlords and Tenants

Little account is available about the position of cultivators in the District during the Mughal rule. Under the old Maratha Government, the system of land tenure was very similar to *ralyatwari* system of assessment in which each village had its Patel or headman, who had certain duties, such as to collect the rents from the tenants and pay them into the Government treasury and in return, he used to get one-eighth of the gross collections. During the first thirty years of the 19th Century, villages kept changing hands almost at every settlement until in many villages the old race of "Watandar Patels" had disappeared. Instead of each village having its Patel resident among the tenantry, a *malguzar* appeared on the scene who got hold of as many villages as he had the means of controlling. In those days the practice was to make the settlement of the village not so much with the person best entitled to it on personal grounds as with the person most likely to manage the village without detriment to the interest of Government. Subsequent to 20 Years' Settlement of 1837, a number of new men came in as *malguzars*, who in view of their long occupancy and good management were created proprietors of their villages to the exclusion of the descendants of the old Patels. Under the Maratha Government, there was no trace of such a thing as tenant right or prescriptive rights of occupancy existing in this District under any term except in the case of *muafidars* and grants of land for religious or charitable

purposes. The original Maratha system, however, included two classes of tenants *meerasdars* hereditary tenants who no doubt possessed a certain proprietary right in the soil, their tenure being more or less one of military service. No trace of this tenancy was however, found at the Settlement of 1864. The other class of tenants were termed *ooparees* literally strangers and they were tenants-at-will without any rights.

As noted earlier, the amount of collections from each village was assessed each year and the Patel was responsible for collection and distribution of the demand amongst the tenants. Such distinctions as hereditary tenants and tenants-at-will were unknown, but in the cases of more substantial tenants, lands were held on from year to year and from father to son, so long as the rent demanded was duly paid, but no rights of holdings on certain terms independent of the will of the Patel seems to have accrued from such long continued possession. Some exception is said to have been made in the case of a cultivator who sank a well or otherwise laid out money in improving a field, and in general he was allowed to hold on his land undisturbed—always provided that he paid the proper rent. As a rule fresh engagements for the land were entered into every year, even where no change in occupancy took place. The Patel attempted to equalise the pressure as far as possible upon the tenants so that the rents could be realized with greater ease. The system worked perfectly well so long as the Government demand was moderate, but when the time of indiscriminate and unlimited exaction came the Patel had no option, but to rack-rent the tenantry to the utmost in his own defence.

This state of things continued more or less for the first three Settlements, the Government demand was moderate and the *malguzars* had no necessity to drive hard bargains with their tenants and in fact, lands were given at very easy rates and these remained pretty much the same, until the Settlement of 1864. Previously the cultivator enjoyed by custom a right of actual continued occupancy so long as he paid his rent, but later in the rule of the British courts fixing 12 years as the period constituting a title to hereditary occupancy, had been construed, as giving permission to hold land on the same fixed terms irrespective of the increased value of produce of land. Hence there had arisen a class of the great bulk of the cultivators who in fact looked upon themselves as privileged persons, independent of the *malguzars* and entitled to hold their land for ever on the previous terms. The recognition of long and continued possession for certain terms created the proprietary right in the soil.

Under the Settlement of 1864, all the *muafidars* were subjected to assessment and were created proprietors of their actual holdings. With the extension of the Bengal Rent Act (X of 1859) to the Central Provinces from March, 1864, the legal procedure for dealing with cases regarding tenant right was met and as said earlier, all cultivators of 12 years' continuous standing or upwards, in respect of particular lands so occupied, were recorded as *maurusi* or heredi-

tary tenants at the Settlement of 1864, when 9,428 were hereditary cultivators and 20,904 tenants-at-will in the District. *Bhaiyachari* and *puttedari* tenure did not exist in the District at that time. The Settlement Code of 1863 further improved the position of occupancy tenants with the provision that "the class of raiyats whose record of occupancy right is only provisional, should be narrowed as much as possible", and "the occupancy right of the other classes of raiyats were to be recorded as absolute and not as subject to future change of law". To carry these provisions into effect, a record was taken from proprietors in the form of a clause in the *wajib-ul-arz* (village administration paper) binding themselves to accept the rights secured to absolute occupancy tenants, these records of village customs being used as a substitute for legislation against any future alteration in the law, between landlord and tenant in consideration of those whose tenure would be open to revision on the alteration of the law.

The recognition of occupancy rights was, however, not taken kindly by the landlords who made systematic attempts to prevent tenants from acquiring these rights. The tenants-at-will, who numbered more could be ejected and their rents enhanced at the pleasure of the landlord or *malguzar*. The Central Provinces Tenancy Act of 1883, which was brought into force from the 1st January, 1884, sought to define for the first time the relations of landlords to tenants and dealt with such important questions as transfer of holdings, enhancement of rent, ejection of tenants, acquisition of tenancy rights and improvements in holding. It added a further class of sub-tenants. The Act converted the tenants-at-will into ordinary tenants with a defined status and protection from arbitrary ejection. The rent of an ordinary tenant was, however, left to be fixed between him and the landlord. But the ordinary tenants could purchase occupancy rights by payment of 2½ times this rent. It may be of interest to note that the tenants could take advantage of this provision to a very small extent. The Tenancy Act of 1883 was replaced by new Tenancy Act of 1898 which strengthened the position of ordinary tenants.

This Settlement had given a definite shape to the tenancy system and the proprietary interests of the landlords on a uniform basis. The tenants, whose possession was continuous, were given a right of hereditary character. Tenants who spent some considerable amount over the improvement of their lands were given some special title in occupancy right. Relatives of the proprietors were given special consideration as a substitute for sharing in the proprietary right. In general, the proprietor used to extract more from the cultivators than what he was to pay. Generally, it is reported that the relations between *malguzars* and tenants were cordial and satisfactory. But the famines of the closing years of the last Century did create or foster discontentment between the two.

At the Settlement of 1914 *pattas* or title deeds were distributed to the tenants and some changes were undertaken pertaining to land reforms.

The Central Provinces Land Alienation Act No. II of 1916 came into force from 1st April 1916, and was applied to Gonds and Korkus in the District. This Act was intended to prevent the exploitation of backward tribes and the transfer of lands belonging to aboriginal tribes into the hands of other unscrupulous persons under the prevailing stress. After this the Land Revenue Act of 1917 came into force on the 1st September, 1917, which also gave a considerable relief and power to the cultivators. Thus now, the powers and duties of the proprietors were defined in the village administration papers and the cultivators were given certain concessions, namely, free grazing of cattle to a limited number, *nistar* for agricultural implements and necessary timber for repairs to the houses. These village administration papers were given wide publicity with the result that the tenants came to know their rights and duties. The provision was also made for the transfer of land by the occupancy and absolute occupancy tenants subject to a nominal right of pre-emption of the ex-proprietors. In order to restrict the limits of home-farm areas of the ex-proprietors, a provision was made that land out of the grass land, which was under his personal cultivation will be considered as his *khudkasht* and in case of its being cultivated by others, it will be recorded as occupancy land in the name of others.

In the year 1921-22, the Deputy Commissioner, Betul, remarked in this context that, "tenants are losing their respect for their landlord and are more and more ready to file a petition if their landlords try to cut down their *nistar* rights in the village waste. In this district, in one or two cases, landlords are reported to have let out on contract their rights in the village waste, which naturally causes friction." The disputes, coupled with the economic development of the country, induced a more commercial relationship between the landlord and the tenant. This type of relationship was particularly marked in villages, where absentee landlordism was common. In such village the landlord's main business was the exploitation of his tenants by money-lending.

Meanwhile, the Tenancy Act of 1898 was replaced by a new Tenancy Act (I of 1920) and the need for giving some more rights to the tenants was satisfied. It distinctly defined the relations between the tenants and landlords. Under this Act, the class of ordinary tenants was abolished and all such tenants were converted into occupancy tenants. The tenants were given certain directions to safeguard against the tyrannical operations of the landlords, namely in the matter of transfer of the lands, the right over trees and enjoyment of *nistar* in the villages. The landlords practically ceased to be the "Lords" in the real sense of the term, except at the time of rent recoveries or when the tenants wanted to sell away their holdings. The gradual awakening of tenants to their rights was indicated by the fact that they sought redress of their grievances in the proper courts, when occasion arose. In Betul District, the distribution of leaflets regarding the ownership of trees growing in holdings, caused slight amount of trouble, until this was properly understood. The lot of the sub-

tenants who were actual tillers of the soil remained undecided. In the Tenancy Act, 1920, there was no provision to safeguard their interest or position or to give them some statutory position.

The 'thirties further witnessed a worsening of feelings between the landlords and tenants. Disputes over grazing and *nistar*-rights in the *malguzari* forests occurred in the District. Tenants were gradually learning their rights. It is reported that the practice of recovering extra payments by the landlords or *malguzars* had increased with the growth of absentee landlordism. The common malpractices adopted by the *malguzars* to harass tenants could not be checked by the provisions of sections 75 to 77 of the Tenancy Act owing to the ignorance and subservience of tenants.

No major change took place in the position of the tenants, until the introduction of Provincial Autonomy (1937-38) when the Congress Ministry undertook a series of measures to protect the tenants. To start with, a 12½ per cent reduction of rents was given in respect of small holdings during 1937-38. Again in pursuance of the recommendations of the Revenue Committee appointed in August, 1938, the Tenancy Act of 1920 underwent many amendments in 1939-40 under one of which the Government was empowered to declare absolute occupancy tenants and occupancy tenants as *malik makbuzas* on payment to the landlord of an amount equal to 10 and 12½ times the rent of the holdings, respectively. By another amendment, sub-tenants of *malik makbuzas* and tenants were also recorded as occupancy tenants if the lands were habitually sublet. Further, if *sir* or *khudkasht* lands were leased as one holding on or after the 1st November, 1939 the lessee could acquire the same right in *sir* land as he would in the *khudkasht* land, and the *sir* right in such land was extinguished. This was really a welcome step towards directing the land to the actual tillers of the soil. Unfortunately in operation, the law was not as beneficial to sub-tenants as has been expected and proprietors found loopholes in it by taking advantage of ignorance of poor sub-tenants by not recording a sub-tenancy, but on paper running a partnership with the sub-tenants. Illiteracy and ignorance resulted in the sub-tenants continuing to remain under the yoke of the proprietors. Arbitrary ejectment, *begar* and harassment were the common features. Tyranny of the *malguzars* often forced sub-tenants to leave their fields fallow and seek employment elsewhere. It was felt in ruling circles that for agriculture to be put on a sound footing, intermediary must be done away with and land given to its rightful owner, the tiller.

The assumption of office by the Congress Ministry again in 1946 accelerated the pace of land reforms in the State. Many measures were initiated in this direction, but the most important among them was the abolition of intermediaries between the State and the actual tiller of the soil. While the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Bill, passed by the Vidhan Sabha in April 1950, was awaiting the assent of the President, an interim legislative

measure known as the Madhya Pradesh Agricultural Raiyats and Tenants (Acquisition of Privileges) Act, 1950 (XVIII of 1950) was enacted in the same year for facilitating the abolition of proprietary rights, for the protection of tenants from ejectment, etc. Under this Act, the right of plot-proprietorship (*malik makbuza*) could be conferred upon tenants on payment of a prescribed premium. The M.P. Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals, Alienated Lands) Act, 1950 (1 of 1951) which came into force from the 31st March, 1951, also made a similar provision for the conferment of *malik mukbuza* rights. The relations between the tenants and the proprietors, till the abolition of proprietary rights had generally been cordial which is evident from the fact that there had been no agitations or anti-*malguzar* movements in the past. This may be attributed to the steps taken from time to time to safeguard the interests of the tenants or legislative measures.

The M. P. Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950, was the first important step in the history of land reforms, since under this Act, barring home-farm land, home-stead, private wells and tanks, all rights and title and interest vesting in the proprietor vested in the State Government, and all cultivators other than sub-tenants became the tenants of the State. The proprietors were, however, allowed to retain their home-farm lands in *malik-makbuza* rights. The area noted below, determined as a result of *nistar* enquiry, vested in the State.

Tahsil	Area (Acres)
Betul	1,76,818
Multai	94,732
Bhainsdehi	2,26,690

In the beginning the Patwaris took charge of the land, etc., vested in the State on behalf of Deputy Commissioner (now Collector), but later Patels were appointed through election for this purpose.

Consequent on the passing of this Act the tenants were given free rights of transfer of lands. Restrictions over the enjoyment of *nistar* rights and grazing in the village forests were removed and concessions of free picking of *mahua* flowers and taking of a limited quantity of timber for the repair of houses and agricultural implements of the cultivators were further extended. The year 1951, thus, brought about revolutionary changes in the tenancy system.

For the loss of proprietary rights, the proprietors were entitled to a compensation in accordance with prescribed scales. Further, petty proprietors were entitled to a rehabilitation grant, which was payable immediately and the amount of secured debts or liabilities due by the outgoing proprietors, except the excluded debts, were to be scaled down by the Claims Officers to be appointed under the Act. A special department called the Land Reforms Department was constituted in the State for implementing the main provisions of the Act.

Under the set-up of this Department, a Deputy Commissioner of Land Reforms was appointed in the Betul District on 1st March, 1951, with Compensation-cum-Claims Officers and other staff. An amount of Rs. 12,44,770 was paid as compensations to the ex-proprietors till the end of 1964-65.

Even after the abolition of the intermediaries, as noted above, it was found that there was no uniformity in the system of land tenure. Legislation was, therefore, enacted for the simplification of land tenures. The M. P. Land Revenue Code, 1954 (II of 1955), enforced from the 1st October, 1955 recognised only two categories of tenants, *bhumiswami* and *bhumidhari*; and all the previous existing ones, such as, *malik-makbuza* or plot-proprietors, absolute occupancy, *raiya-malik* occupancy, *raiya-sarkar*, lessee of State, etc., were abolished. It made all *malik-makbuzas* and absolute occupancy tenants as *bhumiswami*, i. e., full proprietors of land, while the occupancy tenants were given *bhumidhari* right which was almost equivalent to a proprietary right except that *bhumidhari* could not mortgage his interest in the land nor could such interest be attached or sold in execution of any decree or order. But a *bhumidhari* had the option to acquire *bhumiswami* rights by paying three times the land revenue to the State Government.

The *bhumiswami* tenure holders got the exclusive rights over the trees standing in their holdings while *bhumidhari* tenure holders had the above rights for all the trees except timber trees.

Tenants holding the land from tenure holders were treated as ordinary tenants. Where the land was continuously sub-let for three years in the consecutive period of five years the ordinary tenant became entitled to acquire the rights of an occupancy tenant even without payment of rent. He could then acquire the rights of the tenure holders on payment of a sum 10 times the rent to a *bhumiswami* and seven times the rent to a *bhumidhari*. This was a very great benefit extended to the sub-tenants who were the actual tillers of the soil.

The provision to become *bhumiswami* compelled many of the tenure holders to part with their holdings, when they found it beyond their means to cultivate the land themselves or manage the cultivation personally. The effect of this provision was that the land gradually drifted from the hands of the big-tenure holders to the landless cultivators and labourers and to small holders for the persons, who could not cultivate the land personally could not sub-let it for fear of losing the land altogether. The other remarkable benefit extended to the agriculturists was that they got exclusive right of ownership in the house-site in the *abadi*. Besides, an important provision was made to bring moderation in the rates of assessment of land in the urban areas in order to prevent hardship to the residents of urban areas. In order to reduce the number of holdings and plots and to give relief to cultivators having scattered areas, provision for consolidation of holdings had also been made in the Code.

Exclusive rights in tree led to further evils. The population percentage of Betul is largely tribal and consequently ignorant of the value of the money. Unscrupulous contractors took advantage of this fact to purchase *abadi* timber at nominal prices. Large scale denudation of forest areas, cultivators' holdings, as also defrauding of the *bhumiswamis* resulted. In order to protect the cultivators belonging to scheduled tribes, Government promulgated the Madhya Pradesh Protection of Scheduled Tribes (Interest in Trees) Act, 1956. Hereafter the Collector was made the guardian of the interests of the tribals, and it was made a penal offence for a third party to extract timber standing on a tribal's holdings without the permission of the Collector.

Consequent upon the re-organisation of States, a unified Land Revenue Code 1959, (No. XX of 1959) was enacted and enforced from 2nd October, 1959. This epoch-making legislation revolutionized the tenure-system and land relations, marking an important stage in the implementation of the progressive land reforms policy. "Land belongs to its tiller" is the feature of this Code which vests the cultivator with full hereditary transferable right of ownership in the land. The Code provides for only one class of tenure-holders of lands to be known as *bhumiswami* who owns land in absolute rights from the State. A *bhumiswami* shall have rights of transfer subject only to one restriction that such transfer does not either create a holding above a prescribed limit or an uneconomic holding below 10 acres. Subject to certain restrictions he will have full rights over all kinds of trees in his holdings. A *bhumiswami* has also a right to mortgage his land both by simple or usufructuary mortgage. There are certain reasonable restrictions, however, on the transfer of land and felling of timber, but these have been imposed in the interest of good cultivation, erosion prevention or security of State forests. Thus the Code aims at eliminating tenancy and bringing into existence peasant-proprietorship based on owner-cultivation.

The Code also protects the rights of sub-tenants who are given status of occupancy tenants. An occupancy tenant can be conferred *bhumiswami* rights on his paying 15 times the land revenue in five equal instalments. To protect the existing occupancy tenants of *bhumiswamis* from being rack-rented, it has been laid down that the maximum rent payable by an occupancy tenant shall not exceed four times the land revenue in the case of irrigated land, three times the land revenue in the case of land under *bandhas* and two times the land revenue in other cases. No sub-letting or leasing of land is now permitted except in very emergent cases once in three years or by certain classes of persons such as widows, unmarried women, minors, etc.

The Record of Rights was to be prepared afresh under the Code. The entries will be kept upto-date by bringing on it annually such changes as they take place after they are certified by the competent revenue officer. The Code also provides that all tenures over which the villagers exercise rights of irrigation

or any kind of *nistar* on the date of abolition of rights of intermediaries vest in the State Government.

The area-wise distribution of the different land tenures in the District in each year from 1955-56 to 1964-65 is given in Appendix—A.

Nistar and Grazing Rights

As indicated earlier, *nistar* and grazing rights were formerly regulated by the *malguzars* in accordance with the customs and rules recorded in the village administration paper (called the *wajib-ul-arz*) which was revised at every settlement. It is reported that it was only during the period the operations for the Settlement of 1916-21 were being conducted that for the first time tenants and proprietors awoke to the importance of *wajib-ul-arz* and that the infringement of its *nistar* provisions, constituted the only matter which gave rise to agrarian discontent in Betul District.¹ From this Settlement, the headings of the administration papers were standardised. Accordingly, rights were conferred in the administration papers of each village on the villagers to utilize the village waste for grazing, collection of fire-wood, grass creepers, roots and leaves, thorns and fencing for enclosures, bamboos, timber for building or repairing the houses or for preparing agricultural implements, etc., free of charge for their own use. The grazing rights had presented much difficulty. The privilege of grazing all "agricultural cattle" free of charge was recorded without much objection in the case of resident-tenants. But when the non-resident tenants claimed the same right protest from the part of the residents and the *malguzars* was universal. In the end, the rights of non-resident tenants were much restricted. All these restrictions over the enjoyment of *nistar* and grazing rights were first removed upto some extent by the enactments of the C. P. and Berar Grazing and Nistar Act., 1948 (XXII of 1948) which provided for free grazing of the cattle of agriculturists and a prescribed number of cattle of non-agriculturists, the grazing area of all villages and, secondly, by the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals and Alienated Lands) Act, 1950. Following the abolition of the *malguzari* system the administration of *nistar* also devolved on the State Government. The entries in the *wajib-ul-arz* were found to be inconvenient to the villagers. For this, Nistar Committee was formed in the year 1952. In order to settle the grazing and *nistar* problems on systematic lines, the Government appointed Nistar Officers (of the rank of Deputy Collectors) in 1953 in Betul and Multai Tahsils and in 1955 in Bhainsdehi Tahsil. They conducted village to village *nistar* enquiry, decided disputed problems of *nistar* and grazing rights and revised the *wajib-ul-arz* of each village which has now been divided into two parts, viz., (1) *wajib-ul-arz*, and (2) *nistar-patrak*. The *nistar-patrak* contains provisions regarding the demand of villagers for *gothan*, rights of way, new roads, house-sites, *nistar* from forest zones, etc. These operations were completed in 1955-56. Government

¹ Betul Settlement Report, 1916-21, p. 16.

followed a liberal policy in respect of *nistar*, and grazing and Departmental supplies at reasonable rates were progressively increased. Forest depots have been opened at a number of places in the District at which *nistar* material is made available to the villages from Government Reserved Forests, *ex-malguzari* forests and *raiya-wari* forests on permits issued by the Gram Panchayats and *Nistar* Panchayats. The grazing area has also been extended wherever possible.

Bhoodan

The *Bhoodan Yagna* or land gift movement initiated in the country in 1951 by Acharya Vinoba Bhave with the aim of solving the problem of landless labourers, had its impact in the District as in the rest of the Country. It is a unique and novel way of revolutionizing the organisation of land through goodwill, persuasion and co-operation. The Madhya Pradesh Bhoodan Yagna Act was enacted in the year 1953 to facilitate the activities in connection with *Bhoodan Yagna* movement in old Madhya Pradesh. It was followed by the establishment of the Madhya Pradesh Bhoodan Yagna Board with headquarters at Nagpur and was made responsible for the administration of land received under *Bhoodan* Movement. The Board has been empowered to constitute Tahsil Committees which distribute land to landless persons, capable of cultivating it personally. After the re-organization of States, the headquarters of the Board was shifted to Narsimhapur. The Board receives annual grant from the Government. Till the end of February, 1964, land amounting to 8,193.80 acres has been received in Betul District as *bhoodan* out of which land measuring 6,021.73 acres was distributed.

Rural Wages and the Condition of Agricultural Labour

The District Gazetteer states that Gonds, Korkus and Mehras were generally farm-servants and labourers. People belonging to other castes, particularly Bania, Brahman, Kunbi, Kurmi and Bhojer were most prosperous proprietors. It shows that the labouring classes in the District formed a very small minority of population as almost all other persons possessed small plots of their own which they cultivated with their own or hired bullocks. The wages given then to the farm-servants or field labourers were also satisfactory, but after the famine of 1900, the position of wage-earning and labouring classes distinctly deteriorated from the customary standard of remuneration. It was reported that their wages as represented in food and necessities were at the beginning of the decade extremely liberal and the equivalent money wage was also higher than in many parts of the Province. In these days, an agricultural servant gave up his job on the caprice of the moment and was certain of getting equally good employment elsewhere. Casual field labourers and general labourers got job at weeding and reaping from the middle of August and in the north of the District of gathering *harra* until December. From the middle of April till the middle of August, the casual labourers could expect to get little work even in a normal year and in case they were not able to earn

sufficient in the *rabi* harvest to carry them on with the addition of *mahua*, till the weeding began, they were in a sorry plight by the beginning of the rains.

As regards the economic condition of the labouring class, remuneration for reaping was paid in kind except in usually bad season when the cultivator's crop was scanty and prices high. He sometimes refused to hire labour except on cash payment, but this rarely happened. The farm-servants employed for the whole year were called *harwaha* or *barsalia* (in the open villages and *jirati* amongst Gonds) and if employed on monthly basis then *mahantia*. It is reported in the District Gazetteer that farm-servants were usually indebted and their debts were carried on from year to year in employers' account book. Generally one farm-servant was kept for every pair of bullocks, but if the cultivator worked himself, he needed only to keep a farm servant for the second and subsequent pairs. If paid in grain, the remuneration of farm-servants was four to five *khandis* measured by the small *kuro* or six *pallis* or about 1,100 to 1,300 pounds of grain annually. If paid in cash the remuneration was Rs. 24 to 30 and a present of about 100 lbs. of grain. In Muftai, the rate was Rs. 15 and about 600 lbs. of grain. When sugarcane was grown the farm-servant used to receive a present of *gur* or canes amounting to about 26 lbs., while pressing was going on. In Gondi villages, the wage of a labourer was two *khandis* of *kodon*, Rs. 10 in cash and Rs. 3 in clothing or a total of Rs. 20, while elsewhere it was Rs. 30 in 1903. A small boy for grazing cattle used to get a third of the wages of a full-grown man.

The daily labourers were called *banihar* and *rozina* and they were getting cash wages for weeding and grain for other agricultural work. Generally only the autumn crops are weeded and women are usually employed, the rate of payment then being three to four pice a day for the *baniharidin* from 11 A. M. to 6 P. M. and six pice if they worked for a day of 12 hours. For harvesting in the case of jowar a man used to earn from 2½ to 4½ lbs. of grain a day and for *kodon* and *kutki*, 9 lbs. of unhusked grain. The rates for labourers employed in the harvesting of sugarcane were high, because the hours were long and the work hard. The rates for a man for digging up the canes were 2 annas a day, for cleaning to a woman 1½ annas a day, and for tending the evaporating pan and furnace, a man was paid 2½ annas a day. For sowing a garden the rate was an anna for 1,000 *peris* or pieces containing three or four eyes, which were put into the ground; some grain was also given.¹

The village artisans and servants used to receive customary wages in grain for work done for the cultivators. The Lohar or blacksmith used to get 54 lbs. of grain for each plough of four bullocks, paid half in the autumn and half in the spring grains. He also used to get a basket of grain at seed time and a sheaf at harvest, these amounting to about another eight lbs., and in sugarcane villages, he used to receive five stalks daily so long as pressing

1. Betul District Gazetteer, pp. 152-53.

went on and when it was finished a present of *gur*. A *nai* or barber used to receive from two to three *kuros* or 25 to 40 lbs. of grain for each adult male in the family and nothing for children. Besides this, he used to receive the extra grain at seed time and harvest like the other servants in return of his services. Chamar, Teli and the like, also used to get similar returns for their services from different families of the village in kind. On the whole, it is reported that the District was economically one of the most backward districts in the Provinces.

The economic condition of all these labouring castes was more or less similar at the time of resettlement of Betul District during the 'twenties. In the report it is stated that, "the aborigines as a body are poor cultivators and though the Gond cotton growers of the south Multai and Bhainsdehi tahsils were refreshingly energetic and independent, their caste-fellows over the whole of the sandstone area are lazy and indifferent. Korkus, 7 per cent of the total, are I think the least efficient in the district, Mahras are not much better, and many of the Ahirs take up land solely or chiefly to gain a footing in the village grazing grounds."¹

It were only the more substantial tenants and the *malguzars* who were required to employ hired labour for their cultivation. On account of a general tendency for people in rural areas to shift from villages to towns or nearby districts in search of employment in industrial concerns, paucity of agricultural labour was felt, which was also on account of the competition of non-agricultural works in the District and outside. Dearth of agricultural labour is to some extent experienced in the District like many other districts at the time of agricultural operations, requiring a large number of labourers, such as, sowing, weeding harvesting, etc. *Bidi*-making industry carried on in villages offers better wages than agricultural employment and has, therefore, greater pull.

As a result, the old Madhya Pradesh Government enacted a law directing seasonal closure of *bidi* workshops in rural areas, but it was held to be unconstitutional.

The collection of wage statistics in Madhya Pradesh and in some major States in India dates back to the last quarter of the 19th Century. The procedure for preparation and submission of the returns of wage-rates in Madhya Pradesh was laid down in section 'c' of the Revenue Book Circular III-9 in Vol. II of the Revenue Manual of the Central Provinces and Berar. The Deputy Commissioner of each district was required to submit this information to the Director of Industries, Madhya Pradesh by 30th June annually. Later in pursuance of the recommendations of the Government of India, the Director of Land Records, started from 1955-56 the collection of statistics of

1. Betul Settlement Report, 1916-21, p. 5.

daily wages of agricultural and rural labourers from one to three representative rural centres. For Betul two such centres, viz., Sasundra and Ranipura were selected.

According to the Census of 1951, as against the total population of 4,51,655 the cultivating labourers (and their dependants) in Betul District were 64,889 or about 14 per cent of the total population. The Census of 1961 enumerated 10,539 agricultural labourers or 19 per cent of the total workers, viz., 54,092. The problem of agricultural labourers is a part of wider problem of unemployment and under-employment in rural areas. The Five Year Plans included proposals for the settlement of landless agricultural labour and protection against ejection from homesteads. For checking labour exploitation, the minimum rates of wages have been fixed in different scheduled employments. However, the rates prevalent in Betul were as under.—

(In Rs.)

Category	June 1955	Nov. 1955	June 1957	Nov. 1957	June 1958	Nov. 1958
Skilled Labour : Carpenter	1.25	1.37	2.00	2.25	2.00	2.00
Blacksmith	1.56	1.60	1.75	2.00	1.50	2.00
Cobbler	—	—	2.50	2.50	2.00	2.25
Field labour	0.94	1.60	—	—	1.00	1.12
Other agricultural labour	0.75	0.69	—	—	1.00	1.00
Herdsmen	0.50	0.50	—	—	1.25	1.25

Category	June. 1959	Nov. 1959	June 1960	Nov. 1960	June 1961	Nov. 1961	June 1962
Skilled Labour : Carpenter	2.50	2.50	2.00	2.50	2.50	3.00	3.25
Blacksmith	1.75	2.00	3.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	2.50
Cobbler	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.00	2.00	2.25
Field labour	1.00	1.00	1.25	1.25	1.25	1.25	1.25
Other agricultural labour	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.12
Herdsmen	1.25	1.25	1.25	1.25	1.12	1.12	1.00

Category	Nov. 1962	June 1963	Nov. 1963	June 1964	Nov. 1964	June 1965
Skilled Labour : Carpenter	3.00	3.25	3.75	3.75	4.00	5.00
Blacksmith	2.75	3.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	4.00
Cobbler	2.00	2.50	2.75	2.75	2.50	3.00
Field labour	1.25	1.50	1.50	1.63	—	2.00
Other agricultural labour	1.00	1.12	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.75
Herdsmen	1.12	1.06	1.25	1.25	1.50	1.50

OTHER SOURCES OF REVENUE

The enactment of the Charter Act, 1853, was an important event in financial history of India as it vastly changed the character of the Government

and brought about a highly centralised and imperialistic administration. Thereafter, a series of revisions were made till the Government of India Act, 1919, based on the recommendations by Mr. Montague and Lord Chelmsford, was passed. The revenues of India, till then were classified into "Indian," "Provincial" and "Divided" heads, when following the introduction of Montague-Chelmsford Reforms, the divided heads were abolished and a complete separation took place between the Central and Provincial revenues. Since, the adoption of "Devolution Rules" two types of revenues, namely, Central and Provincial (now State) have been current in the Country.

The important items of Central revenues in the District are Union Excise Duties, Income Tax and Estate Duty. Some particulars about these are given below:

Union Excise

The important excisable commodities in the District are tobacco, vegetable non-essential oils, cotton fabrics, soap, motor spirit, medicine, cotton yarn, copper and copper alloys, big iron steel ingots, package tea, etc. Central excise on tobacco came in force from 1943 and on vegetable non-essential oils from 1956. The annual receipts from these sources in the District from 1950-51 to 1964-65 are given below.—

Year	Amount (in Rupees)
1950-51	1,53,655
1951-52	1,50,985
1952-53	1,70,843
1953-54	1,79,534
1954-55	1,70,805
1955-56	1,82,645
1956-57	1,69,213
1957-58	2,30,257
1958-59	2,52,007
1959-60	3,14,670
1960-61	2,43,721
1961-62	2,64,749
1962-63	3,01,523
1963-64	2,47,175
1964-65	3,21,739

Income Tax

The Income Tax is a direct tax on income and was first introduced in Central Provinces as far back as 1861-62. It was formerly imposed for a period of five years only to meet the financial dislocation caused by the Great Uprising and was abolished in 1865-66. In the year 1869-70, the Government of India again levied the tax on all incomes, including the agricultural income, at the

general rate of one per cent, but again abolished in 1873-74. The Income Tax was again reshaped in 1886, and became a permanent feature of the taxation system. After the enactment of Income Tax Act, 1922, a separate administrative machinery for the assessment and collection of Income Tax was created as till then it formed a part of the duties of the Revenue Department of the Province. At present the assessment and collection of Income Tax in Betul District is the duty of the Income Tax Officer, Bhopal Circle. The Income Tax Officer has also been entrusted with the assessment and collection of three more taxes, viz., Wealth Tax, Gift Tax and Expenditure Tax, which have been brought into force recently. Betul District is mostly inhabited by poor people and the number of Income Tax payers is quite small in proportion to its population. There are no industries. The total number of Income-Tax assesseees during the year 1960-61 was 420 only. The revenue fluctuates from year to year, depending on the business conditions. The receipts from Income Tax in Betul District from the year 1950-51 onward are given below.—

Year	Amount (in Rupees)
1950-51	1,04,114
1951-52	1,76,392
1952-53	82,508
1953-54	67,177
1954-55	45,105
1955-56	70,814
1956-57	47,573
1957-58	1,24,637
1958-59	2,57,041
1959-60	3,00,693
1960-61	1,97,369
1961-62	2,26,145
1962-63	1,57,437
1963-64	5,21,747
1964-65	6,22,143

Receipts from State Sources

Besides Land Revenue, other important sources of State revenues are Forests, Sales Tax, Stamps, Taxes on Motor Vehicles and Registration. The following paras give a brief account of these items of taxation and the receipts from them:

State Excise

The excise revenue is derived both from direct and indirect taxation and is collected under the Central Provinces and Berar Excise Act, 1915. State excise is assessed on imported and country liquors, opium, *ganja*, *bhang*, etc. Excise revenue had been always very substantial source of revenue. The revenue from country spirits and fermented liquor was Rs. 1.23 lakhs for the

decade ending 1901 and Rs. 1.85 lakhs in 1904-05. The average revenue from opium and *ganja* for the decade ending 1901 was Rs. 25,400 and in 1904-05 nearly Rs. 27,600. The income from Excise in the year 1880-81, 1890-91 and 1903-04 was Rs. 1.03 lakhs, Rs. 1.55 lakhs and Rs. 1.64 lakhs, respectively. The following Table gives an idea of the annual receipts from Excise during the period from 1950-51 to 1964-65. —

Year	Amount (in Rupees)
1950-51	3,64,460
1951-52	6,99,888
1952-53	9,06,195
1953-54	9,06,614
1954-55	8,97,857
1955-56	7,09,613
1956-57	7,38,975
1957-58	8,90,322
1958-59	10,35,866
1959-60	11,00,444
1960-61	15,05,464
1961-62	4,67,630
1962-63	5,28,030
1963-64	6,62,480
1964-65	8,48,730

Forest

This District abounds in good quality Forests. The income from forests during 1880-81 was Rs. 42,000. In 1890-91, and in 1900-01, it was Rs. 66,000 and Rs. 79,000, respectively, and rose to Rs. 80,000 in 1904-05. During the year 1923-24 an income of Rs. 2,27,687 accrued from the forests. The forests are generally sold by auction and the responsibility for collection of revenue derived, therefore, is with the Forest Department. The Act under which the revenue is collected is the Sales of Goods Act, 1930, applied to the Forest Division comprising this District from 1st July, 1930. The sources of collection of the revenue are, (i) Departmental agencies, (ii) vendors, and (iii) *nistar* panchayats. The receipts from forests have been continuously increasing, as can be reviewed from the Table given below.—

Year	Amount (in Rupees)
1950-51	17,70,681
1951-52	21,72,493
1952-53	20,73,176
1953-54	23,54,103
1954-55	25,26,327
1955-56	28,24,269

Year	Amount (in Rupees)
1956-57	34,99,950
1957-58	48,10,296
1958-59	53,81,630
1959-60	55,43,505
1960-61	50,29,998
1961-62	39,34,471
1962-63	45,90,697

Sales Tax

The Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Act, 1947, (XXI of 1947) came into force from 1st June, 1947. Prior to this, the Excise Department at the District level, was also maintaining the administration of Sales Tax. Subsequently, this Act was replaced by Madhya Pradesh General Sales Tax Act, 1958 (II of 1959) which is in force since 1st April, 1959. Betul being a relatively small District, no particular difficulty has been experienced in the administration of the Act. The annual receipts of Sales Tax from the year 1952-53 onwards are given below.—

Year	Amount (in Rupees)
1952-53	1,74,792
1953-54	1,56,800
1954-55	2,06,724
1955-56	2,22,794
1956-57	2,99,269
1957-58	2,13,357
1958-59	2,30,539
1959-60	2,87,659
1960-61	3,29,875
1961-62	3,93,616
1962-63	3,02,621
1963-64	6,02,805
1964-65	8,75,703

Stamps

The income from the sales of stamps of various denominations, both judicial and non-judicial comes under this head. The annual receipts from this items during 1880-81, 1890-91 and 1904-05 were Rs. 31,000, Rs. 41,000 and

Rs. 36,000, respectively. The following Table exhibits the annual receipts from the year 1950-51 onwards.—

Year	Amount (in Rupees)
1950-51	1,56,638
1951-52	1,10,112
1952-53	1,17,172
1953-54	1,21,525
1954-55	93,010
1955-56	1,18,128
1956-57	1,45,192
1957-58	1,59,141
1958-59	1,80,975
1959-60	1,59,700
1960-61	1,86,164
1961-62	2,05,493
1962-63	2,12,165
1963-64	2,50,103
1964-65	3,11,122

Taxes on Motor Vehicles

The income under this head is derived from the registration of motor vehicles, issue of licences to drivers, conductors, etc., which are levied under the Motor Vehicles Taxation Act and is administered by the Transport Department. The Table given below will show that the receipts under this head became substantial, only from the year 1957-58.—

Year	Amount (in Rupees)
1950-51	19,086
1951-52	43,110
1952-53	18,674
1953-54	20,530
1954-55	20,369
1955-56	24,237
1956-57	37,053
1957-58	1,32,817
1958-59	1,31,793
1959-60	1,23,182
1960-61	1,23,545
1961-62	1,18,114
1962-63	1,18,508
1963-64	1,42,301
1964-65	2,12,320

Registration

Under the Indian Registration Act, 1908, documents of sales, gifts, etc., are required to be registered. At present, the seat of the District Registrar is at Betul, while the offices of the Sub-Registrars are located at each of the three tahsil head-quarters, i. e., Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi.

The annual income under this head, comprising registration fee, copying fee, etc., is given below.—

Year	Amount (in Rupees)
1950-51	37,352
1951-52	29,124
1952-53	32,525
1953-54	32,895
1954-55	29,407
1955-56	29,276
1956-57	38,595
1957-58	45,717
1958-59	46,555
1959-60	52,748
1960-61	49,613
1961-62	48,508
1962-63	44,934
1963-64	50,363
1964-65	53,077

CHAPTER XII

LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

History of Judiciary Organization

The origin of a systematic administration of Law and Justice in the revenue District of Betul was coincident with the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861. During the preceding period under the British, i.e., from 1818 to 1861, "Civil Justice was administered by a judge and a native Judicial staff formed after the model of the North-West Provinces, and consisting of Principal Sudder Ameens, Sudder Ameens and Moonsiffs; and under a Procedure Code prepared by Mr. A. A. Roberts when he held the office of Judge."¹

On the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861 the first step taken in the direction of reorganization of Civil Judiciary was the abolition of 'Principal Sudder Ameens,' 'Sudder Ameens' and 'Moonsiffs' and the extension of the Civil Procedure Act (No. VIII of 1859) throughout the Provinces. The result was the emergence of an organized system of administration of Law and Justice. The courts of original jurisdiction were located within the District, whereas those which had appellate powers were located outside the District. At the headquarters of the District, i.e., at Betul, the Deputy Commissioner and his assistant had their Courts, and in the interior of the District, i.e., at tahsil places, there were the 'tahsildaree courts'. These were courts with original jurisdiction. The District having been in the Saugor Division the Commissioner with his seat at Saugor had appellate jurisdiction over it. The Judicial Commissioner with his court at Nagpur then exercised the highest appellate authority in the Provinces. The Tahsildars, known also as Sub-Collectors, were classified into two judicial grades, i.e., First Grade and Second Grade, according to their length of service and experience.

The Deputy Commissioner, as head of the District, not only tried suits with no pecuniary limit, but also heard appeals from the decisions of the subordinate Civil Courts of the District specified in Act XIV of 1865, i.e., Courts of the Assistant Commissioner and Tahsildars.

This was the set up of Civil Judiciary, to begin with, in the Central Provinces. Though the Civil Procedure Code was introduced in 1861-62, it took actual effect

in these courts only at the close of 1862. Prior to its introduction the Punjab Code of Civil Procedure was in operation.

The Commissionaries were reconstituted in 1863, resulting in the birth of Nerbudda Division and Betul District was transferred to the Nerbudda Division. Consequently the Commissioner of Nerbudda Division became the Divisional appellate authority for this District.

Since the civil, magisterial and executive authorities were vested in the same body of officers, it resulted in the delayed disposal of many cases. It was, therefore, arranged, mainly at the suggestion of the then Judicial Commissioner, J. Strachey that "the whole of the suits at the Central Station of each district (save those suits which came before the Deputy Commissioner) shall ordinarily be tried by one Officer, whose Court will be called the Station Court—they will be known to the people as the Courts devoted to Civil Justice."¹ The Assistant Commissioner at Betul, therefore, was to preside over the Station Court for Civil Judiciary.

The Civil Judiciary saw further expansion with the appointment of Naib-Tahsildars or Deputy Sub-Divisional Officers. These officers were empowered to try Civil cases of a small nature, i.e. suits upto Rs. 50 under section 6 of Act XIV of 1865 (Central Provinces Courts' Act). In other words the Naib-Tahsildars' Courts were ancillary Civil Courts opened in special localities to meet the pressure of petty Civil litigation.

Though, with the establishment of these courts the civil Judiciary was well organized, the illiterate poorer classes who often were the debtors could not make proper use of them, for the courts worked with the regularity of a 'machinery' which was more readily understood by the creditors. The latter found these Courts as a 'cheap machinery' for collecting their debts at once. It was also a practice to employ pleaders even in the pettiest cases. The Judicial Commissioner had, therefore, to issue a Circular Order warning the Judge against giving the creditors costs in such cases. "And now, the necessity of considering the equity of allowing interest at the rate entered in bonds and agreements has been enjoined on the Courts, and the circular instructions of the Judges of the Chief Court, Punjab, not to award exorbitant interest to money-lenders who may have used undue influence in making a cultivator or other simple individual enter into a glaringly imprudent contract, have been circulated for guidance."²

In 1872-73 the station court was invested with the highest powers an Assistant could legally exercise. Since appeals from that court lay to the Commissioner, the appellate work there became heavier than that with the Deputy Commissioner. In other words the four Commissioners had more Civil Judicial work than the 19 Deputy Commissioners of the Provinces. And the work load of the Com-

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1862 (upto August 1862), p. 15.

1. Ibid., 1863-64, p. 30.

2. Ibid., 1872-73, p. VI.

missioner of Nerbudda Division was so heavy that a relief for him became inevitable. Revising the existing system the Chief Commissioner, therefore, ruled that "there shall not be either at headquarters or at an out-station more than one officer exercising simultaneously the same class of judicial powers, unless exceptional circumstances shall compel a departure from the rule, in which case a special report must be made, and sanction to other arrangements obtained. Tahsildars at the headquarters of a district shall, in future, take up all civil suits within their competency to the extent to which the Deputy Commissioner thinks they conveniently can. At the headquarters of every district there shall be a Station Court presided over by an Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioner, who shall have the powers of a Court of the 3rd or 4th Class under the Central Provinces' Courts' Act, 1865, i.e., shall have powers to hear all suits upto Rs. 500 or Rs. 1000 in value. This Officer will hear all suits above the competency of the Tahsildars but within his own, and such suits within the competency (as regards primary jurisdiction) of the headquarters Tahsildars as the Deputy Commissioner may wish to assign to him so as to relieve the Tahsildar. Suits above Rs. 1000 in value will be laid in the smaller districts in the Court of the Deputy Commissioner himself, in the larger district in the Court of an Assistant Commissioner invested with the powers of a Court of the 5th Class."¹

In 1884 the question of reorganizing and strengthening the Civil Courts upto the Commissioner's level, aiming at the separation of Civil Judiciary, received active consideration. The scheme envisaged the establishment of new Civil Courts in all places where there was enough work to occupy a separate judge. As a result of this the Central Provinces Civil Courts Act, 1885, came into force on 1st January 1886. The major reforms brought about by this Act were (i) the power to the local Government to appoint Judicial Assistants, Civil Judges and *Munsiffs*, with all or any of the powers of Commissioners, Deputy Commissioners and Tahsildars, respectively, and (ii) the change regarding the venue of appeals, which was to be determined by the nature of value of the suit.

Munsiffs' Courts were established subsequently (1885-86 onwards) at headquarters of Tahsil places in which the Civil work was heavy. These officers were additional Tahsildars, but were called '*Munsiffs*' in the Central Provinces Civil Courts Act XVI of 1885. A *Munsiff* enjoyed partly or fully the powers of the Court of a Tahsildar. An important feature of the scheme was that if a Naib-Tahsildar of a particular tahsil exercised Civil Judicial powers, the establishment of the Court of a *Munsiff* should be in lieu of that of the former. So also if the Civil appellate work was too heavy for the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioner should be appointed as Civil Judges with appellate powers. Appeals from decrees passed in original suits by courts subordinate to the court of the Deputy Commissioner lay to that Court when the value of the suit did not exceed Rs. 1,000.

1. Ibid., 1872-73, p. X.

In a Resolution issued in February, 1889 the Chief Commissioner directed that Naib-Tahsildars should be invested with Civil Powers under Section II of Act XVI of 1885 so as to afford further relief to the Tahsildars from Civil work. This was followed by the appointment of a Judicial Assistant each to the Commissioners of Nerbudda and Jabalpur Divisions in 1891-92. This not only relieved the Commissioner of all this Civil work, but also marked a beginning in the direction of separation of Civil Judiciary from the Executive.

The separation thus begun was further ensured by the submission of a bill in the year 1900 by the Judicial Commissioner to amend the Civil Courts Act formally withdrawing all civil powers from the Executive staff. Consequently the Judicial Assistant to the Commissioner became the Divisional Judge, Civil Judges became District Judges; Extra Assistant Commissioner selected for Civil work was designated Subordinate Judge; and Naib-Tahsildars were relieved of all civil work. Tahsildars were also relieved of civil work except for trying suits between landlords and tenants in certain rare cases. The *Munsiffs* continued to function as before.

During the early years of the present century the organization of Civil Judiciary in Betul District may be described thus: It "consists of a District Judge, who also performs the duties of subordinate judge, and of a *Munsiff* at each Tahsil. The Tahsildars have civil powers as additional Judges to the *Munsiffs*, for the purposes of hearing suits under the Tenancy Act. The Divisional and Sessions Judge of the Nerbudda Division has a jurisdiction in Betul."¹

The Judicial Department was further reorganised in 1917. The Courts of Divisional Judges were abolished and the Province was divided into nine Civil Districts, each under a District and Sessions Judge. This District was placed under the Jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Hoshangabad.

In 1924, by the C. P. Courts Act (VIII of 1924) the Subordinate Judges and *Munsiffs* were designated as Subordinate Judges, 1st Class, and Subordinate Judges, 2nd Class, respectively. The pecuniary limit of the jurisdiction of Subordinate Judges, 2nd Class, was raised to Rs. 5,000.

Towards the close of 1931 the Nerbudda Division was abolished and Betul District was placed in the Nagpur Division an arrangement which continued till 1956. The District continued under the civil jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Hoshangabad.

In 1933 the Central Provinces Courts Act 1917 (1 of 1917) was amended by Act I of 1933. Consequently the Small Causes Court powers of Subordinate Judges of the First and Second class were extended to Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 500, respectively. Another important event of the year was the passing of the Central Provinces Debt Conciliation Act (II of 1933). In 1934 Debt Conciliation Boards with the Subordinate Judges as their Chairman were constituted at various places.

1. Betul District Gazetteer, 1908, p. 217.

This reduced the number of litigation of a small cause nature. From 9th January, 1934, the court of Judicial Commissioner was abolished and a chartered High Court for C. P. and Berar was established at Nagpur.

With the promulgation of the C.P. & Berar Relief of Indebtedness Act, 1939 (XIV of 1939) the Subordinate Judges were required to function as Judges of the Debt Relief Courts as well. This resulted in the overburdening of these cessation judges. With the of new institutions under the Relief of Indebtedness Act in 1942, the Subordinate Judges were relieved of their additional work.

The Civil powers enjoyed by Executive Officers under Tenancy Act were withdrawn consequent on the amendment of the C. P. Tenancy Act 1920 (I of 1920) by the C. P. Tenancy (Second amendment) Act 1947 (XXXII of 1947) which came into force from 1st January 1949. And these officers were left with the trial of only consent money suits subject to a specified pecuniary limit.

By Act No. 99 of 1945 the designations of the Subordinate Judges, Class I and Class II, were changed into Civil Judges, Class I and Class II, respectively. Consequent on the passing of the M. P. Civil Courts Act, 1958 (19 of 1958) separate Courts of Civil Judges, Class I and Class II, were established at Betul in addition to the existing court of the Additional District and Sessions Judge. Another Court of a Civil Judge Class II, was established at Multai. The Court of Civil Judge, Class I, at Betul was, however, kept vacant. The civil Judge, Class II, Betul, tried and disposed of cases arising from Betul and Bhainsdehi Tehsil at Betul. As this Court did not have full time work, it was linked with the court of Civil Judge, Class II, Multai. This arrangement continued till the court vacation of 1961, when the Civil Judge, Class II, at Betul was withdrawn and posted at Multai. This Court of Civil Judge, Class II, Multai was linked with Betul for trial and disposal of Class II work at Betul on a linked Court system—a position which obtains till today.

Betul Revenue District formed part of Hoshangabad Civil district till the 14th August 1961. Thereafter consequent on the reconstitution of Civil districts, Betul was placed in the Civil District of Chhindwara.

Criminal Justice

In 1862 the Code of Criminal Procedure (Act XIV of 1861), was introduced and extended throughout the Provinces as part of the programme for reorganization of Criminal Judiciary. The Executive staff of the District, viz., the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, Extra Assistant Commissioner and the Tahsildars, were responsible for the administration of Criminal Justice. The Courts of the Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner and Extra Assistant Commissioner were located at the headquarters of the District, whereas those of the Tahsildars in the interior of the District.

The Tahsildars on the Criminal judicial side were classified under two grades as in the case of the Civil Courts. The 1st grade Tahsildar had powers of a Sub-

ordinate Magistrate of the 2nd or 1st class under Section 22 of the Code of Criminal procedure. The 2nd grade Tahsildar enjoyed powers of a Subordinate Magistrate 2nd class under the same section of the Criminal Procedure Code. The Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners at a higher level, exercised powers of 1st or 2nd Class Subordinate Magistrate or of a Magistrate. Above them was the Deputy Commissioner or District Magistrate who had full First Class magisterial powers and could try all cases except those punishable with death, and inflict punishment upto seven years' imprisonment. In addition to full magisterial powers this officer heard appeals from convictions by his Subordinate Magistrates. Powers of a Sessions Judge were vested in the Divisional Commissioner who could try all cases committed to him by the Magistrates. He was also empowered to pass the most severe sentence allowed by law. He also heard appeals from the orders of Magistrates with full powers. Over all these officers was the Judicial Commissioner whose Court was the Chief Appellate Court for Criminal Judiciary. This Court had powers of a *Sadar* or High Court. The Judicial Commissioner also had powers of revision given by the Code of Criminal Procedure to the *Sadar Court*.

In order to extend the sphere of Criminal Judiciary to the interior of the District responsible local gentlemen were vested with magisterial powers in 1862-63 to function as 'Honorary Magistrates'. A manual for their guidance was also introduced in 1862.

Having been under the Saugor Division the Sessions work of the District was looked after by the Commissioner at Saugor. In 1863, when the Commissioneries were reconstituted, the District of Betul was placed under the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Nerbudda Division.

The above Courts, except that of the Commissioner were presided over by the respective officers singly, i. e., unassisted by either jury or assessors. In the Sessions Court the Commissioner was assisted by the assessors. Later when the Naib-Tahsildars were appointed in Tahsil places to assist the Tahsildars they were invested with subordinate magisterial powers (criminal) of 2nd class. In these courts also only a single officer presided.

As already mentioned, the practice hitherto was that in the magisterial courts the officer concerned presided singly. A departure from this practice was rendered by Act X of 1872. It ruled that while trying important cases the Magistrates should take the assistance of juries consisting of three persons. Consequently the Code of Criminal Procedure was amended. It was also provided under Section 36 that the District Magistrate and other 1st class Magistrates, i.e., Deputy Commissioner, Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners, could exercise 'Summary Powers'. This was extended to the Honorary Magistrates as well.

The Deputy Commissioner, as District Magistrate, was responsible for the supervision of the work of benches of Honorary Magistrates. In order to effect

their gradual improvement. Stipendiary Magistrates were associated with these Benches. In 1890, however, it was ruled that Police cases should not be sent to inexperienced Honorary Magistrates. It was further provided that unless their efficiency was well established in cases of petty nature, those of a higher standard should not be sent to them. Instructions were also issued that the Deputy Commissioner should only take up really important cases himself leaving all the rest to be disposed of by the Subordinate magistracy, for the primary duty of the Deputy Commissioner was the systematic supervision of the work of the subordinate courts.

On 1st January, 1892, an additional Sessions Judge was appointed for the Nerbudda Division consequently the Commissioner of the division was relieved of the Sessions cases.

In 1910 the Central Provinces Courts Act 1904, was amended by Act XI of 1910. Accordingly Benches of two Judges were now to sit to hear appeals from persons sentenced for death and for the confirmation of death sentences. In 1911-12, the posts of Sub-Divisional Magistrates were created. Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners were placed in charge of Tahsils and were vested with the powers of Sub-Divisional Magistrates.

In 1917 the Province was divided into nine Civil Districts, each under a District and Sessions Judge. The district of Betul fell under the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge at Hoshangabad.

On 9th January, 1936 a High Court replaced the court of the Judicial Commissioner. In 1956, consequent on the reorganization of States the High Court was shifted to Jabalpur, its present seat. On 15th August, 1961 the District became part of the civil District of Chhindwara. A major change in the set-up of Criminal Judiciary was effected only in 1962 when it was separated completely from the Executive.

INCIDENCE OF CRIMES

The Crime problem in the District is comparatively light. As such it presents no special features. Leaving aside the serious crimes like dacoity, robbery and murders, the crimes of common occurrence in the District, ranging according to their total number, are Miscellaneous I. P. C. Crimes, ordinary thefts, burglary, cattle theft, kidnapping and riots. During the past nine years these crimes have been showing great fluctuation. The crimes under various heads showed a considerable decrease in 1963, but their number presented an upward trend in 1964. The rise is, however, not appalling. The Table shows the general crime situation in the District from 1956 to 1969.

Year	Murder	Dacoity	Robbery	Riot	Burglary	Cattle theft	Ordinary theft	Kidnapping	Misc. IPC Crimes
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1956	16	2	14	13	188	20	373	21	268
1957	17	—	6	15	159	28	425	8	238
1958	12	—	1	10	128	23	362	13	299
1959	18	—	2	9	109	19	297	14	310
1960	20	—	1	17	119	27	331	15	281
1961	22	—	2	8	138	24	312	10	670
1962	20	—	3	14	184	20	341	14	815
1963	18	2	9	9	165	23	332	14	352
1964	17	—	7	22	187	36	397	16	458
1965	28	1	7	23	221	36	366	9	738
1966	21	—	3	24	271	39	428	12	704
1967	15	—	6	7	322	34	465	7	665
1968	31	—	7	29	290	31	321	16	665
1969	26	—	10	29	276	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.

The Cognizable crimes reported, their investigation, trial and conviction or discharge are tabulated below.—

Year	No. of cases reported	No. of cases Investigated	No. of cases sent up for trial	No. of persons		Acquitt. Discharge
				Tried	Convicted	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1956	915	838	572	853	549	300
1957	996	910	536	674	501	173
1958	848	765	568	693	434	259
1959	778	718	509	597	365	232
1960	811	721	678	870	686	184
1961	1,166	1,076	967	1,106	837	269
1962	1,411	1,345	1,016	1,436	1,112	324
1963	924	234	592	976	770	206
1964	1,140	1,074	719	904	718	186
1965	2,657	2,815	2,404	3,218	2,995	169
1966	2,435	2,394	1,882	2,582	2,064	447
1967	2,071	2,029	1,264	2,170	1,734	336
1968	2,102	2,077	1,512	2,581	1,851	461

Ordinary Thefts

The Table below depicts the position of the ordinary thefts during the period 1956-1968.—

Year	No. of cases	Value of property involved (Rs.)
1	2	3
1956	373	15,610
1957	425	38,272
1958	362	27,622
1959	297	31,256
1960	331	15,339
1961	312	24,928
1962	341	37,273
1963	332	21,738
1964	397	45,284
1965	366	48,475
1966	428	48,215
1967	465	64,981
1968	321	83,482

Miscellaneous Thefts

As recorded in the District these include stealing of copper wire, cattle, cycles, motor-cycles and accessories, and fire-arms. Thefts under this category numbered 25 in 1956; 33 in 1957; 38 in 1958; 25 in 1959; 43 in 1960; 31 in 1961; 27 in 1962; 32 in 1966; 45 in 1964; 55 in 1965; 59 in 1966; 80 in 1967; 58 in 1968 and 84 in 1969.

Cases other than ordinary and miscellaneous thefts also constitute a sizable number of offences against property. Details of such cases and amount of property stolen and recovered during the past nine years are given in the Table below.—

Year	No. of cases in which property		Percentage of property recovered to stolen	Total Value of property		Percentage of Value recovered to stolen.
	Stolen	Recovered.		Stolen (Rs.)	recovered (Rs.)	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1956	576	193	33.50	48,187	14,088	29.20
1957	606	256	42.20	66,116	21,019	31.70
1958	496	181	36.40	91,327	28,065	30.70
1959	415	173	41.60	61,235	15,531	25.30
1960	452	181	40.00	41,733	11,911	28.50
1961	438	198	45.20	19,1696	42,583	22.80
1962	515	281	54.56	1,18,169	21,338	18.05
1963	514	280	54.47	71,200	30,260	42.50
1964	590	253	43.24	96,388	32,690	33.91

The crime situation regarding offences against property, human body and public tranquillity having been discussed, we may pass on to offences against local Acts, such as, Excise Act, Gambling Act and Prohibition Act. These crimes present the following statistics during the period 1956-68.

Year	Excise Act		Gambling Act	
	Cases	Persons	Cases	Persons
1956	190	203	26	119
1957	164	199	33	142
1958	199	208	32	108
1959	131	262	32	121
1960	188	209	41	183
1961	158	193	26	119
1962	159	179	39	179
1963	120	159	54	253
1964	194	208	74	367
1965	356	411	52	314
1966	291	332	77	414
1967	152	154	71	316
1968	206	212	112	310

It was observed that cases under the Prohibition Act constitute a negligible number in this District.

To sum up the general crime situation in the whole of the District, important crimes are mostly reported from the police stations of Amla, Multai and Betul. Professional offences are more commonly reported from police stations of Multai, Bordehi, Amla and Sainkheda mainly owing to the operations of local gangs of Katias, Maharas and Bhoyars immigration criminals of Chhindwara District.

ORGANIZATION OF THE POLICE FORCE

Before the advent of the British, no regular and separate police force existed in the District. But the Police of the 'Saugor and Nerbudda territories' came under a revision as part of the programme for reorganization of the entire Police Force in the Central Provinces in 1862. The new Police Force was to be constituted out of the existing Military and Civil Police, Municipal Police and the Village Police.

In 1862, the system of foot-police of the regular police force functioning as personal guards to civil officers was abolished. Such guards were provided thereafter only when Civil officers proceeded on inspection duties.

The maintenance of 'Village Servants' or 'Village Police' in the interior villages of tahsil places had been an old practice. Their function was to assist

the land-holders and petty proprietors who were vested with limited police authority prescribed by common law, in detecting petty crimes and helping the regular police in tracing the culprits of serious offences.

The Constabulary of the newly constituted Central Provinces thus had the Inspector-General of Police as its chief of staff, assisted by two Deputy Inspectors-General. The post of the Deputy Inspector General was abolished in 1864. The head of the Constabulary stationed in the District was the District Superintendent of Police, occasionally assisted by an Assistant Superintendent. An Assistant Superintendent was appointed only when the work load was found to be very heavy for the Superintendent of Police, or when an emergent situation warranted so. Subordinate to him were the Inspectors, Head constables and Constables. The highest grade the 'Indians' could aspire for was that of the Inspector. The Police in the District, though departmentally independent, was to act under the general direction of the Magistrate.

In order to ensure greater efficiency in the detection of crimes, arrangements were made to instruct the Police in Criminal Law and Procedure and also general education whenever such necessity was felt. Facilities were provided for the schooling of illiterate 'Indians' policemen at the headquarters of the District.

Prevention and detection of crimes were not the only duties of the Police of the Central Provinces. They were required to perform several miscellaneous duties. "Thus they serve summonses; in municipal towns they supervise and control conservancy arrangements; in towns and also in rural circles they collect vital and mortality statistics; they have a good deal to do with escorting prisoners, treasure, etc; they manage cattle pounds.....In addition to all this, they are utilized in out-breaks of epidemic to distribute medicines and medical comforts in infected areas, and to see that disinfection is properly carried out."¹

During the early years of the present century the District of Betul had its District Superintendent of Police, 2 Inspectors, 5 Sub-Inspectors, 51 Head-Constables, 2 mounted Constables and 260 Constables. No special reserve force was maintained in the District. The ordinary reserve consisted of eight officers and 37 men. The District was divided into seven Station-houses, viz., Badnur, Shahpur, Chicholi, Bhainsdehi, Athnair, Amla and Multai, and 22 out post circles. For an area of 12 sq. miles and population of 400 persons there was one policeman.

In order to cope up with the increasing work and ensure the efficiency of the Prosecution Branch, one post of Assistant Police Prosecutor was created on 1st January, 1946. In 1950 one more post of Assistant Police Prosecutor was created, chiefly for Multai. These two posts continued till 1964, but the post of Assistant Public Prosecutor at Betul was abolished in the same year, only to be

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1877-78, p. XXI.

revived on 1st June, 1956 in accordance with the recommendations of the Police Reorganization Committee. The Police Prosecutor was formerly known as Prosecution Inspector. In 1946 this designation was changed to District Police Prosecutor and was redesignated as Police Prosecutor in 1959.

In addition to the above staff, and also as part of the District Force, certain separate branches have been functioning in the District. In 1942 the District Special Branch was constituted with one Sub-Inspector and two Head Constables. Another post of Sub-Inspector was created in 1953 for counter-espionage work. A District Crime Branch was subsequently formed with one Sub-Inspector, one Head Constable and one Constable. On 1st January 1959 one post of Assistant Sub-Inspector and one post of constable were created for the *Modus Operandi* Bureau. A Wireless Section was also formed for the District equipped with one static and one mobile sets and manned by two Head Constables and five constables operators.

Present Set-up

The present set-up of Police force in the District may be described thus. The Superintendent of Police is the head of the Police force in the District who supervises and controls the work of his sub-ordinates. One post of a Deputy Superintendent of Police was temporarily sanctioned for the District with effect from 1st August 1964, chiefly for the work connected with the re-settlement of displaced persons from East Pakistan. There is one Reserve Inspector who is responsible for the supervision of the Executive Force within the District and the Headquarters Reserve Police Lines. All special duties assigned to the Police Force, other than those connected with the station staff, are arranged by him. Recruitment to the ranks also forms part of his duty.

The two Circle Inspectors in charge of the two circles, viz., Betul and Multai, are stationed at their respective headquarters and look after the working of the Police Stations located therein. The Sub-Inspectors are in charge of the various Police Stations, assisted by junior Sub-Inspectors or Assistant Sub-Inspectors or both as the case may be. The increase in strength of Sub-Inspectors and Assistant Sub-Inspectors is dependent on the area covered under the particular Police Station or the volume of work there. At present there are 14 Police Stations and one out post in the District. Their details are shown in Appendix.

The prosecution branch consists of one Police Prosecutor with headquarters at Betul; and three Assistant Police Prosecutors, each for the tahsils of Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi. They all look after the criminal police cases of their respective areas of jurisdiction and maintain a record of previous convictions of criminals. They also maintain a record of the finger-prints of all criminals.

The District Crime Branch is staffed by one Sub-Inspector and one Head Constable; and the *Modus Operandi* Branch by one Assistant Sub-Inspector and one Head Constable. Their main duty is to help the Executive force in the

prevention and detection of crimes and also (especially the M.O.B.) to keep a watch on ex-convicts and habitual criminals.

The District Special Branch, manned by three Sub-Inspectors, two Assistant Sub-Inspectors, four Head Constables and three Constables, keeps a secret watch over the activities of different political parties, religious organizations and anti-national elements.

The year-wise strength and cost of the Civil Police in the District during the period 1956 to 1964 is tabulated below,—

Year	Superintendent/ Asstt. Supdt./ Dy. Supdt.	Inspectors Sub-Inspectors Assistant Sub- Inspectors.	Sergeant & Head Constables.	Foot (including water) Constables.	Total	Cost (Rs.)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1956	1	31	57	291	380	3,80,274
1957	1	31	57	291	380	3,94,146
1958	1	31	55	284	371	4,11,034
1959	1	31	55	284	371	3,04,108
1960	1	31	55	284	371	5,47,007
1961	1	31	60	293	385	4,92,457
1962	1	32	61	293	387	5,65,575
1963	1	34	62	319	416	5,15,389
1964	S. P. 1 D. S. P. 1	41	67	348	458	6,73,493
1965	—do—	41	67	367	477	—
1966	—do—	41	67	367	477	—
1967	—do—	37	64	361	464	—
1968	—do—	37	64	361	464	—

Railway Police

The Railway Police stationed at Amla, is under the Superintendent, Government Railway Police Western Section, Jabalpur. The Railway Police consists of one Sub-Inspector, two Head Constables and 10 Constables.

There are no separate units of Prohibition Squad and Anti-Corruption Police in the District

Home Guards

The scheme was inaugurated in the District in pursuance of Home Guards Act (XV of 1947). The organization at the District level is headed by the Company Commandant, Home Guards, Betul. The head of the organization in the state is the Commandant-General, Home Guards, Jabalpur.

The scheme aims at training young men on a quasi-military footing so that they may supplement the Police Force in cases of emergency. Young men who

volunteer for the training and fit into the prescribed physical measurements within the age group of 19 to 40 undergo training in drill, arms drill, weapon training, map-reading, field craft, musketry and Legal powers of *Nagar Sainik*, for a period of two months. Regulation of traffic and first aid to the injured also form part of their training. According to the Home Guards Act of 1947, a *Sainik*, on completion of training, has to serve for three years. Further continuance in service is discretionary. In case of emergency they are liable for active service under the District Magistrate. Certain selected candidates are given advanced training to function as Non-Commissioned Officers.

Till August 1961, 492 cadets were trained in 21 batches, each consisting of 24 cadets (except two batches of 22 and 14) at 12 centres. No training centre was engaged from 1962 to 1964. However, during 1964-65 to 1965-66, the headquarters training centre trained 100 cadets in three batches. The position of Homeguards in the District during 1963 and 1964 was as under.—

Year	Urban		Rural	
	NCOs	Sainiks	NCOs	Sainiks
1963	2	13	34	192
1964	2	12	28	134

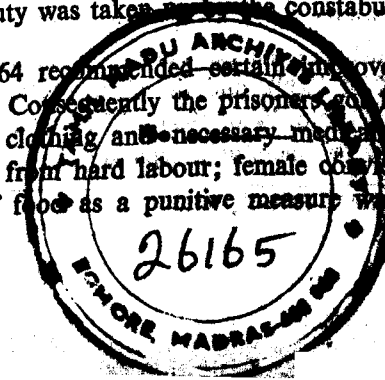
JAILS AND LOCK-UPS

Prisons' Organization

Situated in the heart of the town at one corner of the Kothi Bazar area, the Betul District Jail is one of the oldest jails in Madhya Pradesh. It is a class II jail. From a certain inscription on a small stone placed atop the office-room, it is inferred that, the jail building was either constructed or occupied near about the year 1817.

With the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861 the District Jail of Betul was placed under the executive charge of the Civil Surgeon under the District Officers, chiefly the Magistrates. This officer was empowered to punish prisoners for breaches of prison discipline. Prior to the formation of the Central Provinces the Jail was subject to periodical inspection by the Inspector of Prisons of the North-Western Provinces. Since this officer was to inspect the Jail from a far-off place, competent inspection was impossible. An Inspector of Prisons was appointed for the Central Provinces in 1862. When the Police Force was reorganized in 1861-62 the permanent guard duty was taken over by the constabulary.

The Indian Jail Committee of 1864 recommended certain improvements in the general management of the Jail. Consequently the prisoners got filtered or boiled water for drinking, requisite clothing and necessary medical relief. Weak and the very old were exempted from hard labour; female convicts got separate accommodation; diminution of food as a punitive measure was pro-



hibited, and the good conduct system was introduced. Prisoners were, however, classified according to their crimes and the nature of punishments awarded by distinctively coloured dresses. Under the good conduct system the prisoners were given 'hard,' 'medium' and 'light' labour. Those prisoners who showed appreciable signs of improvement were given only 'light' labour. The 'hard' labour included oil pressing, grinding wheat, sawing timber, grinding lime, pounding aloe fibre, breaking stone, earth work, and brick and tile-making. Facilities were also provided for their education, the course of instruction having been inspected by the District Inspector of Schools.

In 1870 the Prisons Act was passed. It had no special features to offer, as it aimed only at strengthening the existing rules. However, as a regard to the observance of discipline, prisoners earned one month's remission of their sentences every year. Misconduct or breach of prison discipline at once met with corporal punishments, solitary confinement, closed confinement with reduced diets and confinement in irons. In 1874, the Chief Commissioner directed that flogging should be resorted to sparingly and in exceptional cases.

In 1876 the appointment of Inspector-General of Jails was combined with that of the Inspector-General of Police. A new set of rules in the classification of prisoners, following those of the North-Western Provinces, was introduced. The distinguishing feature of such a classification was the segregation of habitual criminals under stricter discipline so that prison life could be made more distasteful to them. Further, "prisoners convicted for offences against property are required to be confined absolutely within jail gates, and are kept at intramural task work. An attempt also has been made to improve as far as possible labour in isolation, more especially with short-term men, so as to increase to some extent the deterrent effect of imprisonment. So long, however, as our prisoners pass so much of their life in companionship there is an element of cheerfulness connected with constant association, which softens the general effect of jail discipline."¹

In 1879, a reduced scale of diet was tried for the first time, as the prisoners being overfed rendered prison life an attractive one. Subsequently on 1st April, 1882, a new diet scale for all classes of prisoners was introduced.

Administrative reforms also were not neglected. Towards the close of 1889 the Government of India sanctioned a scheme for improving the pay of Jail officials and the substitution of warder guards for the police guards. In 1891 the convict-warder system was also introduced.

Certain jail reforms were further introduced towards the close of 1930's. They included the Central Provinces and Berar Prisons (Amendment) Act, 1939 (Act X of 1939), and the Central Provinces and Berar Prisoners (Amendment) Act, 1939 (No. IV of 1939). The former, which was repealed in 1940, recognized political prisoners as a separate class and made provision for preferential treat-

ment being accorded to them. The latter provided for the release on parole of well-behaved prisoners for short periods, under certain conditions, to enable them to visit their homes.

This was followed by the Post-Independence reforms which ensured more amenities to the prisoners. An issue of soap to all prisoners was sanctioned; the practice of taking Prisoners out of the jail for extra-mural work with fetters on was discontinued; long-term female prisoners were transferred to Central Jails to allow them better facilities; interviews were allowed on all days of the week instead of one two days only; and a pair of cotton bed-sheets were issued to each prisoner in addition to the woollen blankets already issued. The Central Provinces and Berar Prisoners (Amendment) Act, 1939, which provides for temporary release was brought into operation. The remission system was liberalized and the maximum remission earnable was raised from one fourth to one third of the sentence. The Superintendents' powers of awarding ordinary remission were increased from 15 to 30 days.

The District Jail

The Jail is managed by the Civil Surgeon who is the *ex-officio* Superintendent of the Jail. The subordinate staff consists of the Deputy Jailor, Assistant Jailor, three Head Warders, 15 Warders, one Assistant Medical Officer, one part-time Compounder, one Teacher, one Reformist Preacher, One Male Nurse and One Grazier. Since there is no full-time Superintendent, the Deputy Jailor is in charge of management and supervision of the Jail. Betul Jail has got the capacity to accommodate about 167 prisoners. There is a separate ward for the female prisoners also wherein nine convicts can be accommodated. A portion of the jail is set apart for the confinement of the old and infirm prisoners. Such prisoners are received here from adjacent areas as well. The overall control and supervision of the Jail rests with the Inspector-General of Prisoner with headquarters at Bhopal.

In addition to the District Jail there are two lock-ups in the District, one at Bhainsdehi and the other at Multai. Being located at the Sub-divisional headquarters of the District, these lock-ups are in the charge of the respective Judicial Magistrates. The lock-ups keep only undertrial prisoners and on conviction they are transferred to the District Jail.

Welfare of Prisoners

Experience has proved beyond doubt that harsh and rude treatment offered to a criminal only hardened his heart merciless treatment of prisoners often tempted them to become habitual originals. It, therefore, became necessary that a period of imprisonment should be a period of reconstruction of their body, mind and heart. Consequently, they are now being given on affectionate and psychological treatment which is ameliorative and educative.

1. Ibid., 1876-77, XII.

In the District Jail at Betul the prisoners thus have facilities for education, vocational training, games and recreation.

Education

A whole time teacher is on the regular staff of the Jail since 21st October, 1958. He holds regular classes and teaches the prisoners for the examination. The following Table will show the education among prisoners.—

Year	Name of Examination	No. of Prisoners appeared	No. of Prisoners Passed	Percentage of pass
1958	Praveshika	30	25	83
1959	"	75	70	93
1960	"	60	68	97
1961	"	68	65	96
1962	"	50	50	10
1963	"	70	65	93
1964	"	62	60	97
1965	"	20	16	80
1966	"	26	20	77
1967	"	51	44	86
1968	"	65	40	61
1969	"	50	45	90

There is a library attached to the school. It is equipped with about 200 books on religion, society and life of great national leaders.

Jail Industries

Niwar and Durri making has since long been the main industry of the Jail. The manufacture of cotton money-bags, for which there has been great demand from many treasuries, is a speciality of this Jail. The other industries of significance in this Jail are chick-making and manufacture of aloe-fibre rugs.

The Jail has a good garden occupying about eight acres of land with two wells providing irrigation facilities. The garden provides sufficient supply of vegetables to the inmates. The prisoners receive here training in agriculture and gardening on improved and scientific lines.

Games and Recreation

There is ample provision for games and recreation so that the prisoners may cultivate active habits. Indoor and outdoor games like *Kabaddi*, Carrom and Volley ball are being allowed. The Social Welfare Department has supplied a radio-set for the recreation and instruction of the inmates.

Jail Hospital

An Assistant Medical Officer (part-time) is in charge of the Jail Hospital. He resides in the Jail campus. To assist him there are one part-time compounder

and one male nurse. The Jail being a special jail for infirm convicts, all facilities for increased medical attention to such prisoners are available there. Whenever the work-load of the Assistant Medical Officer becomes heavy the Civil Surgeon also attends to the patients.

Board of Visitors

A Board of Visitors consisting of official and non-official members is selected triennially by the Commissioner, Bhopal Division. The present Board of Visitors has the Collector as its Chairman, Additional Sessions Judge as an official member and two non-official members. The Board holds quarterly meetings. A roster of visits is prepared for the year, according to which an official or non-official visitors will pay a visit to the Jail once in a month. In addition, every non-official visitor may visit the jail once a month at a time outside the prescribed roster after giving due notice to the Jail Superintendent.

A visitor is expected to satisfy himself, after an on-the-spot study, that the Jail is being managed according to the prescribed rules.

There is a separate ward for the accommodation of political prisoners. Many political leaders were confined here during the freedom struggle. A commemorative plate now hangs between the Main and Red gates bearing golden letters the names of those persons.

The total number of prisoners received and discharged annually from 1956 to 1968 given in Appendix.

Nyaya Panchayats

With the passage of the C. P. and Berar Panchayats Act 1946 (I of 1947) the Nyaya Panchayat Courts came into being in the District. The establishment of these institutions undoubtedly extended the sphere of Judiciary to the interior of the District, much to the relief of the litigant public. Consequently the courts of the Honorary Magistrates were abolished. There are at present 51 Nyaya Panchayats functioning in the District. Their tahsil wise location in the District is given in the Appendix.

The Nyaya Panchayats are empowered to entertain civil suits upto the value of Rs. 100. These Civil cases included (1) Suits for ascertained sums not exceeding Rs. 100, (2) Suits for damages not exceeding Rs. 100, (3) Suits for specific movable property or for the value there-off not exceeding Rs. 100 and (4) suits for compensation for wrongly taking or injuring movable property not exceeding Rs. 100 in value. The total number of civil cases thus disposed of was 1134 in 1959, 980 in 1960; 954 in 1961, 1075 in 1962; 892 in 1963 and 757 in 1964. On the criminal side they can try cases under certain sections of the I.P.C., the Cattle Trespass Act, Vaccination Act, Primary Education Act, Public Gambling Act, etc., and impose a fine not exceeding Rs. 100. The criminal cases disposed of annually from 1959 to 1964 numbered 2026, 2212, 1674, 1720, 1414 and 1959, respectively.

No legal practitioner can appear in the Nyaya Panchayat. The decisions of the Nyaya Panchayat are not appellable. Application for revision can, however, be filed with the Additional District and Sessions Judge or the Civil Judge, Class I, as the case may be. The number of Civil and Criminal cases annually filed for revision from the decisions of Nyaya Panchayats for the past seven years is tabulated below.—

Year	Pending at the beginning of the year.	Instituted or reinstituted during the year.	Otherwise received during the year.
(a) Nyaya Panchayat (Civil Revisions)			
1958	18	64	—
1959	23	41	—
1960	25	37	—
1961	37	43	—
1962	15	39	—
1963	15	46	—
1964	20	39	12
(b) Nyaya Panchayat (Criminal Revisions)			
1958	28	59	—
1959	13	64	—
1960	39	77	—
1961	67	65	—
1962	21	66	—
1963	29	39	—
1964	14	39	—

Separation of Judiciary from the Executive

At the dawn of the present century, the Civil Judiciary was separated from the Executive but the Criminal Judiciary still continued to be combined with Executive. However, the first step taken in this direction was the appointment of Judge Magistrates in accordance with the Government decision in July, 1950. Certain Judge Magistrates were thus appointed with First Class Magisterial powers and were entrusted with the disposal of purely criminal cases. Accordingly one Judge Magistrate's Court was established in Betul. In addition, another Magistrate was also to work on the same lines, though not designated as Judge Magistrate. The work of these magistrates along with that of others was subject to the periodical checking by the District and Sessions Judge.

The separation begun thus was further ensured when the State decided to have a separate class of service named 'Judicial Service' in accordance with the provision of chapter VI of the Constitution. The District Judges are now appointed by the Governor in consultation with the High Court; and other posts subordinate to the District Judge, through recruitment by the Public Service Commission according to rules framed by the Governor in consultation with the High Court.

The District saw a final and complete separation of Judiciary from the Executive on 1st February, 1962. By this the Executive officers were not completely deprived of their magisterial powers, for they continue to exercise powers in the prevention of crimes, which is apparently administrative. The Collector is thus the District Magistrate; the Deputy Collectors, Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars also enjoy such magisterial powers. But all these officers are called, in the parlance of Judiciary, 'Executive Magistrates' and are prohibited from exercising powers other than those related to the prevention of crimes. For the exclusive Criminal Judicial work the Civil Judges, Class I and Class II, are vested with Magisterial powers and are designated as 'Judicial Magistrates.' The separation, however, necessitated the opening of more courts in the District.

ORGANIZATION OF THE COURTS

As stated earlier the District is a part of the Civil District of Chhindwara and the head of the Civil District is the District and Sessions Judge, Chhindwara. The Additional District and Sessions Judge, Betul, and other Civil Judges at Betul and Multai (that at Bhainsdehi being only a linked court) are subordinate to the Sessions Judge stationed at Chhindwara. The following Courts are located in the District.

(1) Court of the Additional District and Sessions Judge

This court has its Jurisdiction over the revenue District of Betul. On the civil side the Additional District Judge has original jurisdiction for suits beyond Rs. 5000 in value and appellate jurisdiction upto Rs. 5000 in value. He also hears miscellaneous civil appeals from the orders of Civil Judges involving claims upto Rs. 5000 in value; cases under the Co-operative Societies Act; Civil Revisions under Section 101 (3) of the C. P. & Berar Nyaya Panchayat Act (I of 1947); suits triable by Small Causes Court upto Rs. 1000 in value by Summary Procedure (except suits triable by Nyaya Panchayat Courts upto Rs. 100 in value); and similar other cases allotted to his court by the District and Sessions Judge from time to time.

On the criminal side he exercises powers of the Additional Sessions Judge. He has jurisdiction over the Chhindwara Sessions District with regard to sessions cases, criminal appeals and criminal revisions as received on transfer from the Sessions Judge, Chhindwara. He also hears, for Betul Revenue District, criminal revisions under Session 88 (3) of the Nyaya Panchayats Act I of 1947.

(2) Court of the Additional Civil Judge Class II and Additional District Magistrate, Betul

This court is, on the civil side, chiefly for the Betul and Bhainsdehi Tahsils. Though it is located at Betul, it is a linked court between Betul and Bhainsdehi. In Betul Tahsil he tries Regular Civil suits, not triable by Nyaya Panchayat Court, upto Rs. 200 in value and at Bhainsdehi Tahsil Regular Civil suits over Rs. 100 but not over Rs. 200 in value. At Bhainsdehi he holds his Court as Civil Judge, Class II, for four to five days a month. As Civil Judge Class II of Bhainsdehi

Tahsil, he hears regular suits not triable by Nyaya Panchayat Court upto Rs. 100 in value arising from Bhainsdehi Tahsil, and Small Causes suits upto Rs. 100 in value to be tried by regular procedure.

On the criminal side he functions as the Additional District Magistrate at Betul and as Magistrate, First Class, at Bhainsdehi.

(3) Court of the First Civil Judge Class II and Magistrate First Class, Multai

This Court has territorial jurisdiction over Multai Tahsil. On the civil side he hears regular Civil suits over Rs. 100 and not over Rs. 5000 in value, cases under the Cooperative Societies Act upto Rs. 5000 in value, suits triable by Small Causes Court above Rs. 200 and upto Rs. 1000 in value by Regular Procedure and Civil Revisions under Section 101 (3) of the Nyaya Panchayat Act 1946 (I of 1947). In addition he is empowered, under section 9 of the M. P. Courts Act, to try suits triable by Small Causes Court upto Rs. 200 by summary Procedure except suits triable by Nyaya Panchayat upto Rs. 100.

On the criminal side he exercises the powers of a First Class Magistrate in addition to hearing Criminal Revisions under Section 88 (3) of the Nyaya Panchayat Act 1946 (I of 1947).

(4) Court of the Second Civil Judge Class II and Magistrate First Class, Multai

The court, being located at Multai, is chiefly meant for Multai tahsil. But it is a linked court between Multai and Betul. The Judge exercises powers of a Civil Judge, Class II, at Multai and at the linked court at Betul for six to seven days a month. In Multai tahsil he hears regular suits not triable by Nyaya Panchayat Courts upto Rs. 100 in value. As Civil Judge Class II, Betul, he has jurisdiction over Betul and Bhainsdehi Tahsils to hear Regular suits over Rs. 200 and not over Rs. 5000 in value. In Betul tahsil he also hears cases under the Cooperative Societies Act upto Rs. 5000 in value.

On the Criminal side he exercises all powers of a Magistrate, First Class, at both the places when he holds his court.

In short the four Judges stationed in the revenue District of Betul hold six courts at three Tahsil places and dispose of the work assigned to each court within the prescribed jurisdiction.

NATURE OF CASES HANDLED

The various courts in the District handle both Civil and Criminal cases. Offences under the Indian Penal Code, Special and Local Laws, and under the Criminal Procedure Code constitute the Criminal cases in the District, whereas suits for money and moveable property, title and other suits constitute the Civil cases.

Criminal

In 1956, offences numbering 1023 were reported under the Indian Penal Code, and 2088 under the Special and Local Laws and Criminal Procedure Code making a total of 3111. As against this, there were 3017 offences in 1957, 3441 in 1958; 2,942 in 1959; 2,677 in 1960; 3,225 in 1961; 2,555 in 1962; 2,175 in 1963 and 3,436 in 1964. So also the Magistrates disposed of 2,765 cases involving 4,381 persons in 1956; 2,611 cases involving 4,040 persons in 1957; 2,946 cases involving 4,496 persons in 1958; 2,509 cases involving 4,294 persons in 1959; 1,806 cases involving 3,426 persons in 1960; 2,562 cases involving 4,482 persons in 1961; 2,080 cases involving 3,471 persons in 1962; 2,180 cases involving 3,520 persons in 1963 and 3,530 cases involving 5,551 persons in 1964. It will be observed that the total number of offences reported showed a decreasing trend from 1956 to 1963, except for the years 1958 and 1961, but certainly an appalling rise in 1964. This may be attributed to the general awareness of the Public in reporting crimes at once.

Under offences defined in Chapter XVI of the Indian Penal Code, i.e. Offences against Human Body, a similar trend is noticeable. There were 156 convictions in 1956 followed by 115, 119, 112, 76, 96, 43, 61 and 125 in subsequent years upto 1964. Similarly under offences against property the highest number of persons convicted was in 1964 (418) and the lowest in 1963 (173). The highest number of convictions for offences relating to religion was in 1961 (4). The years 1956, 1957, 1962 and 1963 also recorded one each. Offences against Public Health resulted in 97 (the highest) convictions in 1964. As against this, the preceding eight years, i.e., 1955 to 1963, recorded 26, 35, 56, 60, 34, 52, 37 and 34 convictions, respectively. Only one death sentence was passed during this period, upto 1968.

Civil Cases Disposed of

The number of suits disposed of by the various courts during the period 1958 to 1964 is tabulated below.—

Year	Cases Disposed		
	By District Courts.	By Subordinate Courts.	By Courts of Small Causes.
1958	33	147	235
1959	104	100	173
1960	47	216	179
1961	58	291	235
1962	33	376	219
1963	46	290	171
1964	59	270	192
1966	72	304	125
1967	47	348	76
1968	46	519	156

The total number of suits for money and movable property was 368 in 1964 as against 378 in 1963; 333 in 1962; 365 in 1961; 280 in 1960; 285 in 1959 and 309 in 1958. Similarly the total number of title and other suits numbered 226 in 1968 against 185 in 1958; 148 in 1959; 171 in 1960; 151 in 1961; 160 in 1962; 121 in 1963 and 167 in 1964. It will be observed that in the case of title and other suits the year 1964 recorded the highest number, whereas in case of money and movable property the highest number was in 1963 (378). The Table shows the number of pending civil suits and their disposal during the period 1958 to 1968 is given in Appendix A.

LEGAL PROFESSION AND BAR ASSOCIATIONS

The practising pleaders in the District of the newly constituted Central Provinces in 1862 were the 'native Vakeels and Mookhtayars'. Prior to 1862, unauthorized and unlicensed pleaders freely appeared in the courts, for there were no restrictions to check them. As professional qualification was found to be something alien to most of these pleaders, a decision was taken in 1862 that practising pleaders should have passed the prescribed tests before they entered the Bar. The restriction thus imposed certainly added to the efficiency of the court but temporarily obstructed the growth and expansion of the Bar. Such a situation also attracted skilled lawyers from out-side the District.

However, the origin of the Bar at Betul can be traced back to 1898, in which year a qualified legal practitioner started his practice there. The years that followed saw considerable expansion of the Bar and some of the lawyers coming to prominence.

There are, at present, two Bar Associations in the District, i.e., at Betul and Multai. A third Association is likely to be constituted at Bhainsdehi. There are, in all 30 legal practitioners in the District; 17 at Betul, 11 at Multai and 2 at Bhainsdehi.

Bar Association, Betul

This 17 member Association was formed sometime in 1918. There is no written constitution. Every member has to subscribe Rs. 2.50 per month. The members maintain a library equipped with law books and journals.

Bar Association, Multai

Established in 1924, this Association has 11 members now. There is no written constitution. The members are required to subscribe monthly.

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

The organisational set-up of some of the important offices in the District is discussed here.

Agriculture

Since 1965-66, the activities of the Department have been entrusted to the charge of the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Betul. Earlier the District Agriculture Officer was looking after these. The Deputy Director of Agriculture, Betul, is under the immediate control of the Joint Director of Agriculture, Bhopal Division, Bhopal.

The Deputy Director of Agriculture is mainly responsible for the implementation of the various agricultural schemes launched in the District. He is assisted by one Assistant Director of Agriculture in his office. In the field work he is assisted by five Agriculture Assistants who look after soil conservation, plant protection, horticulture, sugarcane, and oil-seed schemes. The information section of the department in the District is looked after by the Agriculture Assistant in charge of the Plant Protection Scheme. The Agriculture Assistants in the District are in turn assisted by 17 Demonstration Kamdars. Of these ten are for oil seeds scheme, three for Plant Protection, two for sugarcane and one each for cotton and horticulture schemes.

Besides, there are two soil conservation sub-divisions in the District with their headquarters at Betul and Bhainsdehi, respectively. These two sub-divisions are also controlled by the Deputy Director of Agriculture, Betul. Mention may also be made of the two farms situated at Betul and Gudgaon, being looked after by the Assistant Director of Agriculture and a Farm Superintendent, respectively.

The office of the Deputy Director of Agriculture in charge of Horticulture Department is also situated at Betul. The office mainly looks after the horticulture development of Hoshangabad and Chhindwara districts.

Veterinary

The District Livestock Officer is in charge of the activities of the department in Betul District, and is working under the immediate administrative

control of the Deputy Director of Veterinary Services, Bhopal Division, Bhopal. He is assisted by four Assistant Veterinary Surgeons, eight Veterinary Extension Officers and a Poultry Inspector, besides other professional staff. At present there are three veterinary hospitals situated at the three tahsil headquarters of Betul, Multai, and Bhainsdehi. An Assistant Veterinary Surgeon each is in charge of these dispensaries. Another Assistant Veterinary Surgeon is in charge of mobile dispensary run by the department in the District. The department is also running the four hospitals of Prabhat Pattan, Chicholi, Bhimpur and Shahpur, which were hitherto run by the Block authorities. Veterinary Extension Officers of the respective areas are in charge of these hospitals also. Besides, there are 20 dispensaries in the District, being looked after by trained stockmen and compounders.

Further more, the District has an Artificial Insemination Centre functioning at Betul, with a stockman to look after its activities.

There is a Poultry Extension Unit at Betul in the charge of a Poultry Inspector. There is also a poultry unit at Bhimpur being looked after by Poultry Supervisor.

In addition, there are nine Cattle Breeding Extension units in the District, functioning at Khedi, Barvi, Shahpur, Ranipur, Chandu, Damjipura, Barkhed, Masod and Birool.

Forest

Prior to July 1, 1961 there was only one Forest Division in the District which, for administrative convenience, was divided into two divisions and came to be known as North and South Betul Divisions, respectively. The two divisions with their headquarters at Betul are headed by a Divisional Forest Officer, each, and are controlled by the Conservator of Forests, Hoshangabad. The Divisional Forest Officers are responsible for protection, exploitation, regeneration, and maintenance of forests under their control.

The Divisional Forest Officer, North Betul Division is assisted by 3 Assistant Conservators of Forest, 15 Forest Rangers, 10 Deputy Rangers, 37 Foresters, 191 Forest Guards and 94 Coupe Guards, while the Divisional Forest Officer, South Betul Division, is assisted by four Assistant Conservators of Forests, 11 Forest Rangers, 10 Deputy Rangers, 37 Foresters and 212 Forest Guards, and 60 Coupe Guards.

The Divisions are divided into ranges, and the ranges are further divided into Range Assistant Circles, only to be again divided into Forest Guard beats.

The Table below gives details of these divisions.—

North Betul Division				
S. No.	Range	Headquarters of Range	No. of Asstt. Range Circles	No. of beats
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Betul	Betul	3	19
2.	Amla	Amla	3	19
3.	Sarni	Sarni	3	15
4.	Ghoradongri	Ghoradongri	3	17
5.	Shahpur	Shahpur	3	20
6.	Bhaura	Bhaura	3	26
7.	Saoligarh	Chicholi	3	26
Total :			21	142

South Betul Division				
1.	Tapti	Betul	3	19
2.	Chicholi	Chicholi	3	21
3.	Mohda	Mohda	3	29
4.	Bhainsdehi	Bhainsdehi	3	31
5.	Athnair	Athnair	3	22
6.	Multai	Morshi (Maharashtra State)	3	20
Total :			18	142

Electricity

An Assistant Engineer of Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, stationed at Betul, is in charge of the distribution of electricity to the entire District of Betul. He is working under the jurisdiction of the Divisional Engineer, Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, Itarsi. The Assistant Engineer, is assisted by four Supervisors who are posted at the four distribution centres situated at Multai, Betul Bazar, Amla and Betul.

Co-operation

The work of the Co-operative Department in Betul District is in the charge of an Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, who works under the administrative control of the Divisional Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Bhopal. The Assistant Registrar is assisted by a Senior Co-operative Inspector, one Marketing Inspector, two Co-operative Inspectors, one Bank Auditor, eight sub-Auditors, one Statistical Assistant and the other usual subordinate staff. The main functions of the department are to promote co-operation activities and to undertake registration, amalgamation, audit inspection and liquidation of co-operative societies.

There are 4 marketing, 13 better-farming, 21 large-sized, 5 weavers', 30 multipurpose, 208 service, 14 non-agricultural and joint-farming societies in the District. Besides, a Land Mortgage Bank and a Co-operative Central Bank are also functioning here.

Economics and Statistics

In pursuance of the recommendation of the second conference of Central and State Governments, 17 District Statistical Offices were established in March 1957 in the Mahakoshal region of Madhya Pradesh, Betul District being one among them. The office is headed by a District Statistical Officer, who is assisted by Statistical Assistant and other subordinate staff. It is controlled by the Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal. Mainly the office collects statistical data from various departments, undertakes on the spot investigation for collection of data, and maintains a record of progress of the various Five Year Plans. The office also undertakes compilation of pocket compendium, preparation of economic report of the district, compilation of statistical abstract, monthly reviews, annual progress of the Five Year Plans, etc.

The District Statistical Officer is a member of the various committees connected with development activities of the district, such as the District Development Committee, Family Planning Committee, etc. He is also the *ex-officio* Member-Secretary of the District Gazetteers Committee and the District Archaeological Association.

Industries

A full-fledged office of the Assistant Director of Industries was functioning at Betul till July, 1963, but consequent upon the same being merged into the Hoshangabad office, Betul District was left with a sub-office headed by an Inspector.

The District is divided into ten Development Blocks. Eight Extension Officers (Industries) are posted in these, to look after industrial activities there of.

The District Industries office arranges for financial assistance in the form of loans and subsidies to Industrial units of both individuals and co-operative societies, besides rendering all possible assistance to entrepreneurs in setting up new industries. Sometimes, the office recommends subsidies on power consumption for industrial purposes. The department helps promotion of small-scale industries by arranging for supply of machinery on hire-purchase system, recommending the issue of import licences, allotment of quota of controlled commodities, and by assisting the small industrialists in marketing their products.

The Inspector of Industries, Betul works under the control of the Assistant Director of Industries, Hoshangabad who in turn works under the

immediate control of the Deputy Director of Industries, Bhopal. The Deputy Director is subordinate to the Additional Director of Industries, Bhopal Zone, Bhopal. The Director of Industries, Madhya Pradesh, is the head of the department, with his headquarters at Bhopal.

Employment Exchange

An Employment Exchange, which is functioning at Betul since 28th March, 1960, exercises jurisdiction over the entire District. The Exchange is headed by an Employment Officer, who is assisted by a Statistical Assistant and other subordinate staff. The Director of Employment and Training, Madhya Pradesh, Jabalpur controls the working of the Exchange. An Employment Information and Assistance Bureau was established at Shahpur on 1st January 1964. It also assists rural employment. A Junior Employment Officer heads this Bureau.

Sales Tax

The Hoshangabad Sales Tax Circle comprising the districts of Betul and Hoshangabad is staffed by two Sales Tax Officers, three Assistant Sales Tax Officers and Five Sales Tax Inspectors.

Of these, one Assistant Sales Tax Officer and one Sales Tax Inspector are posted at the Betul Sub-Circle office.

Public Works Department

The Department is bifurcated into two branches viz., (i) Roads and Buildings and (ii) Irrigation.

The Roads and Buildings branch of the department in the District is in the charge of the Executive Engineer, Betul Division, and is divided into three sub-divisions with their headquarters at Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi, respectively. Each sub-division is headed by a Sub-Divisional Officer, who is assisted by one Assistant Draftsman, six Overseers and two Sub-Overseers.

At the headquarters, the Executive Engineer is assisted by one Divisional Accountant, one Draftsman, two Assistant Draftsmen and one Overseer. He works under the immediate control of the Superintending Engineer, Hoshangabad Circle, Hoshangabad.

The Irrigation branch of the department comprises the sub-divisions of (i) Irrigation Sub-Division, Betul, (ii) Chandora Tank Project, Sub-Division, Sampna, (iii) Minor Irrigation Sub-Division, Betul. (iv) Minor Irrigation Sub-Division, Chhindwara and (v) Minor Irrigation Survey Sub-Division, Sauser. Of these, the first three sub-divisions fall within the revenue district of Betul. Each Sub-Division is in the charge of an Assistant Engineer, who is assisted by one Assistant Draftsman, one Tracer and six Overseers.

Among the achievements of the department, mention may be made of the Sampna Tank Project which has an irrigation potential of 9500 acres. During 1965-66, the area actually irrigated from this source was 5426.68 acres. The other minor irrigation schemes taken up in the District are designed to irrigate a total area of 3490 acres, and during the year 1965-66, the same was used to irrigate an area of 626.86 acres.

The Sub-Divisions are under the overall control of the Executive Engineer, Irrigation Division, Betul, who works under the supervision of the Superintending Engineer, Irrigation Circle, Hoshangabad.

Panchayats and Social Welfare

The District Panchayats and Welfare Officer, who works under the departmental control of the Divisional Panchayats and Welfare Officer, Bhopal, and the Collector, Betul, is responsible for the supervision of the Gram and Nyaya Panchayats in the District. He is also responsible for the progress of social welfare and Social Education programmes launched in the District. For the execution of the work relating to Panchayats and Social Education, he is assisted by ten Panchayats Extension Officers or Social Education Organisers posted one in each Development Block, four Lady Social Education Organisers, four Sub-Auditors and 63 Village Assistants (Gram Sahayaks). Sixty six part time Panchayat Secretaries, whose pay is subsidised, are also working under the various Gram Panchayats.

The department has so far organised, among other things, 78 Social Education classes and is maintaining 154 circulating libraries and 164 radio centres in the District. It also gives grant-in-aid to the various social, cultural, and literacy organisation in the District.

Tribal Welfare

To ameliorate the condition of the people belonging to Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes in the District, a separate office of the department was established in 1956. The welfare programmes launched by the department are concentrated in the Bhainsdehi area. They include removal of water scarcity, organisation of co-operatives and imparting of education and industrial training. Mention may also be made of the 159 Primary Schools, 17 Middle Schools, 2 Higher Secondary Schools and 12 hostels being run as a part of the Tribal Educational Advancement Programme.

The District Organiser supervises the activities of the Tribal Welfare Department in the District. He is assisted by an Area Organiser, eight Circle Organisers and a Statistical Assistant.

Rehabilitation

In pursuance of the State Government's decision to collaborate with the Centre to rehabilitate about 2500 agriculturist families that immigrated from

East Pakistan in 1964 a Rehabilitation Project with its headquarters at Shahpur (a place about 22 miles from Betul) was launched. The project envisages settlement of the families in Hirapur, Chopna, Punji Road and Kolhia villages, by providing them with all amenities there.

The Collector, Betul is in overall charge of the entire scheme, while the District Rehabilitation Officer is in executive charge thereof. The entire project is headed by a Project Officer, who in consultation with the Collector takes policy decisions, and co-ordinates the activities of the various wings of the project to ensure speedy implementation of the schemes.

The District Rehabilitation Department consists of four wings viz., (i) Administration (ii) Building and Roads (iii) Soil Conservation and Reclamation, and (iv) Irrigation.

The Administrative wing is headed by the District Rehabilitation Officer. He is assisted by an Assistant Rehabilitation Officer and Accounts Officer. An Executive Engineer heads the Buildings and Roads wing of the department. He is provided with a team of three Sub-Divisional Office and twelve Overseers to carry out construction works of the project. The Soil Conservation and Reclamation wing is in the charge of a Soil Conservation Officer, who is assisted by two Assistant Soil Conservation Officers, four Assistant Reclamation Officers, six Surveyors, and six Revenue Inspectors. The Irrigation wing is headed by an Executive Engineer. Assisting him are two Sub-Divisional Officers, two Junior Engineers, eleven Overseers and one Divisional Accountant.

At the level of Camp Administration, one Camp Officer each is in the charge of camp consisting of 250 families. Thus ten camp Officers are looking after the settlement of the 2500 families that migrated to this place.

In order to provide medical aid to the inmates of the camps, a medical section consisting of three Assistant Surgeons, ten Sanitary Inspectors, twelve Compounders, eleven Midwives, and other para-medical staff, is functioning here. Each relief camp has a temporary dispensary. Besides, dispensaries have also started functioning at the permanent camps of Hirapur, Chopna and Punji Road. The construction of a Base Hospital building at Hirapur is in progress.

For the education of the children of different camps, 10 primary schools are established. Thirty of the forty teachers employed in the schools are drawn from among the migrant families.

Two Lady Social Organisers are also posted here to organise women's welfare activities. To teach Hindi to the migrants (whose mother-tongue is Bengali), two adult literacy classes have been opened. Other social welfare measures taken include opening of children's parks, running of libraries, orga-

nisation of dramatic clubs, and providing radio-sets in the five listening centers at different camps.

Plans are ahead to rehabilitate the migrants by providing them with land and other facilities to carry on cultivation. Of the 44,000 acres of land situated within the *Kachhara* (low and moist land) of the two rivers, Bhangra in the north and Tawa in the south, it is estimated that nearly 30,000 acres will be cultivable. Besides this, another 13,500 acres of land is being reclaimed.

At present cultivation on an about 1,456 acres of land is being carried on, on co-operative farming basis by groups of ten migrant families. The State Follow Up Cultivation Unit working under the control of Joint Director of Agriculture (Engineering), is helping the cultivators in this behalf.

In order to provide storing facilities at the camps, one godown has been constructed at Shahpur, while another is being completed at Hirapur.

So far 750 houses have been constructed in different villages of the area to accommodate the migrants. Three tubewells and thirteen open wells have been provided to ensure regular water supply at the camps.

As soon as the displaced persons migrated to this place, an approach road was constructed connecting the project Headquarters, Shahpur, with Kotmi, Patuapura and Temru transit camps. The construction of a permanent road is under way.

Thus the Shahpur Project is planned to provide all amenities to the migrants, and to make the site a self-contained and a self-sufficient place to live in.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

The local administration, had decidedly reached the climax of self Government in ancient times. The system helped not only in educating people in self-government, but was also highly congenial to the growth of brotherhood and communal life, which was essential in those days to maintain the sanctity of the state. Each village had its own council in which probably the village elders discussed and deliberated over questions of public importance. The local disputes were settled by this council of the village elders. The decision of the council used to carry with it, as much sanctity and sanction, as is attached in modern times by legal fiction, to the awards of the courts of justice.

The old village government continued to function throughout the Muslim period. The Muslim rulers, whether out of conscious foresight or political expediency, did not attempt to interfere with, alter or modify the local government of the village community in any radical manner. They gave the village community a sort of legal standing by their tacit recognition of it, and encouraged it to co-operate with the government in its functions. But the uncertainty and confusion resulting from the decline and fall of Mughal power inevitably disturbed the even tenor of village life. Hence the British Administrators did not find a network of flourishing villages each with a healthy local life, but only the remnants of the former system.

The foundation of the Peshwas' administrative system was the self contained and self-supporting village community. In the Maratha revenue system, under which the village community was jointly responsible for the whole revenue and all details of assessment were left to the villagers themselves, the people were forced to act together under their headman, and to arrange their own affairs.

During the British administration of 'Nerbudda and Saugor Territories' in the 'twenties and 'thirties of the 19th century, the village communities actively worked in those parts. A detailed account of their working, particularly in the judicial field, is given in the old documents. Sir Richard Temple admits the existence of such bodies in the northern parts of the Central Provinces.¹ Similar views were expressed by Crosthwaite in his speech introducing the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Bill, 1883, before the Governor-General's Council on the 12th January, 1883. "Under the ancient system of the country, each village

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1862, p. 36.

managed its own affairs, and although there is little trace in the Central Provinces of these complicated Village Communities which still thrive in Northern India yet the system of village management was, until a comparatively recent date, complete. Every village had its headman or 'Patel' who acted as the guide, agent and leader of the village."

It seems, however, that the local institutions in these territories of present Madhya Pradesh slowly decayed after the assumption of power by the British in 1818 and still more so after the final annexation by them of the Nagpur Kingdom in 1858.

The reasons that led to the establishment of local self-government during the British rule were three-fold, viz., financial, administrative and political. Local self-government as a conscious process of administrative devolution and political education really began with Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870, which dealt with financial decentralisation. He advised the provincial Governments to enlist popular assistance in the work of social advancement. This resulted in the enactment of a series of legislation on local self-government in the various provinces. Accordingly the first Municipal Act of the Central Provinces was passed in 1873 (II of 1873), and remained in force till 1883 when the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act I of that year was introduced. Consequently, the towns of Badnur and Betul were both sanctioned Municipalities in 1867.¹ The Municipal area was divided into wards and the number of members to be elected was fixed. In towns, where there was direct taxation, all tax payers were given the right to vote in Municipal elections, to be held every three years. In places where indirect taxation existed, all male house-holders earning their bread by labour were declared as electorate. Efforts were made that all classes of people residing in the Municipal area should adequately be represented in the Municipal Committee. This was the first important land mark in the development of local administration of Betul District.

In the early years of Municipal administration, octroi was the principal source of revenue and it was devoted, first to provide for police, and then for construction, maintenance, repairs and conservancy of public streets, roads drains, tanks and water courses.² The year 1871, thus, saw a wide development of legislation for local administrative purposes.

In 1882, Lord Ripon's Resolution marked a decisive advance in the policy of decentralisation through the agency of local government. It provided for the extension of local self-government, primarily as an instrument of popular and political education and aimed at inducing people themselves to undertake management of their own affairs. Following this Resolution, the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act I of 1883 and C. P. Municipal Act 1882 (XVIII of 1889) were passed, providing wider extension of municipal administration. By

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 223.

2. C. P. Administration Report, 1877-78, p. XXIX.

the Central Provinces Local Self Government Act I of 1883, the control of certain branches of administration was transferred to local administrative bodies. The Chief Commissioner was empowered to make rules for the guidance of these bodies. These were divided into two groups, viz., urban and rural local administrative bodies. Although a beginning was made towards the urban local self administration in the District by the establishment of Badnur Municipality, yet the rural areas engaged the attention first in 1882. Prior to this, there existed a number of committees in the District maintained by local funds which were administered by the local committee. In pursuance of Lord Ripon's Resolution the policy suggested regarding rural boards was that of concentrating all the local administration, other than that embraced by Municipalities, in the hands of one committee for each district having ancillary subordinate sub-committees for each tahsil or sub-division. Accordingly under this Act, Local Boards were constituted at Betul and Multai and a District Council at Betul in 1884. The Local Boards were working as agents of the District Council. Unfortunately, the liberal principles enunciated in the celebrated Resolution of Ripon could not be translated into action completely. The system of election was introduced but without a broad franchise. Provision for election of non-official Chairman was made in the law but in practice the official chairman was still retained. Financial independence was not conceded to the local bodies. Under these circumstances local self-government failed to make satisfactory progress. Lord Elgin's Government, therefore, laid down further conditions of progress in local self-government in its Resolutions of 1896 and 1897. This led to the passage of the Municipalities Act 1903 which was more specific in regard to the powers of the Municipal Committees.

Under the Act XVI of 1903, Badnur Municipality was reconstituted. The Committee was composed of two nominated and twelve elected members. The receipts for the decade ending 1901 were Rs. 9,000 and were the same in 1904-05. In the latter year Rs. 2,600 were obtained from house-tax and Rs. 2,700 were received in grants and contributions from provincial revenues. The other principal items of income were education, market dues, conservancy and pounds. The expenditure for the decade ending 1901 was Rs. 9,000 and in 1904-05 nearly Rs. 10,000. Multai was formerly a Municipal town but ceased to be so in 1901.¹ Betul Bazar had a Notified Area Committee, vide notification No. 691, Dated 25th October, 1906. The management of local affairs outside the Municipal areas was entrusted to a District Council with three nominated and eleven elected members. The average income of the District Council for the decade ending 1901 was Rs. 27,000 and average expenditure was Rs. 28,000. Under the District Council there were two local Boards each having jurisdiction over one tahsil.

The provisions of village Sanitation Act were introduced into Multai from the year 1901-02. A sum of about Rs. 1,500 was raised annually from latrine and conservancy taxes and market dues, and was expended mainly on a conservancy

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 223.

establishment. The *Mukaddam* Rules were in force in the village of Kherli, Birul, Pattan, Amla and Bordehi.

The local bodies were not free from the official control. The Boards and Municipal Committees were saddled with responsibilities, but no adequate funds were placed at their disposal. The members had no initiative in formulating policies, and there was reluctance on the part of District officers to trust them with any real powers. The Municipal elections did not attract men of repute. There was a lack of enthusiasm in the people. The result was that a genuine system of the local self-government did not develop.

In 1907, a Royal Commission under the chairmanship of Sir Charles Hobhouse was appointed to survey and report on the progress made in the field of local self-government since 1882. The Commission recognised that the development of the local self-government was inadequate and unsatisfactory. Commission made a series of recommendations which formed the Resolution 1915. The Resolution supported the extension of the principle of elected majority in the local institutions, non-official chairman, increase in the powers of the Municipalities and Boards, establishment of village Panchayats with certain judicial and administrative powers.

Before the resolution of 1915 could be implemented, Montague Chelmsford's historic declaration of August, 1917, changed the whole situation. It pointed out that it was of the utmost importance to the constitutional progress of the country that every effort should be made in the local bodies to extend the franchise, to arouse interest in elections, and to develop the local committees so that education in citizenship might as far as possible be extended and a practical beginning be made in all directions. Accordingly in 1918, a resolution on Local Self-Government recommending elected bodies, non-official elected chairman and wider powers was passed. The resolution mentioned that there should be as far as possible complete popular control on the local bodies and the largest possible independence from outside control. It also recommended the establishment of village Panchayats with limited powers.

Following the Mont-Ford Report and Government of India Act, 1919, a new legislation, Central Provinces and Berar Local Self Government Act, 1920 was enacted. The new Act represented a great advance both in liberalisation and constitution and in granting powers of taxation. Under the new Act the District was divided into groups and circles. For each group of circles a Local Board and each district a District Council were established. Hence the Betul District Council along with three Local Boards at Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi were reconstituted.

After the passing of the Act of 1919, diarchy was established in the provincial governments. In common with the rest of the country the principles set for them were embodied in the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act II of 1922, which came into force in July 1923. This act aimed at liberalising the franchise,

increasing the elected element and local bodies to the extent of making it the unquestioned immediate arbiter of policy in local affairs and passing executive direction to non-official hands. Local Self-Government became a transferred subject under the charge of a Minister. Unfortunately the paucity of funds always stood in the way. However, efforts were made to lessen official control in order to make the local bodies truly representative of the people. Accordingly, the Betul Municipality was reconstituted under the act II of 1922 and the number of elected members increased to 13 with 3 nominated and 2 selected members.

In 1927, the C. P. and Berar Municipalities (First Amendment) Act was passed which prescribed that the number of nominated members should not exceed that of selected members. During the era of Provincial Autonomy, the year 1939 witnessed the enactment and the enforcement of a few legislations effecting important changes in the system of Local Self-Government of the urban area. The C. P. and Berar Municipalities Second Amendment Act, 1939, provided election of president by adult franchise and the procedure for his removal and for the appointment and removal of vice-presidents. The Third Amendment Act, 1939, introduced adult franchise while the Fourth Amendment Act, 1939, abolished the system of nomination. Thus by lowering the franchise qualification further democratisation of urban Local Self-Government was achieved. Nominations, which had continued during the period of diarchy were considered undemocratic, and therefore, abolished. In their place a system of compulsory election was substituted to enable the minorities and backward classes to secure representation on municipal committees.

After Independence in 1947, important legislation for reorganising Local Self-Government was passed in the State. Accordingly, Multai and Betul Bazar Notified Area were declared as Municipal area and Municipal Committees were constituted in 1948. Regarding Rural Local Self-Government, a new act was passed in 1948, according to which District Council and Local Boards were abolished and instead Janapada Sabhas were established at tahsil level in all the three tahsils of the District.

A comprehensive amending Act, the C. P. and Berar Municipalities (Amendment) Act, 1947, was passed. It was enacted to implement some of the recommendations of the Local Self-Government Enquiry Committee, 1935. Under the Act the president was provided with the power to perform all the duties and exercise all the executive powers conferred on him for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the above Act. This system was, however again reformed in 1958, and since then the president and two vice-presidents have to be elected by Municipal Councillors. In order to bring the uniformity in the pattern of urban Local Self-Government institutions throughout the State the Urban Local Self-Government Committee was appointed in 1957 to examine the whole question. In pursuance of its recommendations the M. P. Municipal Act, 1961, was enacted.

Under the new Act, the system of indirect election of the President either from amongst the elected or selected members or from outside by the councillors

has been retained. Municipality is required to form a Standing Committee of nine members. Formation of four Executive Committees, each of not more than five members, is obligatory. These committees are in charge of Finance, Education, Public Works, Water Works and Public Health. If needed one construction committee can also be formed in addition to four obligatory Executive Committees. According to the section 19(1) of this Act each Municipal Council shall consist of (a) elected councillors (b) selected councillors not exceeding one fourth of the total elected councillors, of whom at least one shall be a woman, to be selected by single transferable vote by the elected members of the new council from amongst persons residing in the Municipal area who are electors and not otherwise disqualified to be councillors by or under this Act. Further, section 29 (iii) states that the State Government shall, from time to time, fix in accordance with the Constitution of India, the number of seats to be reserved for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

Thus it is seen that the development of the representative local government institutions received an impetus after the attainment of Independence. The entire structure of the local government institutions from the village upwards was reorganised so as to bring it in consonance with principles of democratic institutions.

In the wake of the reorganisation of the states in 1956, the Panchayat laws, prevailing in the constituent regions created numerous administrative inconveniences and a pressing need was felt to fuse uniformity of pattern by integrating these various sets of acts. Ultimately the Rural Local Self-Government Committee was appointed by the State Government under the Resolution No. 6105-XVIII L.S.G. Dated the 29th July 1957, for this purpose. This endeavour of the Madhya Pradesh Government coincided with the efforts of the Government of India to implement the Directive Principles of state policy contained in Article 40 of the Indian Constitution. This constructive section of our constitution is an embodiment of Mahatma Gahdhi's dream of democratic decentralisation by organising village panchayats all over the country and endowing them with adequate powers and authority so as to make them genuine units of self-government. The Madhya Pradesh Panchayat Act VII of 1962 as amended by Act XVIII of 1962 seeks to establish a three tier system of Panchayats, the Gram Panchayat at the village level, the Janapada Panchayat at the Block level and the Zila Panchayat at the District level.

MUNICIPALITIES

At present there are three Municipalities in the District located at Betul, Betul Bazar and Multai. As already stated earlier the Municipalities were created at Badnur and Betul towns in 1867, and consisted of fourteen and ten members respectively.¹

1. Ibid., pp. 234-240.

Multai was formerly a Municipal town but the council was abolished in 1901 and the provisions of the Village Sanitation Act introduced. The annual income of the Committee was from Rs. 1,000 to 1,500 and it was expended on sanitation and the upkeep of roads.¹ The Badnur Committee had two nominated and twelve elected members with a population of 5,566 persons. The Betul Municipality with a population of 4,739 had an income of Rs. 4,500 during the decade ending 1901, which was mainly derived from house-tax and market dues. Later on this Municipality was abolished and Notified Area Committee was established in the year 1906. The constitution of the Betul Municipality in some selected years is as shown below—

Year	Population	Members				TOTAL
		Ex-Officio	Elected	Nominated	Selected	
1922-23	7,770	1	13	2	—	16
1931	9,614	—	13	3	2	18
1951	15,573	—	14	3	5	22
1961	19,860	—	16	3	4	23

The Betul Municipality, till the year 1915 was termed as Badnur Municipality. The Committee was reconstituted in 1925-26 under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipality Act of 1922 and was composed of elected, selected and nominated members. Out of 18 members of Municipality 17 members were non-officials. The number of the selected members was fixed and could not exceed one fifth of the total and the selection was made by the elected and nominated members from amongst the residents of the Municipality. Prior to 1927 selection was confined to eldermen i.e., members of expiring committee, and the express object of the selection was to ensure a leaven of experienced municipal administration in each succeeding committee. In 1927 an Amendment to the Act was successfully moved by a non-official member of the local Legislative Council. By this amendment, selection was thrown open to all persons qualified for membership. In practice selection usually resulted in strengthening the majority party amongst the elected members. The number of the members nominated by Government was not to exceed one-fifth of the total number of members nor the number of selected members. The power of nomination was usually utilized to afford representation to interests or communities which were either unrepresented or inadequately represented on the Committee as a result of the elections, and in particular for the depressed classes. The Municipal area was divided into wards, each of which could return one or more members and special constituencies were also created.

The Government of India Act, 1935, and the introduction of Provincial Autonomy in 1937, gave a further fillip to the development of Local Self-Government on popular basis. The democratisation process went on unhindered and

1. Ibid., pp. 256-267.

enactments were brought into force which progressively eliminated the official and nominated element and widened the franchise, the result being that the local bodies became more and more representative in character. The advent of Independence in 1947, brought the subject of local Self-Government in the lime light. The Municipal Acts were streamlined, embodying in them fundamental changes in all the important subjects.

The population of the Betul Municipal Town was 19,860 in 1961 and the area was 8.62 sq. Km. The Municipal Council was composed of 16 elected, 4 selected members, 2 Vice-Presidents and one President. In the year 1959 elections were held and the Committee was composed of twenty two non-official members.

Betul Bazar Municipality

Betul Bazar was originally a Notified Area and had a Notified Area Committee vide Notification No. 691 dated 25th October, 1906. The Notified Area Committee had 5 elected and 3 nominated members. The Betul Bazar Notified Area with population of 5,773 had total receipts of Rs. 16,640 out of which Rs. 4040 were received from taxes and the expenditure was Rs. 8,946 in the year 1923-24. In the year 1944-45 total receipts were Rs. 9,423 and expenditure was Rs. 7,986. The Betul Bazar Notified Area Committee was converted into Municipality from 1st October, 1948, vide Local Self-Government Department Notification No. 5672-3497-M-XIII Dated 29th, Sept. 1948, under the C.P. and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922.

In the year 1961 the population of the Municipal area was 6,736 which increased by 5.0 per cent over 1951 population. The Committee consisted of 14 members among whom 8 were elected, 3 selected, one elected President and 2 appointed Vice-Presidents. The present area of the Municipality is 1.19 sq. Km. Under the Madhya Pradesh Municipalities Act 1961, which came into force on the 1st February 1962, the Committee was reconstituted. The Municipal area was divided into seven wards and the body consists of seven elected and one selected members. The President and two Vice-Presidents have been elected by members from amongst themselves.

Multai Municipality

Multai Municipality was constituted under the C. P. and Berar Municipalities Act II of 1922, vide Government Notification No. 3806-256-M-XIII dated 7th July, 1948. Prior to the formation of Municipal Committee the town was having a Notified Area Committee. Multai was also previously a Municipal town but ceased to be so in 1901.¹ The Notified Area Committees consisted of 9 members including the President. On 1st August, 1948, the Multai Municipality was constituted and was composed of 16 members among whom 10 were elected, 2 selected, 1 nominated, 2 Vice-Presidents nominated by President, and 1 President. The Municipal area was divided into 10 wards and had a population

of 11,767 persons with 6,410 males and 5,357 females as per census of 1951. The new M. P. Municipality Act, 1961, came in to force with effect from 1st February 1962, and accordingly the Municipal limits have been divided into nine wards. The population of the Municipal area fell to 7903 as per census of 1961. The Council consists of 9 elected members, 2 selected members and among elected members a seat has been provided for a woman candidate. A seat is also reserved for the member of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes members. The Councillors elect the President from among themselves or from any qualified voter of the Municipality. There are two Vice-Presidents elected by councillors from among themselves by single transferable vote. President is the administrative and executive head of the Municipality. The term of the Council has been fixed for four years under the new Act. The Chief Municipal Officer is the principal executive officer of the Council and all other officers and servants of the Council are subordinate to him.

Financial Resources

Among all the problems of Municipal administration, there is none more important, or more difficult, than that of getting large sums of money which are needed year by year to carry on the various activities. The solution lies in collecting the money from the local sources to meet the necessary expenditure of the services rendered for the welfare of the people residing in the Municipal area. From the beginning of the present century financial resources of the Municipalities included octroi, taxes on houses and lands, taxes on profession and trades, water-rate, conservancy, vehicle tax and rates and fees from markets, pounds, slaughter houses, etc. In the beginning of Betul Municipal Committee the income was chiefly derived from *Haisiat Tax* and Government grants. Octroi tax was imposed by the Betul Municipality somewhere in the year 1917-18 when income under this head was Rs. 2,288 and it increased to Rs. 83,077 and Rs. 1,42,221 in 1947-48 and 1957-58 respectively. The income derived from tax on houses and land in the year 1900-01 was Rs. 2,346 which has subsequently increased to Rs. 15,660 in 1947-48 and Rs. 19,007 in the year 1957-58.

The Betul Bazar Municipality imposed *Haisiyat* tax at the rate of one percent annually and total receipts under the head amounted to Rs. 38,601 in the last decade. The Betul Bazar Notified Area Committee imposed tax on houses and land, market dues, pounds and others. The income thus derived was Rs. 1,535 from tax on houses and lands, Rs. 742 from market dues, Rs. 350 from pounds and Rs. 361 as grant-in-aid from Government on Education in the year 1891-92. At present the main heads of income of this Municipality are toll tax, market dues, cycle tax, bullock cart tax, public latrine tax, lighting rate and other taxes.

The Multai Municipal Committee levied octroi tax and other sources of income are house-tax, vehicle tax, toll-tax, latrine-tax, market dues, tax on pounds and slaughter houses and Government grants. In the matters of expenditure of the Municipalities high priority is given to Public Health, Public Instruction, Public Works and Welfare activities. Income and expenditure figures of the Muni-

1. Ibid., p. 222.

cipalities of Betul District from 1941-42 to 1964-65 registered spectacular rise as is evident from the Table given in Appendix A.

Functions and Duties of Municipal Committee

The most important factor in the Municipal life is the function undertaken and discharged by the Municipality. The Municipalities are charged with the various obligatory and discretionary functions, as provided under the Act of 1961, within the Municipal areas. Briefly and generally they are construction and maintenance of roads, bridges and culverts, cleaning, watering and street lighting; water-supply, drainage, maintenance of hospitals and dispensaries, vaccination, construction and maintenance of public markets, slaughterhouse and sanitary convenience, establishing and maintaining primary schools, prevention of fire, regulation of dangerous and offensive trades, registering births and deaths, establishing and managing of cattle pounds, maintaining and regulating places for disposal of dead, registration of cattle, carrying out census of agricultural cattle, naming streets, numbering houses, etc. Besides, there are a number of discretionary functions which the Municipalities are expected to perform.—like reclaiming of unhealthy localities, construction and maintenance of parks, play grounds, gardens, libraries, museums, conducting census and survey, holding of fairs; adopting measures to promote trade and industry, etc.

The State Government may, from time to time, entrust any function conditionally or unconditionally to the Municipalities and they have to perform these functions. For performance of these functions the Municipalities have a number of sub-committees and special consultative committees. They deal with matters relating to Public Works, Public Health, Water Works and the like.

Education

In this sphere, Betul, Betul Bazar and Multai Municipalities have made remarkable progress. Prior to the year 1950, the Betul Municipal Committee was running two boys and two girls' primary schools. Now the Committee is maintaining in addition, one middle school, one higher secondary school and one girls school and a Balak Mandir. The Expenditure incurred on education by the Betul Municipality in the year 1941-42 was Rs. 10,674, which subsequently increased to Rs. 33,650 in 1950-51 and to Rs. 1,01,481 in 1962-63. The Betul Bazar Municipal Committee is managing one primary school, and one higher secondary school. Expenditure on this head has also increased many folds in the Post Independence period. It was Rs. 2,113 in 1940-41 which increased to Rs. 5,111 in 1950-51 and Rs. 15,093 in the year 1964-65. The Multai Municipality is maintaining one primary school and the management of a high school was taken over by the Government in the year 1960-61. The following Table gives an idea of expenditure incurred on education by the Municipalities of this District.

Year	Betul Municipality	Betul Bazar Municipality	Multai Municipality
1956-57	58,545	11,641	36,197
1957-58	57,750	15,599	47,315

1	2	3	4
1958-59	65,729	18,341	42,686
1959-60	84,867	27,037	61,835
1960-61	1,00,040	31,255	
1961-62	1,05,508	34,628	19,491
1962-63	1,01,481	33,967	17,425
1963-64	1,05,710	38,430	30,150
1964-65	23,205	15,093	
1965-66	40,314	19,504	8,756
1966-67	35,356	17,488	4,035
1967-68	35,523	22,526	2,301
1958-69	35,244	16,641	4,730

Street Lighting

The provision for street lighting is one of the primary responsibilities of the Municipalities. The Betul Municipality had made lighting arrangements with the help of kerosene oil lamps from the very beginning. From 1st August 1957, electric light was introduced and consequently mainstreets of the town came to be lighted by electricity. The Betul Bazar and Multai Municipalities, are also maintaining street lighting arrangements in their respective limits. The Betul Bazar Municipality had 79 street lights in 1960-61 which increased to 128 in 1964-65. The expenditure incurred under this head by the Municipalities of this district for the few selected years is shown below—

Year	Name of Municipality		
	Betul	Betul Bazar	Multai
1955-56	6,146	1,632	1,429
1960-61	24,942	2,937	8,477
1961-62	24,820	2,718	7,974
1962-63	24,265	3,389	8,432
1963-64	25,179	3,963	8,703
1964-65	31,137	4,818	9,263
1965-66	26,298	4,740	7,060
1966-67	26,210	4,723	13,560
1967-68	24,664	7,743	7,179
1968-69	31,224	6,253	3,280

Public Health

The Municipalities are responsible for making necessary provisions for the maintenance of Public Health and establishment of dispensaries. Betul Municipality is maintaining an ayurvedic dispensary, a veterinary dispensary and a child welfare centre. The expenditure incurred by this Municipality was Rs. 9,966 in 1941-42 which was subsequently raised to Rs. 44,255 in 1950-51 and Rs. 41,102 in 1962-63, Rs. 66,527 in 1963-64, Rs. 91,832 in 1964-65 and Rs. 98,039 in 1965-66, Rs. 1,12,971 in 1966-67, Rs. 1,30,673 in 1967-68 and Rs. 1,35,585 in 1968-69.

respectively. The Betul Bazar Municipality has opened a homoeopathic dispensary and is also having the services of a Sanitary Inspector, who looks after the sanitation and public health of the town. Betul Bazar Municipality spent Rs. 20,344 in 1964-65; 20,629 in 1965-66; Rs. 20,189 in 1966-67; Rs. 23,301 in 1967-68 and Rs. 21,750 in 1968-69. Multai Municipality spent Rs. 40,801 in 1966-67 Rs. 33,988 in 1967-68 and Rs. 62,500 in 1968-69.

Water Supply

To provide the adequate and wholesome drinking water to towns is the primary responsibility of the Municipalities of the District. Filtered and Chlorinated water does not only protect people from water borne diseases but also adds to the natural power of resistance against diseases. In order to fulfil this basic need of the people effectively and adequately, in addition to the local Government water-supply scheme, the State Public Health Engineering Department has formulated urban as well as rural water-supply scheme. The construction of new water works at Betul and Multai has been taken up for providing fresh and adequate drinking water. The construction of water-works at Multai was started in the year 1962 by Public Health Engineering Department at the estimated cost of Rs. 4,58,000/-. An amount of Rs. 2,29,000/- (i.e., fifty per cent) has been received as loan from Life Insurance Corporation of India and Rs. 13,500 have been given as grant-in-aid to the Municipality by the Government and rest of the 36% amount shall have to be borne by the Municipal Committee, Multai. The Capacity of reservoir is 1,00,000 gallons, while the requirement of the water per day is 2,50,000 gallons. The water will be collected by constructing two tube-wells of 27" diameter with 12" diameter housing-pump and 200 ft. deep on the east side of the Tapti Tank.

Expenditure incurred on water-supply by the Municipalities from the year 1956-57 to 1966-67 is given below—

Year	Betul Municipality	Multai Municipality
1941-42	94	—
1947-48	160	251
1948-49	1,400	598
1949-50	712	572
1950-51	533	1,098
1951-52	1,038	630
1952-53	7,454	1,770
1953-54	7,533	2,309
1954-55	12,810	1,676
1955-56	5,128	932
1956-57	7,720	1,516
1957-58	3,201	1,052
1958-59	4,904	678

1	2	3
1959-60	3,911	717
1960-61	9,533	516
1961-62	6,761	1,247
1962-63	54,133	358
1963-64	1,05,029	22,459
1964-65	20,000	78,637
1965-66	2,04,921	2,32,045
1966-67	1,78,171	85,710
1967-68	3,53,615	13,874
1968-69	5,89,584	16,805

Conservancy

The Municipalities of the District do not have either sewerage system or underground drainage. The Betul Municipality spent Rs. 16,858 in 1957-58 and Rs. 35,610 in 1962-63 on conservancy, and Rs. 1,525 in 1957-58 and Rs. 3,934 in 1962-63 for the construction and repairs of drains and culverts. The Municipal Committee, Multai, has started compost scheme and the drains are kept clean. The Committee appointed a Sanitary Inspector who looks after the sanitary condition of the town and detects the cases of food adulteration, etc. No regular drainage works are in existence, but projects for surface drainage are at present being carried out in Betul and Multai town and small sums have been expended on it. The cleaning and scavenging of the streets are enough to create a healthy atmosphere in the Betul and Multai towns, as long as the open drains remain and are breeding centres for the flies and mosquitoes.

TOWN PLANNING

The basic idea of plan of a town is of integration and physical planning with economic and social development with favourable conditions for work and recreation for the people. In the absence of any planned development growth of a town is haphazard and creates many problems. In short the ultimate goal of the plan is an improvement of the town as a place for living and making it more healthy, safe and pleasant. At Betul one scheme for construction of sweepers quarters is under implementation at an estimated cost of Rs. 1.05 lakhs, out of which the Council will get Rs. 26,250/- as loan and Rs. 78,750/- as subsidy from Government.

DISTRICT COUNCIL AND LOCAL BOARDS

An important land mark towards the introduction of local self-government in Betul district was marked in 1884, when Betul District Council and Betul and Multai Local Boards were created under the Central Provinces Local Self Government Act, I of 1883. Lord Ripon's Resolution in 1881 recommended that "District Committees might very well be consolidated into single homogenous

working bodies with ancillary subordinate committees for each tahsil or subdivision of the district".¹ In the Central Provinces it was recognised from the very outset that the village was to be the unit of all administration. Introducing the local self-government Bill before the Governor-General's Executive Council on 12th January 1883, Crosthwaite said, "Believing that the scheme of self-government will have much greater vitality if it can be founded on some indigenous institution, which the people can understand and are accustomed to, we decided on taking the village as the basis of our scheme and building up from this foundation." The Act, therefore, provided for the aggregation of villages in circles and circles into groups.² From these circles and groups were excluded such areas as were included in the limits of a military Cantonment or of a town having a Municipal Committee. For each group of circles a Local Board and for each district a District Council was established. Accordingly, Local Boards at Betul and Multai and a District Council at Betul were constituted by Notification No. 3474, dated 15th July, 1884. A Local Board consisted of three kinds of members, (a) members representative of each of the circles comprise within their local area, (b) members representative of mercantile classes or profession, and (c) members appointed by the Chief Commissioner. A certain proportion of members were representative village headman or *Mukaddams* (Defined by the Act as the executive headman of village, appointed under C. P. Revenue Act, 1881). The Tahsildar of the area was appointed as the chairman of the Local Board.

The members of the District Council were elected not by direct representation but by and from the Local Board. Not more than one-third of the total number of members were nominated by the Deputy Commissioner. Though there was provision for the election of a non-official Chairman, in practice the Official Chairman was still retained. The District Council and Local Board had an elected Secretary in whom were vested the executive powers. The members held office for a period of three years. A member could resign his office by notifying in writing his intention to do so to the Commissioner and on the latter's acceptance of it the member's term came to an end. The statement below shows the constitution of the Local Boards in Betul District.

Name of Local Board	Mukadam Members	Mercantile Members	Nominated Members	Total Members
Betul	7	3	3	13
Multai	7	3	3	13

The constitution of the Local Boards and District Council underwent a change within a few years. The Betul District Council was composed of three nominated and eleven elected members, while the Betul Local Board had three nominated, and thirteen elected members, and Multai Local Board three and ten

members, respectively.¹ The management of rural schools, dispensaries, hospitals, cattle-pounds, and roads with ferries on them outside the Municipal areas, was entrusted to the District Council. The Local Boards had no independent income but they submitted estimates of expenditure on minor improvement to the District Council and performed inspection duty. Thus Local Boards were working as the agents of the District Council. Later on, in 1910, some of the duties were transferred from District Council to Local Boards, which till then were entrusted with the management of minor civil works, rural schools and cattle-pounds under the supervision of the District Council. At the same time the management of the village market was also transferred to the District Council and Local Boards.

Many of these limitations were, however, subsequently removed. The Decentralization Commission recommended an extension of the functions and powers of rural boards. The Local Self-Government (Amendment) Bill, 1908, proposed to extend the authority of rural boards by giving them the power of 'establishment' of schools, dispensaries, markets etc. It also added 'Veterinary dispensaries' to the list of public institutions given in section 9 (a) of the Act. In the beginning the upkeep of all roads, other than the main provincial routes, was entrusted to the Councils but as they showed their incapacity to upkeep the roads, the management of roads except village tracks, was transferred to the Public Works Department and the same was done with arboriculture. With the introduction of the Local Fund Scheme in order to relieve the pressure of work on the Public Works Department of the Government it was decided to restore to the Councils the supervision of a number of roads and buildings till then maintained from Provincial Funds. The functions of the District Council were performed partly by chairman, partly by the Secretary in whose hands the executive authority largely lay and partly through the Committees like the School Committee, the Public Works Committee and the like, but the real Executive Officer of the District Council was the Chairman who practically did all the work and spent all the money except such as was spent on establishments like hospitals and schools. Moreover, the executive control over the functions of the District Council was vested entirely in the heads of various Government Department at the district head-quarters, for example, the Inspector of Schools, the Civil Surgeon, the Executive Engineer, etc. At the top of all stood the all powerful Deputy Commissioner and the Tahsildar, playing a double role as the agent of the Deputy Commissioner and the Chairman of the Local Board who succeeded in concentrating most of the executive authority in their hands and made their position felt in every way.

The constitution of the District Council and Local Boards in Betul District underwent a change, when the third Local Board at Bhainsdehi was established on 23rd February, 1910, for the newly constituted Bhainsdehi Tahsil.² Thereafter the

1. Ripon's Resolution, 1882, para. 3.

2. Act of 1883, Sec. 3(1).

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 222.

2. C. P. Administration Report, 1910-11, p. 18.

constitution of Council and Local Boards of this District was as under¹:—

Name	Area in Sq. miles	Population	Number of Members		
			Nominated	Elected	Total
Betul District Council	3,872	3,90,614	5	12	17
Betul Local Board	1,802	1,43,166	3	10	13
Multai Local Board	969	1,53,383	3	10	13
Bhainsdehi Local Board	1,101	83,214	3	9	12

Out of the nominated members, two were officials, both in the District Councils and Local Boards. There were a few changes in the constitution of District Council and Local Boards of the Betul District during the year 1912-13 when a number of villages of Damjipura Circle were transferred from the Harsud Local Board in the Nimar District to the Bhainsdehi Local Board in the Betul district. But this change did not affect the number of members of the Bhainsdehi Local Board.² A provision was made for an elected official Chairman in the year 1915-16 for District Council and Local Boards of the Betul District.

The Central Provinces and Berar Local Self-Government Act of 1920, replacing the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act of 1883, came into force from the 1st May, 1922 in the District. The Central Provinces was perhaps at that time the only Province which, in accordance with the recommendations of the Decentralisation Commission introduced a scheme for enlarging the scope of Local Boards. It provided for the lowering of the proportion of nominated to elected members, abandoned the principle of communal representation and subsequently relaxed the powers of taxation. Under the Act the District was divided into groups and circles. For each group of Circles a Local Board and for the district one District Council were established. Accordingly, Betul district was divided into 3 groups which were further divided into 58 circles.

According to Act No. IV of 1920, District Council was composed of two-thirds of the total members elected not directly but by and from the Local Boards, one-sixth of the persons selected from the general electorate by the members elected by the Local Boards and one-sixth, other than Government Officials, appointed by the Government by nomination. Local Boards consisted of elected and nominated members only. The latter were not to exceed one-fourth of the total membership. The District Council and Local Boards had also for the first time non-official Chairman during the period. The position of the District Council and Local Boards in 1926-27 was as under.³

1. Report on the working of District Councils and Local Boards in the Central Provinces & Berar, 1911-12, p. 3.

2. Ibid., 1912-13, p. 1.

3. Ibid., 1926-27, pp. 2 & 8.

Name	Area in Sq. miles	Population	Number of members				
			Ex-Officeio	Nomi-nated	Ele-cted	Selected	Total
1. Betul District Council	3,872	3,63,737	1	3	12	3	19
2. Betul Local Board	1,802	1,29,052	2	2	10	—	14
3. Multai Local Board	969	1,51,961	2	2	10	—	14
4. Bhainsdehi Local Board	1,101	82,724	1	1	9	—	11

The Betul District Council was dissolved in May, 1930 by virtue of the power given by section 64 (i) of the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act, 1920, and reconstituted in February, 1933 as follows:—

Ex-officio members	2
Nominated	3
Elected	12
Selected	3
Total	20

In the year 1935, the general elections were held and there was representation in them from the backward communities in the Local Board.

In 1939, some changes were introduced in the constitution of the local bodies of the District as a result of the C.P. Local Self-Government (Amendment) Act No. XXXII of 1939. It abolished the system of nomination of members to local bodies and introduced the principle of adult franchise. A Local Board consisted ordinarily of elected members, each circle constituting a group which elected one representative. In order to give representation to certain special classes and interests, it provided that in case the elected members did not include a Muslim, a Harijan, and a woman, the elected members must select by single transferable vote a Muslim a Harijan or a woman, as case may be, as a member of the Board. In order to ensure the representation of these interests it was further provided that if the members failed to select the required persons, the Provincial Government would make the necessary appointments.

The elections of the District Council were indirect, four-fifths of the prescribed number being elected by single transferable vote by the Local Boards from amongst their own members, and their remaining one-fifth selected by single transferable vote by the members elected by the Local Boards from amongst persons resident in the District Council area and possessing the qualifications of a voter. The inclusion of a Muslim, a Harijan or a woman was also provided for

in the case of the District Council. The number of members of the Betul District Council was fixed as follows:—

Name of the Local Boards	Number of members		
	Elected	Selected	Total
1. Betul	6	4	21
2. Multai	6		
3. Bhainsdehi	5		

In 1939 the composition of Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi Local Boards was fixed at 20, 20 and 18 elected members respectively under the notification No. 4451-697-XIII Dated, 17th July, 1930. Section 67 of the Act, as amended in 1940, authorised the Provincial Government either to exclude any District Council or Local Board area from the application of certain provision of the Act. The only change made in the constitution of District Council and Local Boards was to authorise the Government to appoint a few additional members to represent the interests of the people in those areas.

Powers and Duties

The District Council and Local Boards members were assigned the following powers and duties.—

- to inspect all constructions within their charge such as tanks, wells, cattle pounds, roads, *sarais*, rest houses, bazars, etc.
- to construct or repair buildings and submit proper accounts according to the instructions and orders of the Council or the Board.
- to auction within their jurisdiction, *nazul* plots, ferries, fruit crops, roadside trees, fallen trees, when requested by the Council or the Board.

The Chairman had a two-fold capacity. He was the President of District Council as well as its administrative and executive head. He was assisted by Vice-chairman, who exercised the powers of the Chairman only in the latter's absence. Similarly the Chairman of the Local Board was the administrative and Executive head of the Local Board and was responsible for and in charge of the execution and control of all the general administrative duties of the Board.

Financial Resources

The working of Local Self Government in the Central Provinces under the Acts of 1883 and 1885 showed that the financial resources of the District Council and Local Boards were meagre, scanty and inelastic. Under the Act of 1920 the Local Bodies began to impose and realise taxes. The Grants-in-Aid to Local Bodies Act, 1939, provided for the payment of a grant to local bodies approximately equal to the sums realised by them in the shape of certain fees and fines which under the Government of India Act 1935 were required to be credited to the Provincial revenues.

The receipts and expenditure of the Betul District Council is shown in the Table given below for few years.—

Year	Receipts (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1900—01	27000	28000
1911—12	66243	52976
1920—21	1,67,808	1,38,115
1930—31	1,39,249	1,01,433
1937—38	1,18,357	1,03,844

The above steps improved matters to some extent regarding the financial resources of the Betul District Council, but something more was needed, as was pointed out by the Resolution of 1938-39 that no improvement in accounts was likely to be permanent unless the office bearers themselves exercised stricter supervision and closer control.

The inauguration of Provincial Autonomy in 1937, under the Government of India Act, 1935, brought the popular Congress Ministry into power.

Before any solid step for improvement of the affairs of the District Council could take place the popular ministry resigned. During the 'Quit India' movement the District Council, Betul, and the Local Boards of Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi were superseded in this manner from 11th August, 1942, to 11th August, 1943.¹

After the attainment of Independence, a new Act was passed in 1948, according to which District Council and Local Boards were abolished and instead, a Janpada Sabha was established at Tahsil level in all the three Tahsils of the District.

JANAPADA SABHAS

The Local Self-Government Act of 1948, provided for the establishment of Janapada Sabhas, one each at tahsil level, after abolishing District Council and Local Boards. Accordingly, three Janapada Sabhas were established at Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi. A consequence of this measure was that the Tahsil became the primary unit of administration and constituted a centre of Local Government in which the local officials and representative of the area were closely associated. The Janapada area was divided into rural and urban circles. This act, as amended from time to time, is still in force in the District. The constitution of Janapada Sabhas of the Betul District was as follows:—

1. M. P. Administration Report, 1940-41 to 1945-46, p. 36.
2. The Madhya Pradesh Janapada Manual, Part I, 1955, p. 117.

in the case of the District Council. The number of members of the Betul District Council was fixed as follows:—

Name of the Local Boards	Number of members		
	Elected	Selected	Total
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2. Multai			
3. Bhainsdehi			

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1. M. P. Administration Report, 1940-41 to 1945-46, p. 36.
2. The Madhya Pradesh Janapada Manual, Part I, 1955, p. 117.

Janapada Sabha	Number of Members		
	Urban	Rural	Total
Betul	3	18	21
Multai	1	19	20
Bhainsdehi	—	20	20

The Act provided a reserved seat for Harijans as well as for aboriginals, the latter in specially notified areas. Betul and Bhainsdehi Janapada areas were declared specially notified areas. The urban area in Betul Janapada Sabha consists of Municipal Committees of Betul and Betul Bazar. The former elects two councillors and the latter one. Within Multai Janapada Sabha, there is only one Municipal Committee, at Multai and it was represented by one Councillor. To start with, the councillors for the Sabhas, constituted for the first time on 15th August, 1948, were nominated by the Government from amongst persons residing in the respective Janapada Sabha areas and not disqualified to be elected as Councillors under the Act. The Chairman and Deputy Chairman were also appointed by the Government. These nominated bodies continued to function till 31st March, 1954, when for the first time elections in all the three Sabhas of the District were held. The following Table gives area and strength after the re-constitution of Janapada Sabhas of the District.

Janapada Sabha	Area in sq. miles	Number of members		
		Elected	Selected	Total
Betul	1,598	21	7	28
Multai	972	21	7	28
Bhainsdehi	1,161	20	7	27

A Janapada area is divided into urban and rural circles. The urban areas consist of Municipal and Notified Areas. The number of rural circles was 18, 19 and 20 in Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi Janapada Sabhas, respectively, under Section 3 of Act of 1948. The members of the Janapada Sabha were of two kinds, elected and selected. Among the elected members there are two categories, one representing the rural circles and the other the urban circles. From rural circles, members are elected directly from the constituencies while in urban circles they are elected by the elected members of the Municipal bodies. Provision also exists to select one Harijan and Scheduled Tribe member, if the same is not included amongst the elected members. The term of the Sabha is for five years from the date of its first meeting and the term of the office of every councillor co-terminates with it. The Chairman and Deputy Chairman, who are elected by the councillors from amongst themselves or from outside, hold office for the life time of the Sabha.¹

1. Ibid., p. 24.

In pursuance of the Act of 1948 every Sabha forms out of its own body, the standing Committees on Finance, Public Works, Public Health, Education, Agriculture and Development.

The last mentioned standing Committee was, however, abolished in accordance with the recommendations of the Janapada Enquiry Committee, 1952, and instead an Administrative Committee comprising eleven or nearly equal to one-third of the total number of councillors, whichever was greater was constituted in each Sabha. The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Janapada Sabha were to be the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Administrative Committee. The Administrative Committee deals with the co-ordination of the other Standing Committees and looks to the implementation of their decisions and appointment of Janapada Staff.

The Chief Executive Officer is the *ex-officio* Secretary of every standing Committee. The Sub-Divisional Officers of Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi act as the Chief Executive Officers of these Janapada Sabhas and Tahsildars function as Deputy Executive Officers of the respective Janapada Sabhas of the District.

Function

The Janapada Sabhas have been vested with larger authority and wider powers than the old District Councils possessed. The functions of the Sabha can be divided into three categories obligatory, discretionary and entrusted. The compulsory duties comprised among others, establishment and management of rural schools (now transferred to Education Department), hospitals, dispensaries, rest-houses, (now transferred to P.W.D.), control of epidemics, vaccination, registration of births and deaths, management of cattle-pounds and ferries, construction and maintenance of roads, provisions for drinking water by construction of wells and tanks village uplift, etc.

Discretionary duties include mainly management of fairs, agricultural shows, industrial exhibitions, sanitation, development of cottage industries, etc. Besides, the Act empowers the Government to entrust the Sabhas with certain other functions. In respect of such transferred duties the Sabha has to work as an agent to Government and it has to carry out the laid down policy and instruction.

Financial Resources

The Janapada Sabhas have more sources of the revenues than the former District Council. The rate of compulsory cess has been considerably enlarged. In pursuance of the Janapada Act 1948, the income of Janapada Sabhas comes mainly from rates (cesses), taxes, and fees of various kinds and Government grants. All the sums received by the Sabha constitute the Janapada Fund which is vested in the Sabha and is placed to its credit. The Table in Appendix gives the income and expenditure figures for the period 1956-57 to 1968-69.

The main sources of income of the Sabhas are.—

- (1) Income from cattle pounds under Cattle Trespass Act, 1871.
- (2) Cess on Land Revenue under section 85 of the Local Self-Government Act of 1948.
- (3) Additional Stamp duty under section 57-A of the Act of 1948.
- (4) Rent of buildings and lands.
- (5) Government grants for education, Ayurvedic dispensaries, general purposes and grant from general revenues on account of forest income and land revenue.

Besides, the Betul Sabha has a printing press and this is an additional source of revenue.

The main heads of expenditure of the Sabhas are.—

- (1) Cattle pounds
- (2) Libraries
- (3) Ayurvedic dispensaries and Public Health
- (4) Maintenance of buildings and roads

On the recommendation of the Janapada Enquiry Committee, the Government decided to abolish additional cess and raise the rate of compulsory cess. In respect of education grant it was decided that 75 per cent of the approved expenditure on primary education should be met by Government. In backward areas this percentage would be upto 90 per cent. The Government also decided that the Janapada Sabha should be given a share of land revenue at 5 per cent of the annual demand in each year. The services of teachers of the schools run by the Janapada Sabhas of the District have now been taken over by the Government.

Of the various functions which the Sabha performs, those relating to Education, Medical and Public Health, Veterinary services and Public Works are most important.

Education

The establishment, management, maintenance, inspection and visiting of schools was an important function of the District Council. It was responsible primarily providing primary and middle vernacular education. There has been remarkable progress in the sphere of education during the period of the Sabha's existence. In 1948-49, Betul Janapada Sabha was running 58 primary schools and one middle School, which increased to 158 primary schools and ten middle schools in the year 1963-64. Multai Janapada Sabha had 91 primary schools and five middle schools in 1948-49, which subsequently increased to 174

primary schools and 14 middle schools in the year 1962-63. In case of Bhainsdehi Sabha which was managing 45 primary schools and 2 middle schools in the year 1948-49, the number increased to 100 primary schools and 7 middle schools in 1953-54. With effect from 1st April, 1954, all the schools under this Sabha were transferred to the Tribal Welfare Department as per directive of the State Government. There has been almost similar rise in number of students in case of each institution also.

Since 1956-57 the expenditure on education has rapidly risen owing to an ever-increasing demand of schools in rural areas, as shown in the following Table.—

Year	Expenditure on Education		
	Betul	Multai	Bhainsdehi
1956-57	2,44,051	3,47,675	1,747
1957-58	2,56,644	3,11,543	557
1958-59	2,38,897	3,80,837	538
1959-60	2,43,604	4,44,504	1,973
1960-61	2,91,137	4,61,971	1,267
1961-62	3,20,558	4,88,539	3,519
1962-63	4,16,299	5,46,966	815
1963-64	4,63,025	6,94,732	605
1964-65	42,630	23,319	439
1965-66	32,337	22,292	697
1966-67	24,142	21,882	380
1967-68	25,753	28,828	1,444
1968-69	26,896	14,212	813

Public Health and Medical

The Main activities under this head are management of Ayurvedic dispensaries, provision and purification of drinking water, measures for prevention of epidemics, building of new wells, vaccination and inoculation. The Janapada Sabhas of the District are looking after ayurvedic dispensaries which are 5, 3 and 5 in Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi Sabhas respectively. All the Sabhas pay special attention towards promoting vaccination and prevention and treatment of infectious diseases. The expenditure on Public Health recorded remarkable rise from the year 1956-57 as shown in the following Table.—

Year	Expenditure on Public Health		
	Betul	Multai	Bhainsdehi
1956-57	6,686	10,422	4,931
1957-58	7,557	10,789	5,197
1958-59	6,999	10,336	4,165
1959-60	6,259	9,770	5,494
1960-61	7,199	9,781	5,696
1961-62	..	..	18,164
1962-63	..	..	5,118
1963-64	9,907	10,253	6,899
1964-65	8,732	12,216	7,885
1965-66	21,537	N.A.	22,262
1966-67	..	..	21,375
1967-68	..	..	21,524
1968-69	..	..	25,755

Public Works

This was an important function of the District Council. The Janapada Sabhas of the District play an important role in the development of rural communication and construction of buildings such as Panchayat Bhawans, schools and dispensaries, construction and repairs of wells and tanks. The expenditure incurred by the Sabhas of the District is shown in the following Table from the year 1956-57 to 1968-69.

Year	Expenditure of Public Works		
	Betul	Multai	Bhainsdehi
1956-57	19,165	10,961	5,292
1957-58	18,596	12,328	5,487
1958-59	7,430	8,606	12,298
1959-60	7,128	23,581	32,083
1960-61	12,843	8,676	8,550
1961-62	16,790	18,833	9,322
1962-63	18,499	13,359	6,691
1963-64	10,901	N.A.	7,279
1964-65	9,332	N.A.	7,693
1965-66	N.A.	N.A.	15,952
1966-67	..	..	7,401
1967-68	..	..	20,495
1968-69	..	..	34,058

THE PANCHAYATS

In the historical times prior to the interlude of the British regime and in a certain measure even during it, our village administration had been broad based on the principle of direct democracy and village people participated in the making of decisions on matters concerning local welfare. In 1908, Lord Morley, the Secretary of State for India, tried to frame a policy that would make a village, the starting point of public life. The recommendations of the Decentralization Commission mainly aimed at the development of corporate life amongst the villagers and creating in them an interest in local village affairs.

In 1918, following the Mont Ford Report, an effective and essential beginning was made by envisaging the existence of 'Panchayats'. Accordingly, the Central Provinces and Berar Local Self-Government Act of 1920 and C.P. Village Panchayat Act was passed. In March, 1925, a resolution was moved by Central Provinces legislative Council, recommending to the Government to take active steps to encourage the establishment of Village Panchayats. The subject of Village Panchayat was received by a Committee appointed by the Government in 1926. As a result two Gram Panchayats were established in Betul District at Khedisaoli-garh and Mohagaon in the year 1928. This number increased to six in the year 1930. The progress of the Village Panchayats remained slow and the results

achieved by them were unimpressive. This led to the appointment of an Enquiry Committee in 1935 in the Provinces. The Committee recommended that Panchayats should be endowed with Civil and Criminal powers, that certain functions should be made obligatory for them, and a certain share of District Council's income should be made over to them. The recommendations of this Committee were embodied in the Central Provinces Panchayat Act of 1946, which was enforced in 1947. In the year 1940, there were 36 panchayats which increased to 40 in 1941. The Commissioner of the Nagpur Division remarked¹ "No special steps were taken in any district to encourage the Village Panchayat movement but the movement appeared to be gaining ground slowly. The aboriginal panchas in the Betul District worked satisfactorily".

The first Panchayat legislation in the Central Provinces (The Central Provinces and Berar Panchayat Act), was passed in 1946. This was subsequently amended in 1947, 1948, 1949, thrice in 1950, 1951 and 1953. Under the Act of 1953 the formation was split up into three stages. First they were established in villages with a population of 1000; second, for villages with a population between 500 and 1000, and in the third stage they were organised in the villages with less than 500 persons. The principle was that one Panchayat should be established for every village and Panchas were to be elected on the basis of adult suffrage. Accordingly there were 221 Village Panchayats and 38 Nyaya Panchayats in this District in existence which were formed under section 5 and 58 of the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayat Act of 1946. In the first instance Gram Panchayats were formed by nomination under the C. P. & Berar Panchayat Act, 1946. The *sarpanchas* were also nominated by the Government. This was done before the elections were held.

The Table below gives the details regarding the growth of the Village Panchayats during past few years—

Year	Gram Panchayats	Nyaya Panchayats
1949-50	127	57
1950-51	201	—do—
1951-52	235	..
1958-59	314	..
1960-61	502	..
1963-64	226	..
1964-65	226	..
1965-66	226	51
1966-67	226	—do—
1967-68	226	—do—
1968-69	226	—do—

1. Annual Report on the Working of Village Panchayats in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1941, p. 2.

In the year 1951-52 first elections were held in 201 Gram Panchayats of the District on the basis of adult franchise and by secret ballot. The number of panchas ranges from 5 to 15. The Patel of the village was appointed as the *ex-officio* member of the Village Panchayat. The Gram Panchayat elected Sarpanch from amongst its own members from amongst the residents of the village. The Up-Sarpanch was nominated by the Sarpanch of the Panchayat. The term of the office of a Panchayat was fixed at five years. The village Assistant (*Gram Sahayak*) was the *ex-officio* Secretary of Gram Panchayat or a group of Panchayats, as the case may be. The Janapada Sabha has the general powers of administration, supervision and control over the Gram Panchayats.

Under the Village Panchayat Act, 1920, the functions of the village Panchayats were limited to village sanitation and dealing with petty judicial cases. But under the Act of 1946. Panchayats were entrusted with administrative, development, welfare and municipal functions. These functions have been divided into two groups obligatory and optional. The former include medical, registration of births, deaths and marriages, water supply, sanitation, construction and maintenance of roads, etc. The optional functions of Panchayats are improvement in agriculture and livestock, promotion of education, encouragement of cottage industries, street-lighting and development of co-operative movement. All these functions are being carried out by the Panchayats of the District.

Financial Resources

The main sources of income of the Gram Panchayats in the District include a compulsory cess on land revenue at the rate of three paise per rupee, house tax, profession tax and licence fee for practising as broker within the panchayat area. In addition, there are a few other optional taxes, e.g., light tax, animal tax, toll on vehicles, water rate, conservancy tax, etc.

The Notified markets of Betul and Bhainsdehi Tahsils have been transferred to the respective Gram Panchayats. Some percentage of the Bazar income is also received by Gram Panchayats of Multai Tahsil as the markets have not yet been transferred to the Panchayats of this tahsil. Gram Panchayats can also raise loans equal to 5 per cent of their revenue from non-collapsible Village Development Fund. In the initial stage the development grants of Rs. 200 to Rs. 300 were given for meeting the expenses connected with development activities. There is a Gram Panchayat Fund and all money thus received is credited to this account.

The major heads of expenditure of the Panchayats are construction and maintenance of the tanks, wells, roads, lighting, water-supply, sanitation and miscellaneous heads. Total income and expenditure figures for all the Gram Panchayats of this district from the year 1956-57 to 1968-69 are given below—

Year	Income (in Rs.)	Expenditure (in Rs.)
1955-56	80,318	66,318
1956-57	82,207	70,516
1957-58	83,006	75,328
1958-59	99,211	82,149
1959-60	1,25,002	91,486
1960-61	2,17,844	1,50,015
1961-62	3,32,119	1,91,203
1962-63	4,25,426	2,25,571
1963-64	4,82,894	2,86,867
1964-65	2,16,287	1,89,292
1965-66	1,76,433	94,516
1966-67	2,06,547	1,90,514
1967-68	2,11,746	1,99,885
1968-69	6,85,771	5,87,175

The Village Panchayats of the District carry on considerable development activities in their respective areas. These activities had attained a certain level by the end of the First Five Year Plan. The Second Five Year Plan showed a rapid progress and the Panchayats constructed 459 wells, 15 tanks, 37 Panchayat Bhawans, 130 school buildings, 7 *Bal Mandirs*, 25 *Balwadies*, 122 libraries, 16 reading rooms, 19,298 compost pits, 23 grain *golas*, 13 culverts and 65 miles of villages roads. About hundred Gram Panchayats of the District are at present getting the benefit of radio sets supplied by the Government. Till now six villages of the District have been electrified. Government aid in shape of *Gram Vikas Nidhi* has played an important role in financing the developmental activities of the Panchayats. In 1957 and 1958, in order to train and educate the Panchas and Sarpanchas training camps were conducted at Amla, Vijayagram and Padhar villages and Khedisaoligarh, Dunava and Athnair villages, respectively.

Nyaya Panchayats

With the advent of Independence, the judicial functions in the rural areas were entrusted to the Nyaya Panchayats to some extent. The establishment of these was aimed at providing the village folks with cheaper, speedier and simpler mode of justice. Under the C. P. and Berar Panchayats Act, 1946, 57 Nyaya Panchayats were constituted in the District for each group of villages. Each Gram Panchayat was represented by a Panch in the Nyaya Panchayat, concerned village Panchayat and both together have initiated a new pattern of rural life. In the year 1963-64, there were 57 Nyaya Panchayats in the District. Of these, 19 were in Betul Tahsil, 20 in Multai Tahsil and 18 in Bhainsdehi Tahsil. In 1965-66 the number was reduced to 51 Nyaya Panchayats. The details of functions and working of Nyaya Panchayats have already been discussed in the chapter on Law, And Order and Justice of Betul District Gazetteer.

Panchayati Raj

In 1962, the Madhya Pradesh Panchayat Act was passed. This Act brought new vision and responsibilities to the Panchayats, what is popularly known as the Panchayati Raj. Under this Act a three tier system is to be set up, viz., Gram Panchayat at village level, Janapada Panchayat at the Block level and Zila Panchayat at the District level. Specific powers and functions in the field of development and local administration have been assigned to the Panchayati Raj institutions.

Under the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Act 1962 (VII of 1962), the Gram Sabha, consisting of all the adults of the village, has been recognised as a statutory body, established for a village or a group of villages having a population of one thousand or more. The initiative and control will pass to the Panchayats which will guide and shape the future of our village community. Under the new Act, in all 226 Gram Panchayats are formed in Betul district. Out of these 77 are in Betul, 87 in Multai and 62 in Bhainsdehi Tahsils of the District. In addition, 9 Janapad Panchayats, three in each Tahsil have been established while the Zila Panchayat has yet to be established.

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

As the early history of the District is shrouded in the veil of obscurity, it is difficult to assess the contribution of Betul, particularly towards the vast and varied literature and rich cultural traditions prevailing during the ancient and medieval periods. The earliest inscriptional evidence that is available takes us to the year 631 A.D. According to Hiralal, this evidence decided once for all that the Rashtrakutas dominated the Multai Plateau.¹ The banks of the sacred river Tapti, the Ambeviaraka *nadi* (identified with Ambhora river)² and the Wardha river, sweeping through the District, were the seats of ancient civilization and culture. In the past, literature flourished in the *Ashrams* of learned sages, situated on the banks of these sacred rivers. The torch of learning was later kept ablaze by the religious pedagogues down to the era of education as we understand it now. A reference to Mukund Raj Swami, a learned religious ascetic, who lived about the end of the 13th Century under the patronage of king Jaitpal, the king of Kherla near Betul, is available in the old Gazetteer of this District. His famous religious work in Marathi was *Vivek Sindhu*.

Western Education

After the battle of Sitabaldi, Betul with the Nagpur territories north of the Narmada was made over to the British in 1818, and in 1826 it was formally included in the British dominion by a treaty.³ Writing about the state of education prior to 1854 in this area, the Education Commission of 1882, observed that "The Nagpur Government under the Bhonslas gave no support for the encouragement of education. Public schools were not established, nor were grants given to teachers. Wandering Brahmans and *Pandits*, learned in the *Shashtras*, received presents occasionally."⁴ Education during this period in the area was mainly confined to the children of Brahmans. No exclusive school for Mohammadans existed. However, a few *Moulvis* taught Persian gratis. *Mullahs* and *Kazis* were uneducated. During the period 1826-1853, the Missionary societies commenced their labour of love, and in due course of time spread their educational activities to this area too. After the receipt of the famous Despatch of 1854, Vernacular schools were introduced in the districts of Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, which were later

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 25.

2. Hiralal, Inscriptions in Central Provinces and Berar, p. 76.

3. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 38.

4. Central Provinces Provincial Committee Report (Education Commission), 1884, p. 4.

extended to other districts of the area also. The scheme envisaged the establishment of a school at the headquarters of every tahsil, besides the opening of the *Halkabandi* or village schools to be supported by voluntary contributions. This system was introduced in parts of Betul District also. This was the state of education prior to the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861. In the following year, a Department of Education was created in the Province. Hereafter, the growth of education in Betul merged into the stream of educational development of the Province as a whole. By the year 1871, the District had 29 Government and 17 private schools with 1878 pupils. The cost of education on each pupil was estimated to be Rs. 3 in 1873-74, which increased to Rs. 5 in the following year. Village schools were then partly supported by the voluntary contributions made by the people. Education was imparted in Gujarati, Urdu, Hindi and Marathi in these schools.

The educational policy in Central Provinces became more purposive in respect of curricula to be adopted for primary and middle school education after its consolidation in 1872-73. As a result of the exclusion of private schools, being not under the inspection of education Department, the number of schools in Betul declined to 26 with 1513 pupils in 1881. Badnur (presently Betul Town) had a *Zila* school, imparting education to 50 pupils up to middle stage. It was established in 1869. Betul, Bhainsdehi and Multai had a school each which was established in 1858, 1863 and 1859, respectively.

During the last quarter of the 19th Century, a number of private schools were started by means of personal influence of local officers and in 1884-85 such schools numbered 65. The subscription for these institutions were collected by the *Chaprasis*. This led to abuses, and the schools were eventually discontinued.

For further encouragement, competition was introduced for the award of primary scholarship (central) in 1885-86. Steps for the encouragement of co-education were also taken for the first time in 1889-90, when the Education Department approved the practice of admitting girls into boys' schools. The curriculum of girls' school, which was hitherto the same as for the boys', was simplified after five years, and needle-work and singing were introduced.¹ The first girls' school was also opened at Betul in 1885-86.

By the year 1891-92, the number of schools for secondary education was 4 and for primary education 61. The average daily attendance in the former schools was 494, while in the latter 1,864 students. The Government spent about Rs. 7,645 on primary education in the District. But during the 'nineties of the last century, the bad harvest and cholera, which had affected Betul more than any of the districts of the region, slowed down the progress of education in Betul. By 1901-02, though the number of schools for secondary education remained four, yet their average daily attendance was reduced to 377. Schools of primary edu-

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1894-95, p. 85.

cation also reduced to 60 with only 1,445 average daily attendance of pupils. The total expenditure on education, however, increased to Rs. 15,165 in that year.

The onward progress of education in the District, since 1901, will be reviewed in the section relating to General Education.

Organisation and Set-up

As mentioned earlier, after the battle of Sitabaldi, Betul with Nagpur Territories north of the Narmada were transferred to British in 1818. With the famous Despatch of 1854, Government interest manifested itself in the later years, more so in the Saugor Narbudda Territories. However, the area comprising Betul District remained largely neglected with the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861, and the Department of Education in 1862 under a separate Director of Public Instruction. The Province was divided into three circles and Betul came under the Northern Circle with headquarters at Jabalpur. Each of the Circles was placed under an Inspector, who was to be assisted by a number of lower supervisory staff. It was also resolved that the co-operation of civil authorities and the people should be sought in the management of education in the District. Therefore, the primary and lower middle education was placed under the management of the Deputy Commissioner, aided by the District Inspector of Schools. High and *Zila* Schools were exclusively the charge of Education Department. In addition there were also extra-departmental controlling agencies, viz., municipal committees, school committees, etc.

The investigations of the Education Commission of 1882, and the establishment of local self-government brought about the transfer of departmental schools to the care of local bodies. Besides, a school committee was also attached to each school consisting of officials and non-officials. The three inspectorial circles later in 1904-05 were reorganised into five circles. Betul was looked after by a Deputy Inspector till the mid-1938. A post of Deputy Director for European schools was also created. He was to be assisted by a number of supervisory staff. It appears that this system of management worked well till the late years of 'thirties when three more posts of Deputy Directors were created and instead of Circle Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors, Betul got a District Inspector of Schools. But since the high school education suffered owing to lack of inspection, etc., the organisation of the Department was again changed. After abolishing the posts of Deputy Directors, four posts of Divisional Superintendents were created and education in Betul came under the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Nagpur, in 1941-42. Early in 1946-47, these Divisions were reconstituted and six Divisions were formed, and education in Betul remained the charge of Central Division with headquarters at Nagpur. Now there are nine educational Divisions in the State, each under the charge of a Divisional Superintendent of Education. Betul is under the Divisional Superintendent of Education, with headquarters at Hoshangabad. The Divisional Superintendent is the administrative and inspecting

authority for Government higher secondary schools in the District both for boys and girls. As for girls' education, he is assisted by a lady assistant.

The Primary and middle education is administered and supervised by the District Educational Officer, Betul. Formerly till 1962, he was known as District Inspector of Schools. He is assisted by a number of Assistant District Inspectors and an Inspectress of Schools for boys and girls primary education, respectively. For administrative purposes, the District has been divided into suitable ranges of 40 to 50 primary schools each and are placed in the charge of an Assistant Inspector of Schools. Eversince 1957-58, the number of Assistant District Inspectors of Schools has remained twelve, apart from one Assistant District Inspectress of Schools, five male and five female Social Education Organisers in the District. In 1963-64, their number remained the same but in addition, two more temporary posts of Assistant Inspectors for free and compulsory education were given in the District. Apart from this, one Assistant District Educational Officer was also working in the District. The District Educational Officer is directly responsible to the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Narmada Division, Hoshangabad.

The collegiate (non-technical) education is controlled by the Director of Collegiate Education at Bhopal, while the technical education at all levels is controlled by the Director, Technical Education, Bhopal.

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS

Of 92,728 literate and educated persons, 75,778 were males and 16,950 females. Betul District stood 20th in the State in descending order of literacy rate in 1961. It recorded a literacy rate of 16.6 per cent, much below the State average of 17.1 per cent. There has been a great variance between the rural and urban literacy rates. The former registered 13.7 per cent while the latter 47.7 per cent literate and educated persons in 1961. Great variance is also recorded in literacy rates of sexes. While males accounted for about 27.0 per cent, the females only 6.1 per cent. Betul has the distinction, however, of being on the top in the State in respect of male literacy in urban areas, which was recorded as 62.3 per cent in 1961.

The following Table gives the literacy rates for 1961 and 1951 for the District in Tahsilwise break-up:—

Tahsil	Literacy Percentage					
	1961			1951*		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Bhainsdehi	12.4	12.4	—	9.2	9.2	—
Betul	16.6	11.9	48.1	—	5.6	36.1
Multai	18.9	16.1	46.1	—	10.7	42.1
District Total:	16.6	13.7	47.7	10.7	8.7	37.3

* Based on 10 per cent sample of 1951 population.

During the decade 1951-61, general literacy in the District has advanced by 6 points or 55 per cent. Similar increase, i.e., of 57 per cent has also been registered in general rural literacy in Betul. However, urban literacy showed only 27 per cent advance during the last decade.

A study of the educational level attained by the literate and educated populace of the District may be interesting here. The inset below gives a break-up of 100 such persons by various educational levels.

Educational levels	Percentage of total Literate and Educated					
	1961			1951		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Without educational levels.	64.4	67.7	54.4	90.0	94.8	N.A.
Primary and Junior Basic.	31.1	30.3	33.6	6.6	4.1	N.A.
Matric or Higher Secondary and above.	4.5	2.0	12.0	3.4	1.1	N.A.

The majority in the District population (64.4 per cent) is constituted of literate persons without any educational level. About a third (31.1) of these possess education upto Primary level, and the rest about 4.5 per cent only possess higher qualifications including Matric or Higher Secondary. During the last decade much improvement has been registered in respect of persons having educational level upto Primary but less than Matriculation stages. The increase in their number has been five-fold.

Spread of Education Among Women

Though female education in the Central Provinces dawned somewhere about the 'sixties of the last century, yet till early 'eighties of the same century, it had not made its advent in Betul. The Provincial Committee in its report to Education Commission showed no progress in the District till then. However, by the year 1894-95, average attendance of girls in Betul District schools was recorded as 20, which in the following year was 23. In 1902-03, special measures regarding the female education resulted in the provincialization of girls' schools, which were hitherto under the management of local bodies. Girls' schools were placed under the supervision of an Inspectress two years later. Dearth of trained lady teachers was more felt as girls' education spread, and as a consequence the Government started Normal School for women at Nagpur.

The average attendance of girl students in the early years of the present century further declined. It was not before 1907-08 that substantial improvement in this behalf was registered. The average attendance was recorded to be 88 in that year. This was further improved to 154 by 1915-16. In this year we witness appointment of a mixed committee of officials and non-officials to investigate

into the problems confronting the female education in the Provinces. Government retained the responsibility for girls' education, but also encouraged private efforts, under a grant-in-aid code, to open both primary and secondary girls' schools. By this time the female literacy advanced to 1.04 per cent of the female population of school-going age in Betul from 0.1 per cent in 1900-01.

In view of slow and tardy rate of growth, the Government again appointed a Committee with elaborate terms of reference in 1926-27.¹ Consequent upon the recommendations of the Committee, the responsibility of opening new vernacular schools and their management was resorted to local bodies, which were already looking after the boys' education. About 19 girls' schools were opened in the State to which Betul also contributed. Hereafter, we see a steady growth of girls' education in the District. By 1931-32, their average attendance further improved to 499 from 262 a decade ago. Similarly, their percentage to total female population of school-going age also advanced to 2.2 in 1931-32.² So far, there was no middle school in the District, but the number of primary schools was 10 with an enrolment of 744 girls in 1940-41.

In the post-Independence period, great strides were made under different Plans towards the spread of female education in the State. Consequently, in the beginning of First Plan period in 1951-52, the number of girls' schools increased to 15 primary and 2 secondary schools. The number of girls in these institutions was 1,483 in primary and 142 in secondary schools. In the year 1956-57 their number increased to 22 primary schools and 3 secondary schools with an enrolment of 6,169 girls.

In order to further promote girls' education in the State, a State Council for Women's Education was established in accordance with the recommendations of the National Council for Women's Education. Since its inception in 1960, the Council has been advising the Government in matters relating to the girls' education and as a consequence, for attracting women to teaching profession, special incentives in the shape of advance increments are offered. Provision for residential accommodation has also been increasingly made in the successive Plans. As a result of concerted efforts the number of schools for girls in the District further increased to 25 in 1961, of which 19 were primary, 5 middle and one higher secondary schools. The enrolment also swelled to 8,869 in primary, 1,190 in middle schools and 579 in higher secondary schools.

During the Third Plan period, till 1964-65, much progress has been made in the District in respect of girls' education. The following Table shows the position management-wise in 1964-65.—

Management	Primary		Middle		Higher Secondary	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Government	3	5,014	8	1,808	2	1,074
Janapada Sabha	14	8,259	1	1,649	—	—
Municipality	3	815	—	—	—	—
Private Bodies	2	615	1	91	—	—
	22	14,703	10	3,548	2	1,074

Education among Backward Classes and Tribes

According to Census 1961, 41.5 per cent of the District population, or more than two-fifths, belongs to the Scheduled Castes or Scheduled Tribes. Scheduling of Castes extends over all the tahsils of the District, but as regards Tribes, it is confined to Betul and Bhainsdehi only. Out of this about 9.4 per cent belong to Scheduled Castes, 13 in number, and 32.1 per cent Scheduled Tribes, 32 in number.

The earliest reference to their education dates back to the year 1866 when W. Ramsay in the Settlement Report remarked that the "education in the District, except in the case of families of a few of the wealthier proprietors, who are but a handful, is confined to the non-agricultural classes, such as Brahmins, Bunneas (Baniyas), and a few others who form not a tithe of the population. . . . education has not found its way among the Gonds, and I see little prospects of its doing so far very many years to come."¹ It was not earlier than the 'nineties of the last century that we see the establishment of three *Gondi* schools in Betul. The old Gazetteer, recorded in 1908, that there were 0.23 per cent of literates among the Animists.² In the subsequent decades nothing encouraging was recorded. Thus in 1921, the staggeringly low literacy among these classes compelled the Government to take resolute step, and a committee was, therefore, appointed in that year to enquire into the problem of education among the Backward Classes of the Province. Consequently, to encourage education among them, the Government offered liberal grants to private bodies up to two-thirds of their annual expenditure for opening schools for these classes. Increasing number of scholarships, larger in values, were reserved for them. Maintenance grant to hostels meant for them were also offered. In 1929-30, E.G. Kilroe submitted a memorandum on the education of these classes to the Government. He was specially deputed for the purpose. Subsequently in the late 'thirties, W.V. Grigson was entrusted with the preparation of a detailed scheme for providing educational facilities for Aboriginal tribes.³

1. Memorandum on the Development of Education in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1931, p. 29.

2. Betul District Gazetteer, Vol. B, pp. 100-101.

1. Betul Settlement Report, 1866, p. 48.

2. Betul District Gazetteer, Vol. B, p. 96.

3. C. P. Administration Report, (Triennium) 1937-40, p. 67.

During the mid-'forties, the Shahpur *Adiwasi* scheme was launched which covered the opening of a middle school and 11 primary schools in the surrounding areas by the Education Department. A hostel was also attached to this middle school, which accommodates about 50 students. Each *Adiwasi* boy in the hostel was awarded a scholarship. The number of primary schools and middle schools by 1955-56 for these classes had risen to 119 and 8, respectively. From 1st April, 1954, the direct control of 143 primary and 12 Indian English middle schools of Scheduled Area of Bhainsdehi Tahsil was taken over by the Tribal Welfare Department. Aborigines' hostels were attached to Damjipura Bhimpur, Adarsh Dhanora, Hindli, Athnair, Mandhavi, Bhainsdehi, Dhamangaon Jhallar and Vijayagram middle schools and run by the Tribal Welfare Department. Aboriginal students of the above schools are awarded a monthly stipend of Rs. 20 each *no.v.* During the year 1964-65, the number of tribal students in primary schools of the District was 15,230. In middle and secondary schools their number was 316 and 138, respectively.¹ However, the number of Scheduled Caste students increased from 4,694 in 1962-63 to 7,470 in 1964-65. The amount of scholarships granted to 3,498 primary students of these classes in 1962-63 was Rs. 9,175. While 883 students of secondary stage were granted scholarships amounting to Rs. 85,279 during 1964-65.

The State Government have now entrusted the responsibility of educational expansion in these areas to the Tribal Welfare Department. As such, all those institutions, so far run by the Education Department in tribal areas have been transferred to this Department.

GENERAL EDUCATION

Pre-Primary Education

In fact, pre-primary education in the modern sense is quite a recent innovation, and naturally it has developed mostly in the post-Independence period. It seeks to impart education by 'learn while you play' method to the infants between the ages of three to six years.

Prior to the launching of the First Plan no such institution existed in Betul. But in the following years five *Balmandirs* were opened, of which two were recognised by the Government. During the last lap of the Second Plan, one more *Balmandir* was opened in Multai Tahsil with 41 infants. During the year 1962-63, the Government expenditure on nursery schools of the District amounted to Rs. 13,189, which increased to Rs. 15,273 in 1963-64. The number of students in two institutions managed by the Janapada Sabha and the municipality was 140 in 1965-66 taught by four teachers.

Primary School Education

With the dawn of 20th century the economic backwardness of the area, and the pattern of population structure combined into presenting none too happy

1. Development of Education in Madhya Pradesh, 1947-1964, p. 35.

a picture of primary education in the District. As said earlier, barely 60 such schools, scattered in the region, could attract an average daily attendance of 1,445 pupils in 1901-02. Consequent upon the Educational Conference at Simla in 1901, the decision was taken to "abolish Middle School Examination, and result-grant and combined system, and to substitute an examination *in situ* for the present system of Primary School Examination."¹ Further the girls' schools which were under the management of local bodies were Provincialized and a more practical bent was attempted in instructions in rural schools. Students were taught the "writing up of village account papers, to understand the village maps, and writing up of village money lenders' books"² and elements of agricultural practice. Though by 1911-12 the number of institutions for primary education increased to 62 from 60 a decade ago, the average attendance, however, improved substantially when 2,271 pupils were recorded in that year. Total expenditure on primary education from all the sources amounted to Rs. 27,717. By the beginning of 'twenties, new grants-in-code was introduced to facilitate the opening of new boys' and girls' primary schools in rural areas, and to encourage private efforts in this direction. Education became the primary concern of local bodies. Though the number of schools by 1921-22 increased to 110, the average daily attendance, however, decreased to 2,742 from 5,053 in 1919-20 owing perhaps to Non-Co-operation Movement that followed resulting into boycott of schools. The total expenditure on primary education from all the sources was Rs. 55,555 in 1921-22. A landmark in the development of primary education was the passing of Primary Education Act 1920, which was later in 1956 replaced by Madhya Pradesh Compulsory Primary Education Act. The Government and local bodies helped the cause of education and the scheme for introducing compulsory primary education in 32 specified areas of the District was started in 1938. In the same year a new chapter was opened with the inauguration of Vidya Mandir Scheme. Under the Scheme a village or group of villages with no school within a radius of one mile and having not less than 40 children of school going age, was intended to have a Vidya Mandir. Agriculture was made the basis of Vidya Mandir school courses. Consequently, substantial improvement was recorded in primary education as a result of these measures, and the number of primary schools increased to 156 (10 private) in 1937-38 with an average daily attendance of 7,951 students. These further increased to 266 and 19,487 respectively, in 1941-42. The expenditure also rose to Rs. 1,15,943 in that year.

This brings us to the thresh-hold of the most eventful decade of the Century when the war economy was ravaged by the political storms in the country. This had its own effect on Betul, as elsewhere. The policy of expansion was kept up with some characteristic changes in emphasis owing to new needs and situation. The significant events of 1942-47 had been the restoration of cut in grants to local bodies and private institutions. Independence dawned with the reduced number

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1901-02, pp. 125-26.

2. Ibid., p. 125.

of primary schools in the District, i.e., 226 with 16,772 pupils, though the expenditure rose to Rs. 3,07,306 in that year.

The tale of primary education since then has been one of a heroic fight against illiteracy and continued endeavour to provide free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years, as stipulated in the Constitution.

Vigorous steps were taken for the quantitative and qualitative progress of primary education in the old and the Reorganized State of Madhya Pradesh during the various Plan periods. In 1957, the course of primary education was extended to five years' duration with classes I to V from four, hitherto in force in the old Madhya Pradesh. The age for starting education in schools is six years and the education is free. Collection of nominal fees was discretionary on the part of management. Girls were excluded from payment of fees in schools owned by the Government and local bodies. A unified syllabus on the pattern of basic education was adopted throughout the State in 1959. Gradual conversion of schools into the basic type was aimed at. Under the scheme of free and compulsory primary education of the children of the age group 6 to 11 years, a pilot-scheme was launched in 1959-60 at Shahpur Block, and 20 schools were opened. An equal number of schools was also opened in 1961-62. In 1961-62 Primary Education Act of Madhya Pradesh was enacted for the whole State. As in this region the primary education continues to be under the control of local bodies largely, a new step was taken whereby the services of the teachers working in local bodies schools were transferred and absorbed in the Government service. During the year 1964-65, another important step taken was, that Government run primary schools in the Tribal Development Blocks and in special Multipurpose Tribal Blocks have been transferred to Tribal Welfare Department. Other schools in the District are under the supervision and inspection of District Educational Officer, Betul. At the end of Primary Course a public examination is held by the District Educational Officer, and certificates are awarded. Tremendous growth that followed owing to these measures adopted under the successive Plan periods may be seen as under:—

Year	Schools	Students	Teachers	Expenditure Rs.
1951	325	20,865	592	414,632
1956	463	25,837	870	495,422
1961	535	37,563	1,207	11,65,729
1966	606	49,012	1,442	20,65,646

Of the total 629 primary schools in the District in 1964-65, 288, of which three were girls schools, were managed by the Government, 333, of which 14 were girls schools, were managed by the Janapada and Municipalities, and the remaining 8,

of which 2 were girls schools, were managed by the private bodies. On an average there were about 108 primary schools for one lakh of population in the District in 1961.

Junior Basic Education

The accepted pattern of national education is now basic education. The activity centred curriculum, wherein the processes of learning are co-related with physical and social environment of children has uniformly been adopted in the State. Education is imparted through socially useful productive activities like spinning, weaving, carpentry, gardening, leather-work, pottery, elementary engineering, etc.

In a sense the history of basic education in the Central Provinces dates back to 1885-86, when for the first time the introduction of crafts in the primary stage curriculum was attempted. But it was in the late 'thirties that the educational horizon became poignant with the growing assertion of self-supporting education. In 1937, the State Government introduced Vidya Mandir Act, with a view to opening Vidya Mandir Schools, of which agriculture formed the basis of curriculum extending over four years. Consequently, two such schools were opened in Betul, one at village Umari in Bhainsdehi Tahsil and the other at village Mowad in Betul Tahsil. But it was in 1946 that some concrete steps were taken in this direction. In that year three schools were taken over by the Government and converted into basic type. Spinning and weaving were introduced in the curriculum of these schools. It was not till 1954 that much progress could be achieved in this behalf. In that year, on the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission, alongwith those of the Committee appointed by the State in Madhya Pradesh, it was resolved to introduce basic education. As a consequence all the existing schools are gradually being transformed into basic schools (junior basic for 6 to 11 and senior basic from 12 to 14 years of age). Consequently, 13 primary schools were converted into basic type, with gardening, apart from spinning and weaving, as important crafts introduced in the curriculum. In 1961-62, during the Third Plan period, two more government primary schools were converted into basic type. The growth of Junior Basic Schools during 1962-63 to 1965-66 may be seen from the following Table:—

Year	Institutions	Enrolment		Teachers	Expenditure Rs.
		Boys	Girls		
1962-63	25	2,626	318	58	45,266
1963-64	25	2,268	262	58	54,384
1964-65	25	2,036	398	61	58,772
1965-66	25	2,159	432	61	60,132

(Note:—Includes Government and Janapada Schools)

Secondary School Education

Middle School Education

Forming an important link between the primary education on the one hand and collegiate education on the other, the secondary education is said to be the weakest link in the history of education. It consists of two stages, viz., middle schools (classes VI to VIII) and higher secondary education (class IX to XI). Most of the middle schools have primary sections attached to them, as also the higher secondary schools have middle sections.

As said earlier, the history of secondary education in the District started with the formation of *Zila* school at Badnur (present Betul town) in 1869, which imparted instructions up to middle stages. The progress of secondary education till the close of the last century has already been traced earlier.

The wide-spread famine years of the closing years of the last century, which ravaged the area, resulted in sharply reducing the attendance in schools, which was recorded as 377 in 1901-02. No substantial improvement was, however, registered during the succeeding decades, though the Provincial Government adopted a few important progressive measures for the enhancement of education in the region, consequent upon the Education Conference of 1901 at Simla. The State Government also passed the High School Education Act, 1922, which sought to give new system and contents to the secondary education. The Act provided for the establishment of a Board to regulate and supervise the system of high school examinations in the Province, to prescribe courses for middle school classes and to examine and award certificates to pupils who have passed a high school course. In 1923-24, the reorganisation reduced the middle department from four to three years and consequently increased the high school department from three to four years. The primary school courses were also reduced from five to four years then. But in the following year the position was brought to status quo.

The progress of secondary education since 1901-02 to 1931-32 is shown in the inset below:—

Year	Secondary Schools	Average daily Attendance	Expenditure Rs.
1901-02	4	377	4,844
1911-12	7	709	10,332
1921-22	10	952	38,299
1931-32	9	1,058	37,838

During the mid 'thirties the growth of education, it appears, was caught in the whirlpool of political upheaval. This resulted in the closure of many secondary institutions in the District and in 1939-40, only four such schools with an average attendance of 525 pupils were recorded in the District. But the re-

covery was sharp in the early 'forties when by 1941-42 again, the secondary education was set in gear, and there were 13 schools with a record average attendance of 2,902 pupils. The total expenditure also mounted to a record figure of Rs. 86,371 in that year. Till the dawn of Independence three more middle schools were opened in the District, bringing the total number of middle schools to 16. The enrolment rose to 3,805 and the number of teachers to 144 by that year. The expenditure on middle education was recorded to be Rs. 70,315.

Till 1951-52, whereafter the Planned development of education was ushered in, 10 more such institutions came into being. Further growth of middle school education in Plan periods may be seen as under.—

Year	No. of Middle Schools	No of Students	No. of Teachers	Expenditure Rs.
1947-48	16	3,805	144	70,315
1951-52	26	4,685	173	75,954
1956-57	39	6,224	256	2,48,339
1961-62	49	8,390	297	3,61,499
1965-66	76	11,264	459	5,66,933

(Note:—Excluding Senior Basic).

The management of these institutions is under three agencies, viz., Government, Janapada and the private bodies. The Government owned the largest number, viz., 45 of which 8 were girls' schools. Similarly, 25 were managed by the Janapada Sabha and the remaining three by the private bodies. The services of teachers in the local body schools have since been taken over by the Government. During the Second Plan period the secondary stage of six years was uniformly adopted on account of the reorganisation of classes, and middle schools were to be with classes VI to VIII.

In the middle schools, the three language formula came into force. According to this every student in middle school is required to study his mother-tongue, English and Hindi. Those students whose mother-tongue is Hindi, learn Sanskrit as the third language. The terminal examination of middle stage, i.e., the annual examination of class VIII is conducted by the Board, constituted for the purpose at the District level with District Educational Officer as Chairman. Nine Hindi text books of classes from I to VIII and three of general science (Hindi) for classes VI to VIII were nationalized and were introduced in middle schools of the District also. The nationalization of other books for the middle stage is gradually being taken up.

Senior Basic Education

The growth of basic education in the District has already been traced earlier. The scheme of conversion of middle schools into senior basic type continued

since the Second Plan period. The resultant progress of basic education during the Third Plan period is given as under:—

Year	No. of Schools	No. of Students	No. of Teachers	Expenditure Rs.
1961-62	7	2,106	66	81,455
1962-63	7	2,173	66	82,377
1963-64	7	2,293	70	1,00,299
1964-65	7	2,421	N.A.	92,919
1965-66	7	2,534	78	96,791

Higher Secondary Education

The higher secondary stage marks the final stage of secondary education, and is therefore, an important milestone in the system of education. The duration of higher secondary education, which was three years in this region, was adopted uniformly after the coming into force of the Secondary Education Act in 1958-59. This Act required the reconstitution of the Board of Secondary Education in the newly re-organised Madhya Pradesh which is responsible for enforcing syllabus and conducting examinations under the provisions of the Act. In pursuance of the policy of the Government after the adoption of the Secondary Education Commission's recommendations, the Government are trying to introduce reforms in the curriculum, etc. The scheme of conversion of schools into higher secondary schools was also pursued.

Three secondary schools, namely, the Government High School, Betul; New Betul High School, Betul and Kedarnath Bhargava High School, Multai existed in the District in 1951. The oldest English Middle School, formerly known as Government A.V.M. School, Badnur became high school in 1915, and was further raised to the status of Multipurpose High School in 1956-57. The Government Agriculture Middle School of Betul-Bazar became high school in 1955. In the various Plan periods the high schools of the District were gradually converted into higher secondary schools in which new curriculum was also enforced providing adequate facilities for diversification at the higher secondary stage. These schools seek to educate pupils to qualify for Higher Secondary Certificate Examination. The progress of higher secondary education since 1947 is given in the following Table.—

Year	No. of Schools	No. of Students	No. of Teachers	Expenditure Rs.
1947	2	288	14	57,997
1951	3	1,198	46	71,918
1956	6	2,287	101	1,45,654
1961	15	3,987	182	4,52,268
1966	23	7,537	327	9,57,052

Of the 21 higher secondary schools in 1964-65, 14 were managed by the Government, 1 by municipality and 6 by private bodies. Established in July, 1961, the Government Girls' Higher Secondary School had 619 pupils on its rolls in 1964-65. During the same year Government Higher Secondary School, Khedi Court, Betul (established in 1961) had 108 students; Government Agriculture Higher Secondary School, Betul Bazar (converted in 1964-65) had 221 students; Government Higher Secondary School, Multai (taken over by the Government in 1960) had 692 students; Janta Higher Secondary School, Shahpur (established in 1959) had 127 students and Government Higher Secondary School, Amla (upgraded in 1960) had 180 students.

Kendriya Vidyalaya, Air Force Station, Amla, was originally started as a primary school by the society of the Indian Army authorities in their private capacity sometime in the beginning of the year 1944. The standard of the school was raised to that of a high school in 1952. The school was recognised by the State Government.

In furtherance of the aims of the society, the society ran these Amla Depot primary and high schools. The schools were located in Tandon Camp in the rent free buildings owned by the Defence Department. Since the taking over by the Air Force from Army in 1954, the school was renamed as Narendra Higher Secondary School, in hallowed memory of late Air Commander Narendra. The school continued under the control of Amla Depot Education Society. With effect from 1st May, 1964, the school alongwith its primary department was taken over by the Central School Unit, Ministry of Education, Government of India under Central School Scheme. The name of the school was later changed as Central School, Amla.

The strength of the students in 1964-65 was 991 in both the primary and secondary departments which number increased to 1,069 in 1965-66. The teaching staff consisted of 38 teachers in the year 1965-66.

Some of the other important schools were—New Betul Higher Secondary School, Betulganj; New Betul Higher Secondary School, Mandvi; Betul Municipal Higher Secondary School, Betul Bazar; Government Higher Secondary School, Athnair; Government M. P. Higher Secondary School, Betul; Government Higher Secondary School, Bhainsdehi; Government Higher Secondary School, Prabhat Pattan, etc.

About four or five miles from Betul, there is a Bharat Bharti Madhymik School, which is a residential school, providing adequate boarding and lodging facilities for the students.

Additional statistical information on the above topic will be found in Appendix.

Collegiate Education

Jaywanti Haksar College, Betul

It was practically after an educational history of about a century in the District that the dream of a college for higher education was realized in 1957. Founded by an enthusiastic private body of citizens, the Janta Arts College was inaugurated in that year. From a humble beginning, when only arts classes were started, the College came to be a full-fledged degree college later, after having received a generous donation of a bungalow from a philanthropist lady, Jaywanti Bai Haksar. Facilities for imparting instructions in the faculties of arts, commerce and science leading to a degree of Saugar University were provided and the college was renamed after her. In July, 1960, the College was taken over by the State Government, and is now a post-graduate College imparting instructions leading to a post-graduate degree in Hindi, English and Zoology. The progress of the College during the years 1962-63 to 1969-70 is given as under.—

Year	Number of Students			Total	Number of Teachers
	Arts	Science	Commerce		
1962-63	159	126	56	341	25
1963-64	304	146	124	574	27
1964-65	541	207	151	899	29
1965-66	340	219	134	693	38
1966-67	326	275	161	762	39
1967-68	338	326	164	828	41
1968-69	316	298	122	736	43
1969-70	563	463	211	1,237	43

The College is equipped with a library having 250 reference and 3,329 text books. As already stated, the College is housed in a residential building. Recently, a big hall costing Rs. 45,000 for non-resident students had been added to it. A new Science block and a hobby work-shop were also constructed.

The College has National Cadet Corps units since 1960. Since August 1963, the military training has been made compulsory for all able-bodied students of the College. The strength of cadets increased from 200 to 405 in 1963-64, and to 503 in 1964-65.

Besides regular traching, to encourage all-sided development of the students, the College has been arranging multifarious extra-curricular activities by way of games, sports, debates Symposia, National Day celebrations, and through other educational and cultural activities. The Social Service Organisation of the College arranged a Social Service Camp in a nearby village during the year 1962, where a socio-economic survey was also conducted.

PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Law

Law College, Betul

The New Betul High School Association started the first Law College at Betul in 1961. This College was affiliated to Saugar University. It provided for two years' instructions in law after graduation, leading to a degree in Law of Saugar University. There were nine senior advocates taking classes honorarily. A library also existed for the benefit of students. The total receipts and expenditure of the institution increased from Rs. 1,972 and Rs. 1,171, respectively in 1961-62 to Rs. 2,245 and Rs. 1,834, respectively in 1962-63.

Agriculture

Government Agriculture Higher Secondary School, Betul Bazar

Up-graded from a middle school under Agriculture Department in 1955-56, the Government Agriculture Higher Secondary School imparts three years' instructions in Agriculture, apart from arts and science subjects, leading to the Secondary School Certificate Examination of the Madhya Pradesh Board of Secondary Education. There were 221 students on the rolls of the school in 1964-65, taught by 18 teachers.

Forest Guard Training School, Betul

The School was started in January 1947, with a view to training Forest Guards for the Forest Department. Instructions in Silviculture and Management, Engineering and Survey, Forest Laws and Accounts, Protection and Utilization of Forests are imparted, extending over a period of six months. Till the end of March 1958, 21 batches consisting of 1,621 trainees passed out from this institution. The number of trainees in 1960-61 increased to 195 from 182 in 1958-59.

Two batches of student-trainees are instructed during the six monthly course in an year, which commences from 1st May every year. During the year 1965-66, the total number of students in both the batches was 188, which number decreased to 187 in 1967-68. In 1968-69, the number of students was 161. All through these years the number of teachers was five, including the Principal.

Teachers' Training

The necessity for a training institution for teachers was felt as early as in 1946-47, when the Government started the normal School, Betul, for the training of primary school teachers. A provision for training about 150 teacher-trainees was made in this institution. Till the year 1956-57, the duration of training extended over two years but from the following session (1957-58) the duration was reduced to one year. During the final year of the Second Plan period, i.e., in 1960-61, a Government Basic Training Institute was established at Prabhat

Pattan in the District with a provision of training about 100 teachers. The progress of training institutions in the District since 1947 is given in the following table.—

Year	No. of Training Institutions	No. of Trainees	No of Teachers	Expenditure Rs.
1947	1	151	13	73,250
1951	1	75	15	32,221
1956	1	159	13	35,662
1961	2	258	23	71,380
1966	2	247	18	3,35,334

The duration of training course, which was one year hitherto was again increased to two years in the year 1965-66, on the completion of which a certificate is awarded. The number of students in Beharilal Patel Government Basic Training Institute, Prabhat Pattan and Basic Training Institute, Betul in 1965-66 was 112 and 135, respectively. The former had 8 and latter 10 teachers on the staff. In the year 1966-67, the number of students increased to 124 and 140, respectively. The strength of staff continued the same.

Gram Sewak Training Centre, Betul

The Extension Training Centre which seeks to train Gram Sewaks in the field-work was opened at Betul on 20th December, 1954. During the six months' training, the candidates with Matriculation qualification were imparted instruction in subjects like Co-operation, Social Education, Extension, etc. With 60 trainees, this Centre is being run by the Agriculture Department. In 1959, the syllabus of the training was revised and integrated training period was extended to two years.

During the First Plan period, 379 persons were trained, their number increasing to 579 during the Second and 443 during the Third Plan period. In 1966, there were 171 trainees on the rolls of the Centre. The teaching staff consists of four instructors for agricultural subjects and one each for the rest of the four subjects, apart from the Principal.

The institution is a residential one, with adequate hostel and residential facilities to the staff members. The training Centre has a farm, a dairy, poultry unit and workshop to impart practical training to the trainees.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

Following the Independence, the principles of adult franchise were enshrined in the Constitution which made an adult an important factor in the fabric of India's political life. But the wide-spread illiteracy bred some confusion in the

minds of the people who looked upon freedom as a kind of Santa Claus. Thus to clear up the cobweb of confusion from the minds of the people, the Madhya Pradesh Government launched its Social Education Scheme on 1st May, 1948. Social Education classes were started in Betul also, as elsewhere, under the Additional District Inspector of Schools. It seeks to impart many-sided instructions in literacy, social health and hygiene, citizenship and recreation. Till 1953-54, Education Department administered the scheme, whereafter, on the creation of Social Welfare Department, it was transferred to its control. Betul got a Welfare Officer then. Three-fold media were adopted to promote the programme, viz., through human-medium, through audio-visual means and through literature.

Adult Literacy

The campaign for adult literacy forms an important part of the over-all scheme. It seeks to coach adults from the ages of 14 to 40 years, who had no earlier education for Social Education Certificate courses. For the purpose, volunteers and teachers were engaged. During the First and Second Plan periods, social education classes were organised. During the year 1951-52, 569 classes were working with an enrolment of 12,722 adult males and 2,039 females. After the formation of the new department on the recommendations of the Social Education Enquiry Committee, the courses were re-organised in 1954, and extended over to one year's term. The work of social education was transferred to the Social Education Organisator working in different Blocks of the District. During 1955-56, the Department conducted 71 classes with an enrolment of 1,329 adult males and 40 females. The following Table shows the progress made in this respect during the Second and Third Plan periods:—

Year	Literacy Classes	No of. Adults made Literate	No of Teachers	Expenditure Rs.
1956-61	307	1,345	—	19,622
1961-62	38	400	38	4,874
1962-63	32	433	32	4,027
1964-65	38	521	39	3,993
1965-66	39	409	37	5,482

Audio-Visual Aids

As early as in 1937, the C.P. and Berar Education Department appointed the Visual Education Committee to explore the possibilities of the use of motion pictures for educational purposes. The Social Education scheme introduced in 1948, adopted this means of mass education, which included the film, film-strips, epidiascope and magic-lantern, radio-broadcast, songdrama, *bhajan* and *kirtan*. The Kalapathak party of Hoshangabad which covers this District on alternate months, gave about 150 programmes in Betul in 1962-63. About 175 film-shows were organised, and free batteries to 107 radio-centres in the District were dis-

tributed during the same year. Four non-official Kalapathaks of the District were also sanctioned grants worth Rs. 600/- during the year.

In the year 1965-66, seven Kalapathak parties gave 49 programmes in the District, which figure rose to 52 in 1968-69. The number of Kalapathak parties, however, remained seven.

The number of film-shows given decreased from 116 in 1965-66 to 100 in the following year, and to 75 in the year 1968-69.

Follow-up Education

To prevent the neoliterates from relapsing into illiteracy, the Government arranged for the follow-up education. For the purpose, circulating and other libraries were opened. There were 88 libraries and reading-rooms for the adults in Betul in the year 1953-54, equipped with 3,866 books. Their number rose to 95 in 1956-57 with 16,333 books, and to 109 with 21,575 books in the year 1961-62. The expenditure also increased from Rs. 2,300/- in 1953-54 to Rs. 13,613/- in 1961-62. Presently in 1964-65, there were 154 such libraries in the District, equipped with 24,788 books.

CULTURAL, LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES

Hindi Sahitya Samiti, Betul

Established in July, 1963, the Samiti with a membership of about 510 persons aims at the cultural and literary advancement of the District populace. The Samiti conducts various examinations in Hindi, and strives to open new centres for the same. The Sanskrit examination of Bhartiya Vidya Bhawan, Bombay is also being conducted at these centres. The Samiti provided guidance to the budding writers in Hindi, as also it helps in the publication of their literary articles. Apart from this, the Samiti also strives for the publication of literature concerning children and adults, opening of *Swadhyaya Mandals* and libraries, translation of classical works of different languages into Hindi and the celebration of anniversaries of important litterateurs and *Sahitya-goshtis* in the District. The Samiti has for the present six branches in the District which are working for these ends. During the year 1964, the Betul Bazar Sahitya Samiti published a work entitled *Satpura-ke-Swar*. During the year 1964-65, the Samiti started conducting examinations of Rashtra Bhasha Prachar Samiti, Wardha and Bhartiya Vidya Bhawan, Bombay at eight places in the District. The Samiti has also started at these places coaching classes in Hindi for the non-Hindi speakers. The Samiti also plans to construct a Nehru Hindi Bhawan at the cost of Rs. 20,000, opening of library and reading rooms at a cost of Rs. 5,000 and seven adult education centres, etc., in the District.

LIBRARIES

The centres of popular learning, viz., the libraries, which are the epitome of wisdom of ages and the depository of culture of the past, do not have a rich

history in this District. Of the three recognised and aided libraries in the District, Kalele Maharashtra Vachnalaya, Betulgunj, was founded in 1921. It serves only a section of the District populace through its 894 books recorded in 1964.

It was only in 1954-55, that the Government established the District Library at Betul. As reported in 1963, the library had 3,464 books on its shelves. During the same year the Government spent Rs. 13,555 on the library. Yet another library, run by the Municipal Committee, Betul is Municipal Library which has 4,066 books on its shelves. The expenditure on the library amounted to Rs. 1,996 during the year 1962-63.

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

The earliest system of medicine known to have been practised in this area was *Ayurveda*. The factors that promoted the administration of this indigenous system of medicine were cheapness, easy availability and proximity of local, though untrained *vaidyas*. The belief of the local population in such medicines and the social and economic conditions of the people also played an important role. However, lack of knowledge in the methodical administering of these medicines marred the further development of *Ayurvedic* system.

With the advent of Muslim rule the *Unani* system of medicine also made its appearance. The *hakims* who generally practised in the urban areas also had no specific code of treatment though the *Unani* medicines were considerably efficacious.

The origin of Western or Allopathic system of medicine can be traced back to the time when this area came under the British in 1818. However, authentic references regarding the systematic administration of Western medicines are available only since the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861. The first step in this direction was the opening of a Charitable Dispensary in 1862-63 at Betul. The management of the Dispensary was entrusted to a Dispensary Committee which consisted of Civil Officers of the District and prominent men of the locality. Medicines and medical treatment were rendered free of cost. Though special facilities for indoor treatment were not available at the initial stage, serious cases were accommodated in the Dispensary building. The cost of maintenance of the Dispensary was partly met with private subscriptions and the remainder by the State. The officer who inspected the jails was also responsible for the inspection of this Dispensary.

In spite of initial difficulties the Dispensary gradually became popular. A serious obstacle to the enlargement of its activities was the scarcity of trained local doctors. In order to obviate this difficulty the Government decided to open a Medical School at Nagpur. The authorities also felt that the local, "men are more likely to win the confidence of the people than foreigners who moreover look upon this part of India with some disfavour. The scale of salaries allowed to Native Doctors is comparatively small. It might, perhaps, suffice for a native

practising near his home; but it fails to satisfy people of other Provinces, and to retain their services at a distance from their own country."¹

As regards the Dispensary's expenditure it was laid down in 1866-67 that charges such as, surgeon's allowance, local doctor's salary and the like should be defrayed from the general revenues and those of dressers, compounders, hospital servants, diet of patients, Indian drugs and the like should be borne by local contribution. In other words, the Government aid in the maintenance of the Dispensary was limited to the appointment of a local medical officer to be in-charge of the Dispensary and the supply of European medicines. The Civil Surgeon, usually a Commissioned Officer, of the District was to visit and inspect the Dispensary occasionally.

On the 1st of April, 1885, the management of dispensaries of the Province was transferred to the local bodies which had jurisdiction over those areas. The Chief Commissioner impressed upon the municipalities that under Act XI of 1873 under which this step was taken they were principally responsible for the maintenance of educational and dispensary establishments. Consequently, the receipts and charges of dispensaries were transferred from the Dispensary Fund to the District Fund. For those situated within the limits of municipal towns it was transferred to the Municipal Fund. The local Medical Officer was required to visit a certain number of villages and to see a prescribed number of vaccinations daily. The Civil Surgeon was asked to regulate the tour of the Medical Officers.

In 1890 the Betul Branch Dispensary was opened in the *Khalsa*. This was, however, closed in 1903-04. Betul being a hilly and sparsely populated District, advantages of a medical institution were not fully exploited. The Administration Report of 1904-05 reported that Betul District was 'worst off' in respect of dispensaries.

The Betul District Gazetteer (1907), however, reports that the District had three dispensaries, two at Badnur including the Police Hospital, and one at Multai. The Badnur Main Dispensary had accommodation for 23 patients, Multai Dispensary for 6, and the Police Hospital for 12. For the decade ending 1901 the average number of indoor and outdoor patients was 16 and 155, respectively. In 1904 nearly 14,000 patients were treated. The income of the Dispensary Fund was Rs. 8,000, the Provincial Fund, Local Fund and subscriptions contributing Rs. 3,000, Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 1,200, respectively.

A peripatetic dispensary was sanctioned for Betul as an experimental measure "to work in unhealthy areas in the district" in 1914. It started functioning in the District by the middle of 1914 and having done the work satisfactorily, its permanent retention was sanctioned subsequently. But the Sub-Assistant Surgeon's deputation on Military duty caused its temporary closure in 1916 and reopening in 1917.

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1866-67, p. 85.

Certain important events during the second decade of the present Century included the establishment of the Central Provinces Medical Examination Board, and the enactment of the Central Provinces Medical Registration Act in 1916. The latter was not, however, brought into operation till 1922. During the period 1919-1922 rules envisaging a system of charging small fees (sanctioned by the Local Government in 1917) of one anna per day or six rupees per annum as cost of medicines from the well-to-do patients, were strictly enforced. During the 1920's the Government decided to provide a woman doctor at one town of every district. Under a scheme financed from the Government of India grant for rural development, sanction was accorded for the construction of Cheap Plan dispensaries at Athnair and Mohta in 1936. The aid was in the form of a non-recurring grant to the District Council to meet half of the cost of construction.

Mention has been made that the general supervision and control of the dispensaries in the District rested with the Civil Surgeon. The highest appointments in the Medical Department (including Civil Surgeon) were generally held by Commissioned Officers of the Indian Medical Service. The Civil Surgeon also functioned as an adviser to the Deputy Commissioner in medical and public health matters.

VITAL STATISTICS

Efforts to evolve a system for registering births and deaths in the Central Provinces met with some success only after a period of experimentation. Though necessary steps were taken immediately after the formation of the Central Provinces, the arrangements were not complete till the close of 1866-67. While the Municipal Police were asked to collect such statistics in the urban area the District Police and Patwaris (village accountants) were responsible for this work in the rural tracts. In other words, such an arrangement could effect only partial registration. The rural areas to be covered being unwieldy for proper supervision, the figures collected were apparently less reliable.

In 1870 a new set of registration forms was issued by the Government of India and the collection drive was extended all over the Provinces. Betul District was almost completely covered under this system. The agency for the collection of statistics was the Police and places where they were recorded were the Police Stations. The village *Kotwar* periodically visited the nearest Station-Houses and reported all births and deaths that occurred in his village since his last visit. But it was felt that even this arrangement was not quite satisfactory, for the *Kotwar* reported once or twice in a week provided the Station-House was near, but much less frequently when it was far off. Yet another weak point of the system was that the reporter depended much on his memory, which gave rise to possibility of inaccuracies and omissions. Subsequently, better arrangements and proper instructions could bring out more accuracy in figures collected in the rural areas. The *Kotwar* was at least aware of all births and deaths in the village, and only timely report was necessary. The accuracy of figures relating to urban areas was

still doubtful, for the occurrence of birth of death had to be reported by the householder himself.

After a further period of experimentation a new system of registering vital statistics was introduced from 1st January, 1920. The new system envisaged the compilation of weekly returns of towns showing deaths from various causes and also infant mortality.

The Civil Surgeon at district level and the Director of Public Health at provincial level have been responsible for the collection and compilation of vital statistics, an arrangement that obtains till today.

Coming to the general standard of health as presented by statistics, the birth-rate for the period 1891 to 1925 mostly varied between 30 and 55 per mille except that in 1904 it recorded 66.65 per mille. In the years 1931 and 1941 birth-rate was recorded as 50.95 and 51.13, respectively per mille. The birth-rate for the period 1948-1952 also varied between 33 and 37 per mille except for 1950, which recorded only 24.25 per mille. The birth-rate again returned to 34 per mille in 1951 for the whole District, 34.5 for the rural and 27.5 for the urban areas. The birth-rate of Betul District in subsequent five years, i.e., 1952 to 1956 was 36.67, 38.62, 37.65, 46.16 and 39.02 per mille, respectively.

The death-rate during the period, viz., 1891-1925, generally varied between 20 and 45 though it went as high as 86 in 1900 and 125 in 1918. For the years 1931 and 1941, it was recorded as 41.04 and 36.23, respectively, per mille. It ranged between 24.5 and 28 per mille during 1948 to 1952, the average being 26.7 per mille. The rate being considerably low can be attributed to better health services and improved medical facilities. In 1951 the death-rate registered for the District as a whole was 26.2 per mille, 26.9 for the rural and 16.5 for the urban areas. The death-rate recorded for the next five years, i.e., 1952 to 1956, was 27.88, 30.99, 23.61, 25.86 and 26.11 per mille, respectively.

The following Table will show the total number of births and deaths in the District and their rates per mille in recent years.

Year	Births	Birth-rate per thousand population	Deaths	Death-rate per thousand population
1957	19,009	42.70	11,955	26.48
1958	19,214	42.57	13,095	28.99
1959	21,100	35.80	10,951	20.50
1960	21,888	39.80	9,889	18.00
1961	24,306	42.90	12,283	21.70
1962	23,983	42.79	10,450	18.64
1963	25,746	45.96	11,923	21.28
1964	25,504	45.50	10,361	18.48

Causes of Mortality

The main causes of mortality in general are cholera, smallpox, plague, fever, dysentery, tuberculosis, injuries and suicides. As far as Betul District is concerned plague has not been a cause of mortality in recent years while cholera and smallpox were responsible for a negligible number. In about 50 per cent of the cases fever has been the cause of death. Tuberculosis and bowel complaints also accounted for a sizable number, but only next to fever. Mortality caused by these diseases during 1957 to 1964 was.—

Year	Cholera	Small-pox	Plague	Fever	Dysentery	Tuberculosis	Injuries & Suicides	All other cases	Total
1957	42	6	—	2,780	69	—	—	9,063	11,960
1958	107	87	—	5,979	310	148	10	6,454	13,095
1959	—	2	—	4,342	217	148	23	6,219	10,951
1960	—	36	—	3,691	215	140	51	5,756	9,889
1961	3	22	—	1,810	248	269	58	9,873	12,283
1962	—	11	—	1,133	196	223	202	8,685	10,450
1963	—	92	—	3,364	123	67	—	7,677	11,323
1964	—	—	—	4,714	146	40	—	5,461	10,361

Infant Mortality

The main causes of infant mortality in general are prematurity, mal-nutrition (chiefly owing to want of mother's milk) diarrhoea, respiratory causes and fevers. The annual rate of infant mortality per 1,000 live-births for the period 1955 to 1962 is tabulated below.—

Year	Infant mortality per mille
1955	122.47
1956	216.94
1957	82.54
1958	201.49
1959	226.44
1960	216.23
1961	267.75
1962	283.91

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT

The diseases common to the District have already been indicated. The magnitude of their incidence in the District and the medical and public health activities to curb them are discussed below.

Cholera

Cholera is almost an invariable concomitant of distress arising from want of food. Comparative mildness of cholera epidemics in Betul District may be attributed to cleanly conditions of Gond villages, while the distance at which the villages are situated from each other has acted as a hindrance to the rapid spread of infection. Available records speak of the first attack of cholera epidemic in the District in 1864-65. During the next 35 years cholera was totally absent from the District for 15 years, but in six years 1877, 1889, 1892, 1895, 1897 and 1900 epidemics were sustained, causing more than a thousand deaths. In 1900, however, it ravaged the District with such virulence that it registered 3,608 deaths, which was equivalent to a rate of nearly 12 per mille of the population. From 1901 to 1905 the District was free from cholera. It revisited the District in 1906 causing 166 deaths. Sizable number of deaths was further recorded in 1912 (919) and 1916 (431). In 1919 the attack was severe taking a toll of 2,609 lives. The highest number of deaths from cholera during the past six decades was in 1938 when the epidemic posed a direct threat to the population, killing 4,767 persons. Other significant years of its incidence were 1945 and 1953 when the disease was responsible for 1,081 and 1,212 deaths, respectively.

Water being the main source of infection, disinfection of the sources of water-supply by Potassium Permanganate is one of the chief anti-cholera measures. Other measures include the distribution of cholera medicines through vaccination staff and administration of anti-cholera inoculations. During serious outbreaks of cholera Emergency Cholera Regulations are enforced and mass anti-cholera inoculation campaign is conducted in the infected areas and their adjacent villages.

Plague

This dangerous disease visited this District for the first time in 1904 and was practically confined to the town of Badnur (Betul) and took away 35 lives. In 1908, plague visited the District in a serious form and took a heavy toll of 534 lives. This was followed by outbreaks in two successive years, 1911 and 1912, recording 104 and 380 deaths, respectively. During the first half of 1913 a special plague staff was appointed for the Central Provinces and the arrangements effected for its prevention thus kept away the disease successfully for about four years. But the years 1917, 1918 and 1919 again recorded a large number of deaths on account of its prevalence. In 1920 the attack was comparatively on a large scale killing 277 persons. Practically every year of the third and fourth decades witnessed its outbreak, the mortality during the years 1926 to 1932 being very high. The severest attack of plague was in 1928 and 1929 when it claimed 742 and 565 lives, respectively. A marked decline in the death-rate was noticeable from 1933 onwards, and since 1942 Betul District was almost free from the attack of this highly infectious disease.

The anti-plague measures included inoculation, evacuation, isolation, disinfection and rat-destruction. During serious outbreaks, temporary Plague Regulations under the Epidemic Diseases Act were also enforced.

Smallpox

Thanks to the implementation of vaccination programme immediately after the formation of the Central Provinces and the alertness of the vaccination staff, the District has been relieved of any serious incidence of this frightful disease though it has always been present. And towards the close of 1870's the authorities felt satisfied at its low mortality-rate in Betul. Its virulence was unabated during the two years 1896 and 1897 when it claimed 476 and 159 human lives. However, during the past six decades at no time the District was completely free from its incidence, though it never took a virulent form. Starting with 87 deaths in 1900, it exceeded hundred only on 10 occasions, the highest mortality of 281 being reached in 1941. Besides the year 1941, the attacks were serious in 1913, 1920, 1931, 1935, 1936, 1940, 1944, 1945 and 1955 claiming 154, 121, 122, 112, 103, 116, 230, 248 and 115 lives, respectively.

The only effective measure for the prevention of this disease is vaccination. Its introduction in the Central Provinces can be traced back to 1862 when vaccinators were engaged at various places on duty. Extension of vaccination to the District reduced the mortality from this disease considerably. A new scheme of systematic vaccination was, however, introduced in 1863-64. The Vaccination Department consisted of a Superintendent (a Medical Officer) and a 'strong staff of Vaccinators'. The centres of operation, to begin with, were Nagpur and Chhindwara. In September, 1867, the District Officers were instructed to associate the municipalities in this work and vaccinators were subsequently employed under their supervision and Betul was no exception. Dr. Brake, Superintendent of the Vaccination Department, paid an inspection visit to Betul during that year. Betul was one of the three districts which constituted the circle of operation in 1872-73. Dispensary vaccination was also in vogue and in 1878-79, 616 persons were vaccinated in the Dispensary by the Hospital Assistant. The establishment was subsequently placed under the Sanitary Commissioner who was also responsible for the compilation of returns. At the district level the Civil Surgeon was to supervise the work. The District was divided into a number of vaccination circles and the expenditure was met from the Provincial revenues. In 1890 steps were taken to effect the substitution of animal lymph for that obtained from human-beings. With the establishment of a Central Lymph Depot at Nagpur in 1908-09, the supply of lymph to the whole Province was made from there. By 1931 vaccination was made compulsory in municipal areas. But under the Central Provinces Vaccination Law Amendment Act, 1932 (VI of 1932) vaccination could be made compulsory in selected rural areas as well. In recent years intensive vaccination campaign (primary and re-vaccination) has been launched in rural and urban areas. The staffs of the Health Department and of the local bodies now carry out this work.

Under the Smallpox Eradication Programme five Sub-Units at Shahpur, Chicholi, Bhainsdehi, Amla and Prabhat Pattan have been working in the District since December, 1962. These Sub-Units are under the Unit at Hoshangabad.

The work of the Sub-Units is supervised by a Para-Medical Assistant and Health Educator with headquarters at Hoshangabad. Each Sub-Unit has one Sanitary Inspector, one Enumerator, five Vaccinators and one peon. The Civil Surgeon is responsible for the proper working of these Sub-Units.

There are nine vaccinators employed by the Janapada Sabhas and three by Municipal Committees. One Assistant Superintendent of Vaccination who is jointly paid by all the Janapada Sabhas supervises their work.

The following Table will show the vaccination work done in the District during the period 1956 to 1964.

Year	Primary vaccination	Re-vaccination
1956	16,857	25,620
1957	16,456	20,027
1958	16,802	13,310
1959	17,576	22,909
1960	17,313	26,460
1961	21,202	24,247
1962	21,778	32,521
1963	51,113	4,04,159
1964	22,317	64,420

Malaria

Malaria has been a special malady of Betul District since long. Lying on the Satpura Plateau, it has a mean elevation of 2,000 ft. and receives annual rainfall of 45 to 50 inches. The hills and dales with super-abundance of forest growth, sandy stretches on the north and west and a heavy and constant rainfall present a malarious climate for the District. Added to this are the collection of pools and sheets of stagnant water and numerous forest streams, a factor for the multiplication of mosquitoes.

Regarding the fatal character of the disease in the past it may suffice to quote from the Betul District Gazetteer. "The majority of deaths in this District are due to malarial fever which is of remittent and intermittent types. It sets in with the commencement of the rains, increases towards the end and subsides with the advent of the cold weather, about the middle of November."¹

In 1910 a survey was conducted by Major W.H. Kenrick of the Indian Medical Service to examine the incidence of malaria in C. P. and Berar. The survey revealed that certain parts of the District were hyper-endemic, especially the northern part occupied by the main range of the Satpuras as far south as the town of Badnur, excluding about 20 villages in the narrow Rampur valley. The

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 47.

Betul-Itarsi road that traversed this hyper-endemic tract had heavy cart traffic, and this resulted in the 'importation' of malaria in the outlying villages. It was reported that Nimpani had a spleen-rate of 70 per cent and Bhayawari 12 per cent. Keriya, Dohia and Path in the jungles were also hyper-endemic. Jam Kodra and Belund had spleen-rates of 100 per cent while in the east, Bamla, Jamdi and Ratera had 50 per cent. Badnur, Multai and Bhainsdehi had 3, 5 and 25 per cent of spleen-rates, respectively.

In the past mortality caused by this disease had been fairly high and in certain years appalling. Now malaria has completely retreated from the District. In 1958 only one fatal case was recorded and, thereafter, no death on this account has occurred.

The eradication of malaria can be attributed to the effective steps taken for the prevention of this disease. Even during the latter half of the last Century arrangements existed for the distribution of quinine tablets in endemic areas at a nominal cost. The supply of these tablets was made free of cost in the hyper-endemic areas in subsequent years.

The anti-malarial measures, both preventive and curative, were intensified during the 1950's. Accordingly, the Public Health Department of the Government of Madhya Pradesh (old) sanctioned the establishment of a National Malaria Control Unit for Betul District. This Unit started functioning directly under the supervision of the Director of Health Services from April, 1956, with its headquarters at Betul. It had a net-work of seven Sub-Units in 1956 in the District at Betul, Bhaoura and Chicholi in Betul Tahsil, Bhainsdehi and Sawalmendha in Bhainsdehi Tahsil, and Amla and Multai in Multai Tahsil. It was administered by a qualified Medical Officer assisted by one trained senior Malaria Inspector and seven Malaria Inspectors. A strong technical staff which included superior field workers, field workers and insect collectors along with clerical and other staff, was also attached to this Unit. In pursuance of a decision at the Malaria Medical Officers' Conference held at Indore, 430 villages in Sausar Tahsil of Chhindwara District were also brought under the operational control of this Unit since 1958.

The measures adopted were.—

1. Anti-adult measures with D. D. T. Water dispersible powder with dose of 100 mgm. per sq. ft. Two such sprayings were conducted in a year during the malaria transmission period of the area under control.
2. Free distribution of anti-malaria drugs to the malaria patients.
3. Survey work, spleen survey, parasite and infant parasite surveys.

Spraying was done in all houses, cattle sheds, etc. The first spraying operations were started on 1st August, 1956.

The encouraging results obtained through these operations effected the carrying over of this scheme to the Second Five Year Plan and the Government of India decided to replace the Control Programme by a complete Malaria Eradication Programme. A Malaria Eradication Publicity Week, commencing from 23rd June, 1958, was observed and the National Malaria Control Unit was rechristened as National Malaria Eradication Programme Unit (N.M.E.P. Unit) in the subsequent year (1959). A full complement of staff on regular establishment under Plan scheme, consisting of one Malaria Medical Officer, one Assistant Unit Officer, three Senior Malaria Inspectors, three Junior Malaria Inspectors, a good number of Superior Field Workers and Field Workers, two Technicians and clerical and other staff were re-allotted to this Unit during 1959-60. All the technical staff had a sufficient period of training in the technique of Malaria Eradication Programme. In addition, for the surveillance operations a staff consisting of 18 Malaria (Surveillance) Inspectors, 72 Surveillance workers and two Laboratory technicians, was also sanctioned.

The area covered by the N.M.E.P. Unit comprises the three tahsils of Betul District and Sausar Tahsil of Chhindwara District—about 5,024 sq. miles spread over 1,652 villages and 5 towns. With the switching over to the Eradication Programme the area under control was divided into three Sub-Units with headquarters at Betul, Pandhurna and Bhainsdehi, each under the charge of a Senior Malaria Inspector assisted by a Junior Malaria Inspector. The Malaria Medical Officer supervised and controlled their work. The jurisdictions of the two Sub-Units covering Betul District was as under.—

Name of Sub-Unit	Total No. of villages	Total population	Total coverage (sq. miles)
1. Betul Sub-Unit	716	3,16,713	2,119
2. Bhainsdehi Sub-Unit	448	1,83,806	1,538

During the spraying operation period of five months these Sub-Units were equipped with adequate D. D. T. stirrup pumps, buckets, etc. Each team consisted of five field workers and one superior field worker. The towns and villages in Betul District covered by the D. D. T. spraying operation annually from 1956-57 to 1962-63 are tabulated below.—

Year	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63
Towns	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Villages	1,038	1,183	1,262	1,262	1,262	1,262	1,262

The following Table will show the comparative Spleen, Parasite and Infant Parasite rates (yearwise) during this period.—

Year	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63
1. Cumulative spleen-rate, sprayed villages	No data	37.16	17.33	8.39	5.68	No data	No data
Unsprayed villages	32.46	56.29	66.12	No data	No data	—do—	—do—
2. Cumulative parasite rate sprayed villages	No data	13.59	4.19	0.52	0.38	—do—	—do—
Unsprayed villages	—do—	35.39	55.97	No data	No data	—do—	—do—
3. Comparative infant parasite rate sprayed villages	No data	8.69	2.61	0.62	0.00	—do—	—do—
Unsprayed villages	16.67	22.22	32.89	No data	No data	—do—	—do—

The appraisal team appointed by the Government of India to evaluate the progress of National Malaria Eradication Programme in the District, after examining all records pertaining to the scheme at Hoshangabad approved the withdrawal of D. D. T. spraying operations. Accordingly, spraying was discontinued from 1963 and the Unit entered into the consolidation phase. In 1964, however, 179 villages were sprayed.

Other anti-malarial activities included active and passive surveillance operations launched since 1960. For surveillance purposes the whole area of the Unit was divided into 18 sectors under 18 Junior Malaria (Surveillance) Inspectors. The sectors were further sub-divided into 72 sections. Each Sector also had three to five surveillance workers. The Senior Malaria Inspectors in charge of the Sub-Units supervised the work of their respective charges. Under the former, the specially appointed staff of the Malaria Eradication Scheme visited every house at periodical intervals, enquired about cases of fever, took blood smears and got them examined under the microscope. If the results were found positive for malaria the staff supplied a complete course of anti-malarial drugs to cure the disease. The scheme involved a large staff for a minimum period of three years. Under the latter type of surveillance (passive) the Government and private agencies connected with medical and public health and the voluntary social welfare organizations in the District reported suspected cases of malaria to the authorities. In this case also blood smears are collected and examined and proper treatment

given. The active surveillance is mainly meant for rural areas and passive surveillance for urban areas. The following Table will show the surveillance operations done during the past few years.—

Year	No. of fever cases detected	No. of cases in which blood smear collected	Result (cases found positive)
Active Surveillance			
1960	1,318	628	1
1961	23,239	22,970	4
1962	41,073	36,229	Nil
1963	75,129	55,982	31
1964	79,934	67,004	81
Passive Surveillance			
1961	9,608	484	8
1962	9,748	4,402	Nil
1963	4,758	2,684	Nil
1964	12,079	6,016	7

Tuberculosis

Compared to malaria tuberculosis caused lesser mortality in the past. However, recent years registered, in spite of effective control measures, a sizable number of deaths—148 in 1959, 140 in 1960 and 269 in 1961. In direct contrast to this, the years 1963 and 1964 recorded only 67 and 40 fatal cases, respectively.

There is no T. B. Clinic in the District, but the indigent T. B. patients are provided free anti-tubercular drugs from the Main Hospital, Betul. In 1960 the Mission Hospital at Padhar opened a tuberculosis department attached to the Hospital with facilities for the treatment of 20 indoor patients. Now (1965) it has an in-patient accommodation for 15 male and 15 female tuberculosis patients. There is also an out-patient T. B. Clinic attached to this Hospital affording great relief to the T. B. patients of the District.

Under B. C. G. campaign 53,768 persons were tested and 14,594 vaccinated in 1955. As against this in 1960, 3,899 persons were tested and 1,299 were vaccinated.

The incidence of leprosy and venereal diseases is not high in the District and, therefore, warrants no special mention.

Eye Diseases

Cataract and trachoma are the eye diseases found common in the District. There is no eye hospital in the District. The Betul Main Hospital affords medical facilities for the treatment of such diseases. The Mission Hospital at Padhar also undertakes treatment of eye diseases. Cataract operations are being performed

in this Hospital. The State Government arranged an Eye Camp in 1959 at Betul. As many as 1,192 patients were examined and 115 operations performed.

In order to assess the incidence of trachoma a pilot project survey, under the auspices of the Indian Council of Medical Research, New Delhi, was conducted in 1959. One village of Betul was also covered by this survey. The incidence of the disease was found to be ranging from 14 to 76 per cent in the State.

PUBLIC HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES

Organisation of the Medical Department

As stated earlier, the Civil Surgeon is head of the medical department at district level. As there is no separate head on the public health side the Civil Surgeon is looking after the public health activities as well. He exercises supervisory and administrative control over all government medical institutions and supervisory control over Janapada and Homoeopathic dispensaries. On all administrative matters connected with Allopathic dispensaries he is responsible to the Director of Health Services, Madhya Pradesh, through the Regional Deputy Director of Health Services, Jabalpur. On matters regarding *Ayurvedic* dispensaries he consults the Deputy Director of *Ayurveda* at Bhopal. The Civil Surgeon is assisted by Assistant Medical Officers posted at Main Hospital, Betul, hospitals at tahsil headquarters and dispensaries. There is no post of Additional Civil Surgeon in the District.

Hospitals and Dispensaries

Till 1915 the District had the advantage of only one hospital at Betul and a dispensary each at Multai and Bhainsdehi tahsil headquarters. As against this, in 1947 there were one hospital and two dispensaries in Betul Tahsil, one dispensary in Multai Tahsil and two in Bhainsdehi Tahsil. The number of dispensaries in the District was also increased by two in Multai Tahsil and one in Bhainsdehi Tahsil. In 1951, Betul Tahsil got three more dispensaries, and one each of the existing dispensaries in Multai and Bhainsdehi tahsils was upgraded into hospitals. The number of dispensaries in Betul Tahsil was raised to six in 1954. The strength of hospitals and dispensaries remained the same till 1956.

It was felt by the State Government that some District headquarters hospitals managed by Dispensary Fund Committee were not in a position to render efficient medical service and up-to-date medical facilities to the public on account of their unsound financial position. Consequently, the Main Hospital, Betul, was provincialised in 1956. Dispensaries opened by local bodies and by private institutions were also eligible to receive grants-in-aid from the Government for their maintenance. After the reorganization of states it was found that in the other integrating units, the hospitals and dispensaries were being managed from State Funds of the respective Governments. In order, therefore, to bring their

management at par with the other three regions, it was considered desirable to provincialise such dispensaries. The dispensaries thus provincialised since August, 1958 in the District are those at Multai, Bhainsdehi, Prabhat Pattan, Athnair, Mohta, Ranipur, Bijadehi, Shahpur and Chicholi.

Primary Health Centres

It was felt by the Government that the full benefit of the Community Development Programme, which was intended to bring about improvement in the economic condition of the villages, will not be realised unless effective measures are taken for promotion of positive health of the village folk. The resulting institution was the Primary Health Centre. The Centre located in each Block forms the focus from which health services radiate into the areas covered by the Block. The Centre is a small unit which provides an integrated form of medical care both preventive and curative to the people living in the area. It is responsible for all medical and public health activities in the Block including the environmental hygiene, maternity and child-welfare activities, collection of vital statistics, health education and control of communicable diseases. Indigenous *dais* are also trained at the centres. The centres serve approximately 100 villages with a population of about 66,000.

Each Centre has a dispensary, some diagnostic facilities and indoor ward for in-patients. Some beds are reserved for maternity cases. Each centre is staffed by one doctor, one compounder, one dresser, one sanitary inspector, one lady health visitor, four midwives, two peons and four ancillary staff. With a view to serving larger population in the field of maternal and child health, three sub-centres have generally been set up at convenient places in the Block and a midwife is in residence at each one of these, so that in case of need she is readily available. These sub-centres are under the supervision of the lady health visitor. The sanitary inspector attached to the Centre visits the villages frequently and gives advice and instructions for the improvement of environmental sanitation and takes necessary steps for control of communicable diseases. The medical officer in charge of the Primary Health Centre has to tour the area within the Block and visit the sub-centres once a week.

The Primary Health Centres opened from the year 1955 onwards have added to the medical facilities of the District. The opening of these centres necessitated the conversion and upgrading of certain civil dispensaries into Primary Health Centres.

The eight Primary Health Centres of the District are located at Sehra, Chicholi and Shahpur in Betul Tahsil, Prabhat Pattan, Amla and Multai in Multai Tahsil, and Bhainsdehi and Bhimpur in Bhainsdehi Tahsil. The dates of opening of these centres, alongwith their sub-centres are given below.—

Name of Block	Name of Primary Health Centre	Sub-Centres	Date of opening of the Centre
1. Betul	Sehra	1. Sakadehi 2. Sohagpur 3. Jaura	1-4-1955
2. Prabhat Pattan	Prabhat Pattan	1. Chilhati 2. Birool 3. Baghoda	1-4-1956
3. Bhimpur	Bhimpur	1. Chikhali 2. Ratanpur 3. Chunalohama	2-10-1956
4. Shahpur	Shahpur	1. Padhar 2. Ghodadongri 3. Ranipur	1959
5. Chicholi	Chicholi	1. Kesia 2. Chunahazuri 3. Jeen	1959
6. Multai	Multai	1. Ridhora 2. Saikheda 3. Jaulkheda	1961
7. Bhainsdehi	Bhainsdehi	Bordehi	1962-63
8. Amla	Amla	1. Bondehi 2. Ratheda	1964

Of the eight Primary Health Centres, five are provided with UNICEF jeeps to facilitate the flow of health services into the different villages and into the homes of the people.

The Table below gives the number of Allopathic institutions working in different tahsils of the District from 1958 to 1964.

Year	Betul Tahsil				Multai Tahsil			
	Hosp.	P.H.C.	Disp.	Doct.	Hosp.	P.H.C.	Disp.	Doct.
1958	2	1	5	11	1	1	—	2
1959	2	1	5	11	1	1	—	2
1960	2	2	4	11	1	1	—	2
1961	2	2	4	11	1	1	—	2
1962	2	3	3	11	—	2	—	2
1963	2	3	3	11	—	2	—	2
1964	2	3	3	10	—	3	—	3

Year	Bhainsdehi Tahsil			
	Hosp.	P.H.C.	Disp.	Doct.
1958	—	1	3	4
1959	—	1	3	4
1960	—	1	3	4
1961	—	1	3	4
1962	—	1	3	4
1963	—	1	3	4
1964	—	1	3	4

Of the six dispensaries, four civil dispensaries are located at Mohta, Ranipur, Athnair and Bijadehi. Each dispensary is staffed by a doctor, one compounder, one dresser, one waterman and one sweeper. The other two dispensaries are the Police Dispensary and one Government dispensary attached to the Forest Guard Training School under a medical assistant.

The extent of medical relief afforded by these medical institutions during 1957 to 1964 was.—

Year	Betul Tahsil				Multai Tahsil			
	Indoor	Outdoor	Total	No. of beds available	Indoor	Outdoor	Total	No. of beds available
1957	974	77,258	78,232	42	25	33,527	33,552	6
1958	1,015	78,637	79,652	58	101	35,175	35,276	6
1959	1,254	94,446	95,700	68	176	39,434	39,610	6
1960	1,148	1,03,600	1,04,748	68	362	47,410	47,772	12
1961	1,414	1,14,892	1,16,306	72	365	61,746	62,111	12
1962	1,304	1,12,355	1,13,659	72	137	46,039	46,176	12
1963	1,524	1,15,253	1,16,777	72	97	47,348	47,445	18
1964	2,139	56,757	58,896	72	323	34,829	35,152	18

Year	Bhainsdehi Tahsil			
	Indoor	Outdoor	Total	No. of beds available
1957	94	33,979	34,073	9
1958	48	32,465	32,513	11
1959	41	51,460	51,501	13
1960	99	48,839	48,938	17
1961	185	55,316	55,500	17
1962	159	71,351	71,510	19
1963	225	75,535	75,760	19
1964	77	28,494	28,571	18

Main Hospital, Betul

The thirty-four-bedded District Headquarters Hospital is the Main Hospital of the District. It has an Operation Theatre, a Pathology Laboratory, X-ray Unit, a Labour Room with attached Maternity Ward and Electrotherapy appliances. This Hospital also functions as a Referral Hospital, for several cases are being referred to it from the dispensaries and Primary Health Centres located elsewhere in the District. It is a centre for anti-rabic treatment for the entire District. The Civil Surgeon is the Superintendent of this Hospital. He is assisted by two Assistant Surgeons and one Woman Assistant Surgeon. The other staff includes three Staff Nurses, three Compounders and a full complement of ancillary staff. There is an ambulance van with a driver and a cleaner. During 1963 a new fifty-bedded hospital building was under construction.

Police Hospital, Betul

The twenty-bedded Police Hospital has a spacious building. An Assistant Medical Officer is in charge of the Hospital. There is a two-bedded T. B. ward for the T. B. patients. The other staff includes one Compounder, one Male Nurse, one Nursing orderly, one waterman, and one sweeper. In 1965 the number of patients treated was 5,171 out of whom 242 were in-patients and the rest out-patients (inclusive of new and old patients).

Jail Hospital, Betul

This Hospital caters to the medical requirements of the inmates of the Jail. As such it is located within the Jail premises. An Assistant Medical Officer is in charge of the Hospital. He is assisted by a Male Nurse and a Compounder. The Assistant Medical Officer and the Male Nurse have been provided residential accommodation in the Jail compound. There are six beds in the Hospital for indoor treatment.

Forest-Guard Training School Dispensary

This Dispensary attached to the Forest Guard Training School functions under an Assistant Medical Officer residing in the School premises. The Dispensary is meant for the exclusive use of the trainees and employees of the School.

There is one mobile dispensary unit at Bhimpur. It is staffed by one doctor, one compounder, two midwives, one driver and one waterman.

Epidemic Dispensaries

There are three epidemic dispensaries in the District, one each at Betul, Multai and Bhainsdehi under the charge of Health Assistants.

Besides the above Allopathic institutions managed by the State Government, there is one Railway Dispensary and an Air Force Hospital both of which are located at Amla.

A net-work of medical institutions is coming up in the areas around Shahpur of Betul District. The displaced families from East Pakistan are being rehabilitated in the areas in and around Shahpur with headquarters there. Dispensaries have already been started in the temporary barracks of each relief camp.

The location, dates of opening and the daily average number of migrant patients attending these dispensaries are shown below.—

Camp Dispensary	Date of opening	Daily average No. of patients (1965-66)
Kotmi	9- 4-64	100
Chopna	20- 4-64	200
Patuapura	28- 4-64	225
Temru	4- 5-64	175
Hirapur	29- 5-64	200
Punji	28-10-65	200
Kolia	1- 4-66	200

A big contingent of medical and ancillary staff has been sanctioned for serving the displaced persons. A sum of Rs. 40,000 is being spent every year on the purchase of medicines which are supplied free to the patients. Expenditure on medical and sanitation arrangements of the relief and rehabilitation camps amounted to Rs. 94,576 and Rs. 80,528 during the years 1964-65 and 1965-66, respectively.

The medical facilities now available have greatly improved the health of the displaced persons. The average rate of death per month in the beginning was 26. As against this, the monthly death-rate in recent months is 5 only.

Ayurvedic Dispensaries

In 1937 the Government appointed a Committee under Medical Department Resolution No. 12442-1830-XIV dated the 21st December, 1937, to examine the indigenous system of medicine practised in the Province. The Committee after a thorough study recommended that, "medical relief on Ayurvedic and Unani lines should be extended on a large scale wherever possible" and that "One Ayurvedic or one Unani dispensary should be established for every area ten miles in radius".¹ Government accepted this recommendation in principle. Efforts have since been made to promote this branch of medicine chiefly by encouraging the opening of *Ayurvedic* dispensaries by local bodies in rural places with proper Government aids. They are managed by Janapada Sabhas and other local bodies.

The 12 Janapada Sabha *Ayurvedic* Dispensaries opened during the course of the First Five Year Plan, are located at Saipkheda and Chikhlikalan under

1. Report of the Committee appointed to examine the Indigenous systems of Medicine Practised in the General Provinces and Berar, 1939, p. 1.

Multai Janapada Sabha; at Bhaura, Ghodadongri, Padhar, Khedi Saonuligarh and Barwhi under Betul Janapada Sabha; and at Kothalkund, Chandu, Khamla, Mandhavi and Damjipura under Bhainsdehi Janapada Sabha. Each dispensary has a *vaidya* and a waterman.

Government extends financial assistance to *Ayurvedic* dispensaries managed by Janapada Sabhas in the form of grant-in-aid. No new *Ayurvedic* dispensaries were added during the Second Plan period.

The three Government *Ayurvedic* dispensaries at Patakheda in Betul Tahsil, at Satnair in Bhanisdehi Tahsil and at Masod in Multai Tahsil came into being during the Third Plan period and are headed by qualified *vaidyas*. Each dispensary is provided with an additional staff of one compounder, one peon and one *dai*. Municipal Committee, Betul, is running one *Ayurvedic* dispensary at Betul.

Homoeopathic Dispensary

There is only one Homoeopathic dispensary in the District. The management of this dispensary rests with the Municipal Committee, Betul-Bazar. It is staffed by a Homoeopathic Assistant Medical Officer and a peon. The Civil Surgeon is available for consultation on all medical problems arising out of these medical institutions.

Maternity and Child Welfare

There is one Maternity and Child Welfare Centre at Betul and one Maternity Home at Athnair. Both these institutions are run by local bodies with grants-in-aid from the Government. The staff of the Betul Centre consists of a Health Visitor, appointed by the Government and a female peon appointed by the Municipal Committee, Betul. The Maternity and Child Welfare Centre, Betul, also functions as a training centre for the training of indigenous *dais*. The Home at Athnair is being looked after by a trained *dai* appointed by the Government. There are two beds in the Maternity Home. No beds are available in Betul Centre.

Maternity cases are attended to in the Main hospital, Betul, and the Mission Hospital, Padhar. Maternity beds are also available in the Primary Health Centres. The distribution of maternity beds¹ in the District was as under.—

Betul	8
Multai	4
Bhainsdehi	2
Amla	2
Sehra	2
Pattan	2
Shahpur	2
Bhimpur	2
Chicholi	5
Total	29

1. Excluding Padhar Mission Hospital.

In order to extend maternity facilities in rural areas *Matru Grihas* were opened in the Development Blocks of the District since 1958. Each *Matru Griha* has an indigenous *dai* in attendance.

PRIVATE HOSPITALS AND NURSING HOMES

Mission Hospital, Padhar

The only private hospital available in the District is the Mission Hospital at Padhar. The history of this Hospital can be traced back to the year 1900, when a village dispensary was established by the Evangelical National Missionary Society of Sweden. The management was subsequently transferred to the Evangelical Lutheran Church in Madhya Pradesh. However, the Dispensary continued to get assistance from the Swedish organisation by way of funds and personnel. Till 1958 this was functioning as an out-patient dispensary. It was decided in 1958 that the dispensary should be converted into a hospital devoted to the treatment of general diseases and tuberculosis. In the subsequent year, ward facilities for 20 patients could be provided. A twenty-bedded T. B. ward was added to the Hospital in 1960. Further, constructions effected in 1965 included an improved Operation Theatre with ancillary rooms, a Labour Room, an X-ray Department and Laboratory with store-room.

The Hospital now provides in-patient accommodation for 15 male and an equal number of female tuberculosis patients, and 30 patients (15 males and 15 females) of general diseases. There are facilities for general surgery, dental surgery, ophthalmic surgery and cataract surgery. There is also a Gynaecology and Obstetrics Department. A Family Planning Unit exists in this Hospital with facilities for the insertion of contraceptive-loops.

The following Table gives the medical facilities provided by this institution during the past six years.

Year (ending 31st March)	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965
1. Out-patients	2,325	3,737	5,698	6,372	7,264	7,965
2. Inpatient admissions	188	410	544	559	489	518
3. T. B. Cases admitted	—	—	—	—	88	92
4. Operations (Total)	48	69	80	85	48	114
5. Cataract operation	—	—	—	12	15	22
6. Deliveries	35	35	36	15	11	24
7. X-ray films taken	157	302	477	515	553	596

Note:—Separate figures regarding T. B. cases not available from 1960 to 1963.

Till 1964 the Medical Superintendent, the head of the Mission Hospital, was the only medical and surgical officer in this institution. The other staff included three female nurses, one male nurse or compounder, one X-ray technician, two ward *ayahs* and one laboratory assistant. In January, 1965, a qualified Lady Doctor, one more Male Nurse, a Senior Nursing Sister and an Auxiliary

Nurse-Midwife were added to the staff. A qualified Swedish Nurse, also well-qualified in Hindi language, has recently joined this Hospital to function as Nursing Superintendent.

The future plans of this institution include among other items the increase in accommodation of T.B. patients to 52, that of general patients (including maternity) to 92, the establishment of a separate T. B. unit and a children's ward and a training centre for 30 auxiliary nurse-midwives under the Government's scheme for this type of training. Construction work is in progress.

There is an out-patients dispensary at Shahpur under the same management and functioning as part of this organization. This Dispensary was also established sometime in 1900. The Medical Superintendent, Padhar Mission Hospital, is its controlling and supervising authority. A compounder is in charge of the Dispensary. Serious cases reported at this Dispensary are immediately referred to the Padhar Hospital which is only 12 miles away from Shahpur. The number of out-patients treated here annually averages approximately 7,000.

Family Planning

Under a modified scheme of family planning proposed by the Government of India and accepted by the State Government, urban and rural Family Planning Centres were to be established from 1958-59. It was also decided that each Primary Health Centre established in C. D. or N.E.S. areas should be a nucleus for family planning activities in rural areas. Accordingly, one Urban Family Planning Centre at Betul (attached to the District Hospital), and one Rural Family Planning Centre each at Prabhat Pattan and Shahpur were established in 1958. This was followed by the opening of two more rural Family Planning Clinics at the Primary Health Centres of Sehra and Bhimpur in 1959-60. Rural Family Planning Clinics were also opened in Primary Health Centres of Multai in 1961-62 and Chicholi and Bhainsdehi in 1962-63. At the close of 1963 there were, in all, eight Family Planning Clinics in the District—one urban and seven rural. This was raised to 16 in 1964 with the establishment of 8 more rural clinics at Temroo, Amla, Sakadehi, Jaura, Sohagpur, Birool, Baghoda and Chilhati.

The urban clinic is staffed by a Female Social Worker and an Attendant, whereas each rural clinic is staffed by one Male Social Worker and one Attendant. At Temroo one post of a Female Social Worker has also been created. Advice on family planning and contraceptives are given free of cost at these clinics. The District Hospital, Betul, provides facilities for female sterilization operations. Facilities for vasectomy operations are, however, available in the Headquarters Hospital, Civil dispensaries and Primary Health Centres. Arrangements for the free distribution of contraceptives exist at the Civil dispensaries and at Government and Janapada Sabha Ayurvedic dispensaries.

Nutrition

Underfed babies and mothers get free supply of milk-powder available under UNICEF assistance at the Primary Health Centres. There are about 30 distribution centres. Distribution of milk-powder is also done by schools, tribal welfare hostels, *balwadis* and medical institutions.

SANITATION

The first step taken in the direction of improving sanitation and conservancy arrangements in the District was the appointment of the Medical Officer of the District as *ex-officio* Sanitary Officer of the local and municipal committees in 1864-65. He not only made conservancy and sanitation of the chief town of the district a matter of special care, but also acted as an adviser to the civil authorities in this connection. The local committees appointed in their turn sanitary sub-committees as well. Public latrines were constructed in towns in the subsequent years, and a regularly paid establishment supervised conservancy arrangements and enforcement of sanitary laws.

Since the establishment of a separate staff for the village conservancy was not feasible in view of the vast area to be covered, the principal land-holders in rural areas were instructed properly to see that sanitary rules are observed in villages. The Civil authorities occasionally visited certain number of villages especially to inspect the sanitary arrangements there. An important object of the village conservancy rules was the provision of good drinking water.

In subsequent years the Department of Sanitation was placed under the supervision and control of a Special Commissioner who advised the Civil Surgeon and other Civil authorities in all matters connected with sanitation, conservancy and hygiene of the district. Long tours were undertaken by this officer to inspect the working of this Department. In 1879-80 copies of *Practical-Hints on Sanitation* prepared by the Army Sanitary Commission were distributed to all municipalities. Translated copies of *The Sanitary Primer* issued by the Government of India were also supplied to schools and other institutions.

The Central Provinces Village Sanitation Act (XIX of 1889) was passed in 1889-90. The Act empowered the Chief Commissioner to enforce certain sanitary reforms. Accordingly, by a Resolution dated 22nd July, 1889, the Chief Commissioner constituted a Sanitary Board with the Deputy Surgeon-General (also Special Commissioner) and the Superintending Engineer to chalk out a plan for a general sanitary survey of all municipalities. The survey was mainly to explore the possibilities for a system of water supply and drainage in the municipal towns.

Under rural sanitation were included works like clearing village sites and maintenance of village conservancy. Though the Act was passed in 1889 the provisions of the Village Sanitation Act came into force in Multai only in 1901-02. Amount realised from latrine and conservancy taxes and market dues was expended

mainly on the conservancy establishment of the town. The *Mukaddam* Rules were in force in the villages of Kherli, Birool, Pattan, Amla and Bordehi. The realisations were obtained from fees on the sale of cattle and market-dues in Kherli and Birool and from a Sanitary cess in the three other villages. With the institution of a Sanitary Board in 1892-93, work of the improvement of water supply was undertaken. The funds were supplemented by grants from District Council, local subscriptions and Provincial grant and were utilized for the digging and repair of wells.¹

In 1910 the post of a Sanitary Commissioner was created. Proposals for the appointment of a Sanitary Engineer were also submitted to the Government of India in the same year. The appointment of Sanitary Engineer was effected in subsequent years.

All these arrangements continued with no major changes till 1948, when the Gram Panchayats were introduced. Village sanitation and conservancy arrangements in villages became the responsibility of Gram Panchayats. In the urban areas the municipal committees continued to be in charge of this work.

Now the sanitation of rural areas is looked after by the respective Gram Panchayats supervised by the Janapada Sabhas. The Development Blocks are responsible for the work in the villages covered by them. The Janapada Sabhas in the rural and the municipal committees in the urban areas have separate staff for this work. They appoint sufficient number of Sanitary Inspectors and Vaccinators.

The centre of public health activities in a Development Block is its Primary Health Centre. The Health Visitor and Sanitary Inspector attached to the Centre are mainly responsible for the sanitation of the area under their jurisdiction. On the public health side the Medical Officer functions as Health Officer for that area. The work done in the Blocks in respect of sanitation and conservancy during the Third Plan period is given below:—

S. No.	Name of Block	New wells constructed	Existing wells repaired	Surface drainage	Latrines constructed	Soakage pits	Smokeless chulahs	Hand pumps installed
1.	Betul	18	20	—	223	451	22	2
2.	Prabhat Pattan	28	75	—	175	416	54	10
3.	Shahpur	91	95	—	190	83	27	1
4.	Bhimpur	49	25	1,460	17	205	—	—
5.	Chicholi	53	5	—	72	32	—	—
6.	Multai	119	77	—	61	—	137	—
7.	Amla	44	45	1,342	74	436	101	1
8.	Bhainsdehi	26	30	5,165	112	380	5	—
9.	Athnair	25	8	—	45	280	17	—

1. Betul District Gazetteer, pp. 223-224.

Water Supply Schemes

With a view to providing adequate water supply to the town of Betul, the Sanitary Engineer chalked out two schemes in January, 1922. The schemes envisaged the supply of water from the Machna river. It was estimated to cost Rs. 2,15,000 for a pumping scheme and Rs. 3,10,000 for a gravitation scheme. The schemes were under the consideration of the Betul Municipal Committee for some time. But till the close of Second Five Year Plan no arrangements for the supply of pipe water could be effected. However, by about 1960 survey of a water works scheme was completed to be taken up during the Third Five Year Plan. The scheme has not materialized so far.

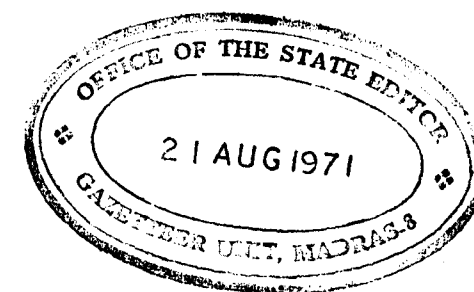
A water-supply scheme at an estimated cost of Rs. 4,58,000 for Multai is underway. The Multai Municipal Committee is responsible for the implementation of the scheme, the construction work being taken up by the Public Health Engineering Department with headquarters at Chhindwara.

Water-supply and sanitation have received increased attention in the area centering round Shahpur where the displaced persons are being rehabilitated. In the rehabilitation camps, tube-wells and open wells numbering 3 and 13, respectively, have been constructed.

Activities under sanitation included the supply of dust-bins to Hirapur and Chopna camps and the employment of 40 sweepers to keep the camps clean.

Vaccination

Vaccination was compulsory in the municipal towns of Badnur and Betul. During 1891-1901 the number of successful primary vaccinations performed annually varied from 6,000 to 11,000 whereas in 1904-05 it was 15,000. The expenditure during this year amounted to Rs. 2,000 which was contributed by the Provincial and Local Funds. The staff consisted of one Superintendent and seven Vaccinators.



CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Labour Welfare

Welfare Measures For Employment In Agriculture

The mainstay of the economy of Betul District has been Agriculture. According to the data provided by the Census of 1961, about 84 per cent of the total number of workers in the District are dependent on Agriculture. Among these workers engaged in agriculture about 67 per cent are cultivators, while the remaining 17 per cent are agricultural labourers. This makes it clear that the number of agricultural labourers is far greater than the number of workers engaged in any other category of occupation except that of cultivation. The Government of Madhya Pradesh promulgated the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Ordinance, 1962 (No. 4 of 1962), for the welfare of labourers engaged in certain employments including that of agriculture. The Ordinance was effected with a view to fixing minimum rates of wages in all those employments. The Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Act, 1962 (No. 16 of 1962), was passed. Like the Ordinance, this Act too came into executive operation from 1st January, 1959. Accordingly, minimum rates of wages in agriculture (Scheduled Employment No. 1 part II) were fixed. The whole of the State of Madhya Pradesh is divided into three zones for the purpose of enforcing these minimum rates of wages, and all the places of the District are included in Zones¹ II and III. The minimum rates of wages fixed in these two Zones are tabulated below.

Class of Employees	Zone II	Zone III
Casual Employees	Rs.	Rs.
1. Adult Male	1.15 per day	0.90 per day
2. Adult Female	0.90 per day	0.75 per day
3. Adult Employees on a monthly contract for a period of one month or more	25.00 per month	20.00 per month

1. Zone I comprises the areas included within the municipal limits of a corporation or a municipality with a population of 50,000 and above and the places within five miles from the limits of such a corporation or a municipality.

Zone II comprises all places included within municipal limits of a municipality or a notified area with a population of 5,000 and above, but below 50,000 and the places within five miles from the limits of such municipality or notified area. Zone III comprises all places not included in Zones I and II. The Act further fixed the minimum rates of wages payable to a child at 50 per cent of the minimum rates of wages fixed for adults. Madhya Pradesh Government has, on 25th November, 1965, appointed a committee to hold enquiries and to advise it in the matter of revision of these minimum rates of wages.¹

Tahsildars and or Naib Tahsildars have been notified as *ex-officio* Inspectors to look after the proper working of this Act in respect of agricultural labourers.

Employment in Other Scheduled Industries

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948 (XI of 1948) and the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Act, 1962 (No. 16 of 1962), which came into force from 1st January, 1959, have fixed minimum rates of wages for certain Scheduled Employments in the State. For this Act the State is classified into four areas, namely, A, B, C and D. The various places of Betul District are included in C and D areas. The minimum rates of wages for employments in any rice-mill, flour-mill or *dal*-mill (Scheduled Employment No. 2), or in any oil-mill (Scheduled Employment No. 5), or under any local Authority (Scheduled Employment No. 6), or on construction or maintenance of roads or in building operations (Scheduled Employment No. 7), or in stone-breaking or stone-crushing (Scheduled Employment No. 8) are shown as below.

Category of Employees	Areas		Basis of payment of rates of wages
	C Having a population of 5,000 and above, but below 50,000	D All other places excluded in areas A, B, C.	
1	2	3	4
Clerical	Rs. 50.00	Rs. 45.00	Per month
Skilled	Rs. 3.00	Rs. 2.75	Per day
Semi-skilled	Rs. 2.25	Rs. 2.00	Per day
Un-skilled			
Male	Rs. 1.37	Rs. 1.25	Per day
Female	Rs. 1.12	Rs. 1.00	Per day
Child	Rs. 1.00	Rs. 0.87	Per day

Industrially the District is very backward. It has a few industrial concerns working on a small scale. Two oil mills, one saw-mill and a workshop with a stone-crushing industrial concern (started in 1965) are working in the District and these provide employment to a very insignificant number of labourers. A

1. Madhya Pradesh Gazette, 24th December, 1965, Part I.

number of flour mills working on a small scale are also there but inspite of these, the industrial labourers' strength is insignificant.

Besides these two Acts, the Government at the Centre as well as in the State have taken many speedy statutory measures and have made them applicable to the industrial concerns of the District for the purpose of guaranteeing the welfare of labourers employed by those concerns.

Indian Factories Act, 1948

The Act is applicable to the registered industries of the District. During the period of last nine years ending with 1965, no prosecutions were launched under this Act in the District.

The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923

The Act applies only to those workers, whose monthly wages do not exceed Rs. 400. The responsibility of the administration of this Act rests with the Assistant Labour Commissioner, Bhopal Division, Bhopal, who was invested with the powers of Workmen's Compensation Commissioner (Labour Court, Bhopal) under Labour Department Notification No. 6366-423, XVI, Dated 30th August, 1962.

The Madhya Pradesh Maternity Benefit Act, 1958

The Act came into force from 1st January, 1959. It ensures payment of cash maternity benefits to women employees in the factories for the maximum period of 12 weeks. Nine months' service preceding the date of notice is a qualifying condition for the receipt of such benefits. The rate of benefit is 7/12th of the average daily earnings or 75 paise per day, whichever is higher. It also provides for payment of a medical bonus of Rs. 10 to women workers on maternity leave. The administration of the Act is entrusted to the office of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Indore, on behalf of which the Senior Inspector of Factories, Bhopal Division, Bhopal carries the responsibility in this District under the said Act.

Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act, 1958

This Act (No. 25 of 1958), was made applicable to the town of Betul from 2nd January, 1959. The Inspector of Shops and Establishments, Bhopal, periodically visits the town for the proper administration of the provisions of this Act. All cases under this Act are tried by the Magistrate First Class. The following Table shows the working of the Act in Betul District.

Year	No. of Inspections	No. of Prosecutions Launched.	No. of Convictions made.
1	2	3	4
1959	223	6	—
1960	629	7	7
1961	737	35	27

1	2	3	4
1962	681	15	11
1963	481	12	—
1964	824	41	15
1965	181	64	3

The Payment of Wages Act, 1936

The purpose of the Act is to ensure regular and prompt payment of wages to the employees and to prevent the exploitation of wage-earners by prohibiting arbitrary fines and deductions from their wages. By an amending Act i. e., The Payment of Wages (Amendment) Act, 1957, the wage limit was raised from Rs. 200 to Rs. 400 per month. As regards the working of the Act in the District, it may be stated that no prosecution was launched under the Act.

Employees Provident Fund Act, 1952

The Act applies to all establishments in the listed industries, if

(i) they employ 20 or more but less than 50 persons and

(ii) have existed for five years or more, and three years if they have 50 and more employees. The Act covers five establishments of Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, located at Sarni in the District, till 13th April, 1966. By this date, the number of workers of these concerns enjoying the benefit of the Scheme was 149 only.

The management and the employees each have to contribute every month 6½ per cent of pay. The statutory rate of contribution was enhanced during 1962-63 to 8 per cent of pay in respect of establishments employing 50 or more persons engaged in four industries. Since 1964-65, the enhanced rate has been made applicable to 32 classes of establishments. Under the Scheme following benefits are given to all the members, whose basic pay does not exceed Rs. 1,000 per month. This limit and the list of industries, to which the provisions of the Act were made applicable, have undergone changes from time to time.

(i) Non-refundable advances are given for insurance policy, housing, purchasing shares of consumers' co-operatives, temporary closure of an establishment and unemployment relief.

(ii) A Special Reserve Fund and a Death Relief Fund are also created for the benefit of the workers.

The Act is administered by a Tripartite Board. The Central Provident Fund Commissioner, who is the Chief Executive Officer of the Board, is assisted by the Regional Provident Fund Commissioner, Madhya Pradesh, Indore.

Administration of Labour Laws

These and a few other Labour Acts, like the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, (covers the industrial undertakings of the District,) and the Madhya Pradesh Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1961, (the Standard Standing Orders framed thereunder and made applicable to the oil mills etc., of the District,) are administered by the Labour Department. For this purpose, Betul is one of the seven districts of the revenue division, Bhopal, which is within the jurisdiction of the Assistant Labour Commissioner, Bhopal Division, Bhopal. He is assisted at Bhopal by two Assistant Labour Officers, two Labour Inspectors, two Inspectors under the Motor Transport Act, three Assistant Labour Sub-Inspectors and two Labour Welfare Supervisors. The Inspector of Factories at Gwalior is also responsible for Bhopal Division. The Boiler Inspector is under the Directorate of Industries, Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal. The Inspectors appointed at Bhopal under the Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act conducts the administration of the provisions of the Act at Betul. In addition to them Food and Civil Supplies Inspectors, Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars at Betul are also notified as Inspectors under the Act. Thus there is no separate administrative set up of Labour Department for the administration of Labour Acts in the District.

Judicial Set-up for the Enforcement of Labour Laws in Betul District

There functions an Industrial Court, constituted under the Madhya Pradesh Industrial Relations Act, 1960, for the whole State of Madhya Pradesh of which Betul is one of the districts. This Court consists of two members, one of them being its President. The seat of this Court is at Indore.

Besides, there is a one-man Industrial Tribunal, constituted under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 (Central Act), for the whole of Madhya Pradesh, including Betul District. The seat of this Tribunal is also at Indore and the President of the Industrial Court is the Presiding officer of the Tribunal. This Tribunal also adjudicates upon the industrial disputes pertaining to Central sphere that are referred to it by the Government at the Centre.

There is one Labour Court constituted in May, 1962 under the Madhya Pradesh Industrial Relations Act, 1960, having jurisdiction in the local areas corresponding to the revenue districts of Bhopal Revenue Division. Its headquarters is at Bhopal.

The Presiding Officer of the Labour Court also functions as the Commissioner for workmen's compensation, under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, as the Judge, for Employees' Insurance Court under the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, and the Authority under the Payment of Wages Act, 1933 and the Minimum Wages Act, 1948. He is also invested with powers of the Magistrate First Class for the trial of criminal cases arising out of the Provident Fund Act, 1925, the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, the Payment

of Wages Act, 1936, the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, the Indian Factories Act, 1948, the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961, and the Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act, 1958.

The State Government have also constituted an Additional Labour Court with headquarters at Jabalpur to deal with cases pertaining to State sphere and Central sphere under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 (Central). It started functioning from May, 1965 and its jurisdiction has been the whole State of Madhya Pradesh.

Besides holding sittings at the main seat at Indore, the Industrial Court and the Industrial Tribunal also hold their sittings at other important industrial centres in the State for the facility of the litigant parties, depending on the volume of work, pertaining to the concerned centres and their convenience. The Labour Court also holds sitting at the headquarters of districts and this again depends on same factors.

As regards institution and disposal of cases under various Labour Acts by the Labour Court, Bhopal, the Table below gives figures pertaining to Betul District during the years 1962 to 1965:—

Act and Cases under it.	1962	1963	1964	1965
1. Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923.				
i. No. of cases Instituted (old and new)	4	11	12	10
ii. No. of cases Disposed	—	4	7	4
iii. Compensation Awarded in Rs.	—	1,340	6,600	8,900
2. Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act, 1958				
i. No. of cases Instituted (old and new)	—	—	39	104
ii. No. of cases Disposed	—	—	—	25

There were no cases under other Labour Acts.

There is neither Trade Union either of the employers or employees of the District, registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, nor there is any other labour welfare activity, official or non-official, in Betul District.

PROHIBITION

The District Under Partial Prohibition

Though the Government, with the aim of introducing total prohibition in all the districts, passed the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act, 1938, it was not made applicable to this District. A mild beginning towards prohibition was made in 1939, when *charas* (the gummy substance from *Carabica Indica* used as a stimulant and most deleterious intoxicant) was completely prohibited in the District as it was done in rest of the Province. Opium Prohibition Order was introduced in the District from April, 1955, and thus there has been prohibition of these two commodities. In respect of all other intoxicant commodities, the District has been wet. The need of the liquor addicts is served in 1968-69 by 76 shops of country liquor and four foreign liquor shops of the District. Drugs are sold at 12 shops. The strength of the country liquor has been prescribed 25, 45 and 60 U.P. in 1968-69. The rate of excise duty on country liquor has been increased from 1961-62. Excise duty on country liquor realised in 1968-69 amounts to Rs. 18,58,559.

Net Excise revenue and expenditure of the District in a few recent years are tabulated below.

Year	In Rs.	
	Revenue	Expenditure
1961-62	13,07,808	59,550
1962-63	13,30,644	67,429
1963-64	16,08,864	68,900
1964-65	18,11,767	76,736
1965-66	22,79,885	80,142
1966-67	30,04,398	84,488
1967-68	34,55,032	1,04,973
1968-69	35,95,229	1,04,040

Excise offences

In the District, the crime of illicit distillation has been endemic, as would be clear from the Reports on the Excise Administration of the Central Provinces and Berar (from 1921-22 onwards) and of the Madhya Pradesh. The Table below gives number of classified offences in case of liquor for the years 1961-62 to 1968-69.—

Year	Illicit Distillation	Other offences	Total
1961-62	205	68	273
1962-63	362	6	368
1963-64	281	17	298
1964-65	425	24	449
1965-66	524	22	546
1966-67	614	81	695
1967-68	376	108	484
1968-69	1,280	208	1,488

With a view to checking illicit distillation, the Government introduced *Mahua* Rules, which restrict the possession, sale and transport of *mahua*. Under the Rules, a person can not possess more than five kilograms of this commodity without licence and sale and transport of it are subjected to a permit. During the years 1962-63 to 1964-65 some 33 cases under *Mahua* Rules and one case under Poppy Husk Rules were detected and all the cases ended in conviction.

Excise offences in case of hemp drugs and opium are very few. In recent years number of cases detected under Hemp Drugs Act, ranged from one to three. While in case of opium no offence was detected. The information regarding the number of persons prosecuted, convicted, imprisoned, amount of fine imposed and the amount of rewards paid to informers, captors, etc., in connection with excise offences during the years 1961-62 to 1968-69, is tabulated below.—

Year	No. of Persons			Amount of Fine in Rs.	Amount of Reward in Rs.
	Prosecuted	Convicted	Imprisoned		
1961-62	236	230	230	8,436	1,543
1962-63	256	217	28	14,930	2,004
1963-64	361	187	19	8,600	1,235
1964-65	535	403	—	14,939	2,481
1965-66	647	521	402	17,210	1,527
1966-67	669	649	—	15,735	1,495
1967-68	466	428	—	7,670	1,370
1968-69	1,180	969	100	20,730	1,065

Anti-Drink or Temperance Movement

Though the District has remained wet anti-drink or temperance movements were started in the District as early as¹ 1921-22, when a marked fall to the tune of Rs. 2.52 lakhs in the excise revenue was noticed. It was due to the Non-Co-operation movement and social aspirations on the part of individual castes. The latter element was of considerable importance. Social reform in the direction of abstinence from drink among Gonds, Bhils, Korkus, Mahars, etc., was seen, and this resulted in the decline of consumption of country spirit by 63 per cent. Similar phenomena again occurred in the District during the days of Civil Dis-obedience movement started in early 'forties of this Century and it led to the fall in consumption of country spirit during the year 1930-31.

Bathri Telis of Athnair in Betul District also attempted² in 1935 to secure temperance in their caste and the attempts were met with little success. It is also interesting to note that in the year 1937³, the Gonds of Shahpur area of

1. Central Provinces and Berar Excise Administration Report, 1921-22, pp. 3-4
2. Ibid., 1935, p. 3.
3. Ibid., 1937, p. 2.

Betul District formed their caste *panchayats* for the prevention of drink in their community. In the year 1939, meetings of Gonds of Betul and Bhainsdehi tahsils were organised and the audience were exhorted to use *gur*, etc., in place of liquor on ceremonial occasions. The first October was observed as a Prohibition Day through out the District in pursuance of instructions issued by Betul District Congress Committee. Anti-drink processions were taken out and well-attended meetings passed the resolutions requesting the Government to apply the Prohibition Act of 1938 to the District. Just before the commencement of the excise sale, pamphlets describing the evil effects of liquor were distributed by the District Congress Committee. Excise contractors were warned that the Organisation would picket their shops. But later on, it appears, the movement subsided.

Prohibition Week from the second to eighth October is observed in the District from the year 1953, according to the instructions of the State Government. The excise shops of the District remain closed on a number of days fixed in a year from time to time by the Excise Commissioner.

ADVANCEMENT OF BACKWARD CLASSES AND TRIBES

The Castes, popularly known as Harijans, were classed as the 'Scheduled Castes', when the Government of India (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1936¹ came into force. According to the Schedule of this Order only 13 Castes of this District and according to the Thirteenth Schedule 36 Tribes of the District were declared as Scheduled Castes and Backward Tribes respectively. When in 1950, the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950, came into operation 12 Castes of the District were declared to be Scheduled Castes. According to the Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950, there were 31 Scheduled Tribes in the District. The whole of the District was thus declared as the Scheduled Area.

The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes List (Modification) Order, 1956, as corrected by the corrigendum, published by Notification No. 13/25/56 SCT-II, dated the 23rd January, 1957, superseded both the Constitution Orders referred to above. This new Order included in the list of Scheduled Castes 13 Castes of the District, and the Scheduled Area in respect of Scheduled Tribes included the two tahsils of Betul and Bhainsdehi only. Thus for the first time the tahsil of Multai of the District was excluded from the Scheduled Area. The Table below exhibits the total population of these Castes and Tribes as enumerated in 1931², 1941³, 1951 and 1961 in the District.

1. The C. P. and Berar Constitutional Manual, 1937, Vol. II, pp. 42-45.
2. In 1931 Scheduled Castes were Depressed Classes, while Scheduled Tribes were only Tribes (including Hinduised).
3. In 1941 Scheduled Tribes were only Backward Tribes.

Category	In the Census of			
	1931	1941	1951	1961
Scheduled Castes	50,655	50,905	44,488	52,799
Scheduled Tribes	1,52,354	1,68,229	1,37,456	1,79,739

These figures can be compared only in the most general way, due to the changes occurred in the conception and use of the terms during the years 1937 to 1961.

It is also necessary to bear in mind, while studying even the figures of 1951 and 1961, that these are not the true total population figures of all Backward Classes and Tribes of the District. These figures are only for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes of the Scheduled Areas alone and not of the whole District.

Amelioration Measures

Education

It was long ago realised that aboriginals really needed more attention in the field of education than the Harijans. A special drive was made in this direction during the middle of the forth decade of this Century. Some 56 special Schools for Aborigines and Wandering Tribes were opened in the District and this resulted in the appreciable growth of boys and girls at the primary stage of education. In 1940-41 there were about 7,200 boys and 300 girls of the tribes of the District in primary schools.

After Independence the Government created special stipends in all categories of educational institutions under the Harijan Amelioration Scheme for Backward classes. In Government Secondary Schools and hostels attached to them, 15 to 25 per cent seats began to be kept reserved for students of these Classes and Tribes. Thus, efforts to bring about their educational welfare were accelerated. When in 1950, the Directive Principles of State Policy, embodied in the Constitution of India, laid down that the State should promote with a special care educational interests of the Backward Classes and Tribes, the State Government introduced schemes for educational advancement. Various Departments of the State Government introduced schemes of awarding scholarships to students belonging to these Classes and Tribes. The Social Welfare Department awarded scholarships, books, examination fees, etc., to 235 Harijan and 706 Adiwasi students of high schools and middle schools of the District, during the years 1946-47 to 1960-61. On them, it spent Rs. 33,840 and 1,45,146 respectively. From the year 1961-62, the Department discontinued this scheme and started another scheme of helping the handicapped scholars. During the years 1962-63 to 1964-65, the Department spent

Rs. 1,670 by awarding scholarships to 7 handicapped scholars of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes.

The Office of the District Education Officer also was entrusted with the work of awarding scholarships to the students of these Classes and Tribes. The work of allotment of scholarships was transferred to the Tribal Welfare Section of the Collectorate from 1962 onwards. The Table below shows the number of scholars and the amount of scholarships distributed by the former during the years 1950-51 to 1961-62.

Year	Scheduled Castes		Scheduled Tribes		Other Backward Classes	
	No. of Scholarship	Amount in Rs.	No. of Scholarship	Amount in Rs.	No. of Scholarship	Amount in Rs.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1950-51	2	144	52	7,200	—	—
1951-52	4	250	52	7,320	—	—
1952-53	6	394	53	7,392	—	—
1953-54	5	352	53	7,302	—	—
1954-55	6	450	53	7,350	2	423
1955-56	5	395	53	7,250	2	390
1956-57	11	1,420	53	7,288	3	360
1957-58	21	2,520	53	7,444	6	820
1958-59	28	3,820	53	7,350	5	480
1959-60	26	2,850	53	7,488	6	450
1960-61	29	4,040	53	7,536	6	530
1961-62	25	3,640	53	7,220	5	495

The Tribal Welfare Section of the Collectorate, Betul, also awarded scholarships, stipends, books, examination fees, etc., to the students of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes. The statement below provides details of the same for the years 1956-57 to 1968-69.

Year	Total amount spent on scholarships, stipends, examination fees, value of books, etc., for Harijans	No. of Harijan students benefited.	Total amount spent on scholarships, stipends, examination fees, value of books, etc. for Adiwasis	No. of Adiwasi students benefited.	Total amount spent on scholarships, stipends, examination fees, value of books, etc., for Other Backward Classes.	No. of Other Backward Classes students benefited.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	
1956-57	5,428	68	5,153	71	120	1
1957-58	7,260	53	8,850	69	120	1
1958-59	14,075	109	25,929	156	—	—
1959-60	12,850	105	34,602	187	677	6
1960-61	7,506	64	54,964	326	453	6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1961-62	15,822	137	49,880	2,134	1,259	12
1962-63	33,320	525	74,883	5,780	5,630	490
1963-64	28,931	1,041	38,673	7,064	220	1
1964-65	1,24,437	1,292	1,11,298	13,291	28,237	63
1965-66	43,106	1,420	83,743	14,754	—	—
1966-67	1,52,405	1,559	16,360	509	100	1
1967-68	1,00,300	1,331	4,936	214	—	—
1968-69	1,25,662	1,509	59,214	442	—	—

Students of Scheduled Castes (except those boys, who are in primary standards), Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes, studying in primary, middle or higher secondary classes, receive scholarships from the Tribal Welfare Department. Scholarships are not given to the primary school boys of Scheduled Castes. Students of these Castes and Other Backward Classes receive scholarships only on the basis of merit cum poverty (and those too only up to the budget provisions made for the District). Students of these Castes and Classes are selected for the award of scholarships by the Selection Committee consisting of the Collector as the Chairman of Committee, District Tribal Welfare Organiser, as the Secretary of the Committee, Area Organiser (Tribal Welfare), District Education Officer and Members of the Legislative Assembly belonging to these Castes and Tribes as members of the Committee. All students of the Scheduled Tribes on the other hand get [scholarships]. The scholarships are awarded at the rates given below.

Students of Higher Secondary Classes	@ Rs. 15-00 per month
Students of Middle Schools	@ Rs. 10-00 per month
Students of Primary Schools (first three classes)	@ Rs. 00-50 per month
Boy students of Primary schools (IV and V Classes)	@ Rs. 01-00 per month
Girl students of Primary Schools (I to III classes)	@ Rs. 01-00 per month
Girl students of Primary schools (IV and V classes)	@ Rs. 2-00 per month

If a student of these Castes, Tribes and Classes comes for his Middle or Higher Secondary Education from the distance of about 8 km. or above, he is awarded a special scholarship @ Rs. 5 per month in addition to the scholarship mentioned above.

Besides these, post-matric scholarships are awarded to the students of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes. These were formerly awarded through the Divisional Commissioner but now since 1963-64,

this responsibility rests with the Tribal Welfare Department. The Table below gives details of these scholarships

Year	Scheduled Castes		Scheduled Tribes		Other Backward Classes	
	No. of Scholarships	Amount in Rs.	No. of Scholarships	Amount in Rs.	No. of Scholarships	Amount in Rs.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1960-61	10	3,043	1	397	24	10,850
1961-62	29	9,984	2	590	42	25,325
1962-63	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.
1963-64	34	9,253	11	3,576	63	26,019
1964-65	50	18,470	11	3,596	60	27,637
1966-67	61	18,180	8	2,726	39	18,274

Besides this financial help to the students of these Castes, Tribes and Classes, the Government started a number of schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education, *ashrams*, and hostels for their benefit. The statement below exhibits the position of these institutions maintained by the Tribal Welfare Department in the First, Second and Third Plan periods.

Plan Period	No. of Primary Schools	No. of Middle Schools	No. of Higher Secondary Schools	No. of Ashrams	No. of Hostels
1	2	3	4	5	6
First Plan	110	5	—	—	5
Second Plan	33	8	—	—	7
Third Plan	60	18	2	1	9
Total	203	31	2	1	21

By the year 1969, there were 213 Primary, 35 middle, four higher secondary schools, two *ashrams* and 27 hostels in the district for the boys and girls of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Number of students accommodated in the *ashrams* and hostels was 784.

Vanawasi Sewa Mandal started during 1952 to 1954, schools and hostels in Betul and Multai tahsils for the students of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes of the District with the grants-in-aid from the State Government. The Mandal started its activities for the educational uplift of all Backward class people of the District. In 1963, the schools of Mandal benefited the population of 36 villages, inhabited by about 9,800 persons, belonging to these Castes, Tribes and Classes. In the two middle and five primary schools of the Mandal, there were over 510 students, including 93 girl students, in the year 1963. Of these about 300 were Tribals. The Tribal Welfare Department took over the management of these institutions from the

above Mandal on the 13th July, 1964. These consisted of five primary and two middle schools and three hostels. Of these, all primary schools and one middle school have been transferred to the Education Department, while the remaining institutions are with the Tribal Welfare Department.

In April, 1966, there were as many as 22 hostels (21 for boys and one for girls) run by the Tribal Welfare Department for the students of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes of the District. These could accommodate about 770 scholars. The students in hostels at headquarters of the District and tahsils received a stipend @ Rs. 30 per month, while students in remaining hostels received stipend @ Rs. 25 per month for their expenditure on food, etc.

Janapad Sabha, Bhainsdehi, during the years 1947-48 to 1965-66, constructed 16 primary school buildings and 10 twin quarters for teachers spending about Rs. 1,75,000 on them from the funds allotted to it under the Centrally sponsored scheme. Besides, Madhya Pradesh Harijan Education Society, Bilaspur, till 1961-62, managed a Community Hostel at Betul, which was, in 1962-63, entrusted to an Ad-hoc Committee and now is under the Tribal Welfare Department.

Literacy in 1961

According to the Census of 1961, more than two-fifths of the population of the District or 41.5 per cent of the total population belonged to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Of them Scheduled Castes make 9.4 per cent of the total population of the District. Educationally, these Castes were almost on par with the general population. About 15.5 per cent (13.8 per cent in rural areas and 37.1 per cent in urban areas) of these were literate as against 16.6 per cent (13.7 per cent in rural areas and 47.7 per cent in urban areas) literate among the general population. In rural areas, they rather occupied a slightly superior position to the general population in the matter of literacy. However it may be mentioned that 74.8 per cent of all literate persons of these Castes were without any educational levels i. e., have not passed even the primary school examination. Percentage of such persons in general population was 64.4 per cent. It was also found that 24.1 per cent (31.1 per cent in general population) had passed primary or junior basic examination and only 1.1 per cent (4.5 per cent in general population) had passed matriculation or higher examinations.

As regards literacy among the Scheduled Tribes of the District it is to be remembered that they formed 32.1 per cent of the District's total population and only 4.3 per cent of them were literate. The figure reflects that the Scheduled Tribes were very much behind the general population and even the Scheduled Castes population. "The educational backwardness of the tribes is perhaps ascribable to their living in small, and remote villages; which are rather slow in reacting to the educational facilities that have been provided by

the Government.”¹ This lower proportion of literate and educated Scheduled Tribes adversely affected the literacy proportion of the District’s population.

Economic Advancement

Economically, the Backward Classes in general and Tribes in particular had remained mainly dependent on agriculture. In 1897-99, aboriginals were 48 per cent of the tenantry and *ryots* in the District and they held 47.3 per cent of the tenancy and *ryotwari* land of the District. In 1939-40, it was found that they were 43.6 per cent and held 42.2 per cent of the land. In the *malguzari* and *zamindari* villages of the whole District, except circles of Shahpur and Nanda, the aboriginals had lost 14.4 per cent of their land during a period of 42 years (1897-99 to 1939-40). In 1939-40,² in the *malguzari* and *zamindari* villages only, the number of aboriginal tenants was 16,247, holding a land of 2,08,900 acres, as against 15,793, holding a land of 2,44,100 acres in 1897-99. This made the Aboriginal Tribes Enquiry Officer (1940-42) to observe, “There are few districts where the necessity for protecting aboriginal tenants is stronger than in Betul.”³ In some parts of the District, the tendency to expropriation was found greater than in others. Thus in Betul, Chicholi, Athnair and Bhainsdehi circles and in Multai tahsil, aboriginals had heavily lost their land. The position of the aboriginal was not safe. They were gradually being displaced by traders and agriculturists from the open country. With a view to placing restriction on the transfer of agricultural land, held in proprietary right and to check its alienation from simple and impoverished aboriginals, the Government of Central Provinces and Berar applied the Land Alienation Act of 1916 to certain aboriginal classes in certain tracts of the province. The Act was applied to Betul District in 1917 (in two stages), while the classes notified were only Gonds and Korkus of the District.

“Closely allied to the question of loss of land and working with it in a vicious circle is the question of aboriginal debt.” It is well known that the holdings of aboriginals were not increasing, while on the other hand, mouths to be fed were increasing. Besides, in good times, general scale of their social expenditure on weddings and other ceremonies was also increased. In such a position, the aboriginal of Betul too was forced to draw debts from money—lenders at excessively high interest. It was observed in 1944 that, protective measures from indebtedness were necessary and it was not safe to leave aboriginals at the mercy of money—lenders. There was “a spate of debt legislation”⁴ during the years 1933 to 1940, starting with Debt Conciliation Act, 1933 (amended by one Act in 1934 and two each in 1935, 1936 and 1937). Again in 1934, the Central Provinces Usurious Loans (Amendment) Act and the Central Provinces

1. Betul District Census Hand Book, 1961, p. IXII.

2. W. V. Grigson, *The Aboriginal Problems in C. P. and Berar*, pp. 33, 463.

3. *Ibid.*, p. 34.

4. *Ibid.*, pp. 193-94.

Moneylenders Act were enacted. The latter Act was amended in 1936, 1937 and in 1940. In 1937, the Central Provinces Protection of Debtors’ Act and in 1939, the Central Provinces and Berar Relief of Indebtedness Act (amended thrice till 1944) were enforced. These Acts replaced Debt Conciliation Boards by Debt Relief Courts.

As regards the working of the Board in the District, it was found that in Partially excluded Bhainsdehi tahsil, there were only 158 aboriginals,¹ who moved the Board for conciliation of Rs. 1,64,601 debt. Nineteen cases involving Rs. 91,128 were dismissed under section 7 and 8, involving Rs. 3,495 under section 14; and agreements were effected in 131 cases, covering creditors’ claims of Rs. 69,478. In the non-excluded Betul and Multai tahsils of the District, 953 aboriginals came to the Board and the claims against them totalled Rs. 4,41,101, but agreements were effected in only 618 cases, covering creditors’ claims of Rs. 3,57,461. The Debt Relief Courts received only nine cases from the tahsils of Betul and Multai.

The condition of these Tribes in Betul District became most precarious on account of consumption of liquor by them in large quantity. They became perfect slaves to the habit and in turn to the Kalar, who supplied them. The habit forbade their progress and extension of cultivation.

At the time of above mentioned enquiry into the aboriginal problems, it was also found that the main economic need of the aboriginal, apart from protection from loss of land and from exploitation by the moneylender and the travelling seller of goods on credit, was an alternative source of cheap credit. But it was discovered that co-operative societies, with aboriginal members, were almost non-existent in the partially excluded Bhainsdehi tahsil of the District. During the year 1940-41, following was the position of co-operative societies in the District.

Co-operative Societies, containing aboriginals entirely, were 53 in Betul tahsil and 4 in Bhainsdehi tahsil, respectively. The strength of members of these were 563 and 27, respectively. Of these societies, 15 of Betul, having 147 aboriginal members, were under liquidation. Thus the picture was not encouraging.

In case of the Scheduled Castes employed in agriculture it may be said that no such detailed enquiry was then held, but it may be assumed that, their condition was not very different from that of Scheduled Tribes.

Special provisions to ensure economic development were made by the Government, only after the Country achieved Freedom, though the Castes and Tribes of the District were ‘Scheduled’ in 1937.

1. *Ibid.*, p. 198.

The Government started a scheme of distributing cultivable land among the landless families belonging to the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes of the District. The Table below exhibits the number of such families and land they received, during the years 1957-58 to 1965-66.—

Year	No. of Scheduled Castes Families	Land in acres in round figure	No. of Scheduled Tribe Families	Land in acres in round figure	No. of Backward class Families and other classes	Land in acres in round figure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1957-58	18	101	95	673	77	517
1958-59	25	138	289	1,979	48	251
1959-60	11	73	153	951	36	203
1960-61	9	55	21	204	38	228
1961-62	3	33	131	153	11	46
1962-63	—	—	30	278	6	40
1963-64	27	93	133	322	11	20
1964-65 ¹	6	17	34	218	5	23
1965-66 ²	—	—	7	47	2	25

A new scheme of giving agricultural subsidy was started during the Third Plan period for the benefit of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes of the District. The number of their families and amount they received during the years 1961-62 to 1965-66 are tabulated below.—

Year	No. of Families		Amount in Rs.	
	Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Tribes	Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Tribes
1	2	3	4	5
1961-62	4	20	2,500	10,000
1962-63	4	20	2,000	10,000
1963-64	6	27	1,000	8,500
1964-65	5	23	1,000	8,500
1965-66	2	—	1,000	—

Grants in-aid for conservation of soil were also given to the families of these Castes and Tribes. In 1964-65, some 25 such families received Rs. 12,000 for conservation of 269 acres of land as against 73 and 45 families, receiving Rs. 14,680 and 9,510 respectively, for conserving 367 and 180 acres of land in years 1962-63 and 1961-62. In 1963-64 and 1965-66 aid was given to none. Similarly, during the years 1962-63 to 1965-66 Rs. 700 and Rs. 280 were granted as legal aid to *Adiwasi* and *Harijan* families of the District, respectively.

1. The figures upto 1964-65 are only of Betul and Bhainsdehi tahsils.
2. The figures of 1965-66 are only of Bhainsdehi tahsil.

As made clear earlier, the co-operative movement started in 1911, made very slow progress in this region on account of many reasons. No special study was made of methods for extending co-operative societies in aboriginal areas. Since the year 1953, this work attracted more and more attention of the Government and it resulted in an increase in the number of primary credit societies. In the Scheduled Bhainsdehi tahsil, the number of these societies increased to 56. Prior to it, one Tahsil Agricultural Association was working since 1941, with a view to extending the facilities of agricultural implements, iron, etc., to the agriculturists. One Multi-purpose Co-operative Society was registered in 1950, for distribution of consumers' goods to the tribals of that area. In the year 1954, this society received financial help of Rs. 25,000 from the Tribal Welfare Department.

During the Second Five Year Plan period, a Special Multi-Purpose Block was opened at Bhimpur and activities for the all-round welfare of the tribals were concentrated in that area.

Marketing Society, with 10 Multi-Purpose Co-operative Societies under it, was also organised in that Block. Total financial aid of Rs. 2,04,000 was given to all these organisations by way of contribution towards share capital, managerial subsidy and for construction of a godown. In the area of Scheduled Bhainsdehi tahsil, five Large-Sized Co-operative Credit Societies were organised during the years 1957 to 1959. The share capital loan of Rs. 4,15,000/- was given to these credit societies. Moreover, share capital loan of Rs. 20,000/- and godown loan and subsidy of Rs. 20,000/- was paid to the Marketing Society at Bhainsdehi, which has been converted from old Tahsil Agricultural Association.

The Multi-purpose Co-operative Society at Athnair was given a grant-in-aid of Rs. 25,000/- in 1959. Thirty three Village Service Societies (four by organisation and 29 by revitalisation) were subsequently established. A managerial subsidy @ Rs. 180 was sanctioned for each of the Service Societies for a period of five years from the dates of their registration.

During the Third Five Year Plan period, the area of concentration of activities was extended by inclusion of revenue inspector circles of Shahpur, Ghoradongri and Chicholi in it. The Tribal Welfare Department started special schemes in the tribal areas of the District. Funds were placed at the disposal of Collector to start the various Tribal Welfare schemes.

In the first two years of the Third Five Year Plan i.e. in 1961-62 and 1962-63, three Multi-Purpose Co-operative Societies were organised, in addition to other two, started previously. Besides these, two, Forest Labourer's Co-operative Societies were also organised. In April, 1966, the position of Multi-Purpose Co-operative Societies (Central Sector) of the tribal areas was as follows.

In all, these were eight in number. Each of the two societies, organised in First Plan Period, received Rs. 20,000 as grant and Rs. 5,000 as subsidy for godown construction, while each of the remaining five received Rs. 10,000 as grant and 7,500 as godown (construction) subsidy. One society at Dhodramau was not financed. All these societies deal in grocery, cloth, kerosene oil, etc. In April, 1966, the strength of Forest Labourers Co-operative Societies was five. Each of these societies too was given grant of Rs. 10,000 and subsidy of Rs. 7,500 for godown construction. These are dealing in forest coupes. By the end of the year 1967-68, there were 30 Multi-purpose Co-operative societies in the District having a membership of 2,101 and these were for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

The Government established during the Third Plan period 33 grain *golas* in the tribal areas of the District under the Centrally sponsored scheme, with a view to facilitating the provision of grain for the tribals in times of their need. Each of them were given Rs. 500 for purchase of grain and Rs. 200 for bins.

No specific training schemes were introduced by the Industries Department in the District for the economic uplift of these Castes and Tribes during the Plan periods. General Training schemes, however benefited a number of persons of these Classes. The trainees of these Classes were also granted subsidies for their economic welfare. The Table given below shows the number of persons of these Classes, who availed of the facilities extended to them for their economic uplift during the plan periods.

Plan period	Number of Trainees Trained		
	Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Tribes	Other Backward Classes
First Plan period	—	—	1
Second Plan period	10	22	36
Third Plan period (up to 1961-62)	23	15	34

The subsidy granted to the trainees during these Plan periods is tabulated below.

Plan period	Subsidy granted					
	Scheduled Castes		Scheduled Tribes		Other Backward Classes	
	No. of Trainees	Amount in Rs. in round figure	No. of Trainees	Amount in Rs. in round figure	No. of Trainees	Amount in Rs. in round figure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
First Plan period	—	—	—	—	—	—
Second Plan period	11	1,962	9	1,587	7	750
Third Plan period (up to 1961-62)	8	1,460	4	750	2	375

At the Census of 1961, it was found that of the total population of Scheduled Castes in the District, 56.4 per cent were economically active as against 57.9 of the general population of the District. Of their total working force 71.2 per cent was dependent on agriculture, cultivation and agricultural labour. The proportion of workers principally engaged in agriculture was as high as 84 per cent in rural areas, while it was 8 per cent in the urban areas. Next to agriculture in their economy was household industry, which attracted 11.5 per cent of their workers. Other services, employing 10.3 per cent of their workers, occupied third position in the economy of Scheduled Castes. Other occupations employed the remaining workers but these were not of much importance in their economy. In general, it may be said that in rural areas of the District, there was disproportionate concentration of economic effort in agriculture, while the urban areas exhibited a more diversified economy of the workers of these Castes.

The study of household cultivation based on 20 per cent sample of the households reflected that about seven-tenth (72.4 per cent) of the cultivating rural households were full owners of their lands. Roughly 1 in 18 (5.6 per cent) of the cultivating households did not own any land and they cultivated lands of others. In between these two ends figured 22 per cent of cultivating households, who owned some land and took some additional land on lease from others.

As regards the size of holding of cultivating households, it was found that 15.7 per cent of all cultivating households were busy in small holdings of less than 2.5 acres each. Another 14.4 per cent cultivated holdings between 2.5 to 7.5 acres each. The largest proportion of cultivating households i. e. 18.7 per cent were engaged in cultivating slightly bigger householdings of 5 to 7.5 acres each. But these holdings even up to 7.5 acres could not be considered to be economic, if we bear in mind the hilly nature of the District, where irrigation facilities were not common. This leads us to the conclusion that half of the households cultivated uneconomic holdings.

A little more than one-fourth of the cultivating households were engaged by the holdings of the size of 7.5 to 12.4 acres each. Another one-fourth of the cultivating households cultivated holdings of more than 12.5 acres each. A good proportion of these households were certainly cultivators of some substance but others also were generally better off agriculturally.

As regards the economy of the Scheduled Tribes, it was found at the time of Census of 1961, that economically about 65 per cent of the population of these tribes was active. About 93 per cent of them was engaged in agriculture which continued to be the backbone of their economy. Of the 93 per cent, 74 per cent were cultivators, while the remaining 19 per cent were agricultural labourers. In the tribal economy of the District, second important

position was occupied by livestock and forestry which attracted 4.2 per cent of the tribals, while in the third place was other services engaging 2 per cent of them. This made it clear that other five categories had very little to appeal to the Tribes.

A close study of the sample households reveals that 62.5 per cent of the cultivating households had their own holdings while 8.9 per cent of them do not own any holding. Between these two extremes stood 28.6 per cent of the cultivating households, who cultivated lands taken on lease from others in addition to their own.

The last mentioned two proportions, to a great extent, made it clear, that absentee landlordism or sub-tenures was still persisting in tribal cultivation of Betul District.

"The Table inset below enables us to have a quantitative idea of the extent of fragmentation of holdings, in the sense of smallness of the total holdings cultivated by individual tribal households."

"Proportion of cultivating households cultivating different sizes of holdings to all cultivating households."

Size of holding in acres.	Proportion of households cultivating holdings of size given in column 1.	Cumulated proportion, i. e. proportion of households cultivating lands less than the upper limit in column 1.
1	2	3
Below 1	6.2	6.2
1.0—2.4	3.5	9.7
2.5—4.9	9.9	19.6
5.0—7.4	16.1	35.7
7.5—9.9	13.3	49.0
10.0—12.4	14.1	63.1
12.5—14.9	7.3	70.4
15.0—29.9	22.6	93.0
30.0—49.9	5.5	98.5
50+	1.5	100.0

"Holdings between 15 and 30 acres appear to be most frequent; these are cultivated by about 23 per cent of all cultivating households. These and the 7 per cent households, who cultivate holdings of more than 30 acres, may normally be expected to be agriculturally well off. Roughly one-tenth of all cultivating tribal households cultivate very small holdings of less than 2.5 acres. Another ten per cent cultivate lands of some-what bigger size (2.5 to 5), but

still very small considering the infertile nature of soils, hilly terrain and absence of irrigation. Thus, about one-fifth of the households, cultivating holdings of below 5 acres each must be in a very bad way economically as far as agriculture is concerned."

"30 per cent of the cultivating households do so on holdings of 5 to 10 acres each. Even these may not, in view of what has been stated earlier regarding the nature of soil, be regarded as clearly economic holding. Thus, roughly half of the cultivating tribal households cultivate mostly uneconomic holdings of less than 10 acres."

"21.4 per cent of the cultivating households possess holdings of 10 to 15 acres in size. These may be considered as marginal holdings that may or may not be capable of being economically exploited, depending among other things on the nature of soil. Thus, to sum up, about half of the cultivating tribal households, possessing less than ten acres each may not be considered to be economically well off; about one-fifth, possessing 10 to 15 acres of land each represent the marginal agricultural economy; while about three-tenths, owning more than 15 acres of land each may be regarded to be in a better way economically."

Social Advancement

From times immemorial the so-called untouchables of this District too were suffering from various social and political disabilities, many of which were traditionally prescribed and socially imposed by the high-caste people of the District. They were even denied civil rights of using public places, wells, *serais*, *dharmashalas*, schools, etc. They were associated with pollution. Thus in every sense, their condition was depressed. The tribes were probably not supposed to carry with them any such social stigma but that was perhaps due to their remote and isolated inhabitations in hills and forests.

Till 1947, there was no legislation affecting these Depressed Classes, and Tribes. During the period of early two decades of this Century, the Government paid respect to the feelings of orthodoxy and opened separate schools for the children of these classes. It was only after 1920, when political activity had done more "to break down caste and communal prejudices than any amount of missionary efforts", that the Government gathered some courage and began to take some measures for removing social disability of the children of the Depressed Classes studying in public schools. It prohibited differential treatment to boys and girls of the e Classes.

In subsequent period, growth in the means of communication brought these people into close contact with others and this, to some extent, resulted in closing the wide gulf between these Classes and high castes. With the growth of education, there was seen political and social awakening in these

Classes and change in thoughts of educated generation as regards caste restrictions. With newspapers and periodicals, new liberal and democratic ideas rapidly travelled from place to place. The political activities of the third and fourth decades of this Century made these Classes conscious of their civil rights and social and political propaganda against the evil of untouchability helped considerably in changing the heart of people in general.

In the year 1935, a branch of the All India Harijan Sewak Sangh was established in the District. This voluntary organisation on the one hand encouraged all round welfare of Harijans, while on the other, by its propaganda, it educated public opinion in favour of removal of untouchability.

In 1947, when the Country achieved Freedom, the Government of the Central Provinces and Berar enacted and brought into force the Central Provinces and Berar Temple Entry Authorisation Act, 1947 (XII of 1947). It aimed to bring the members of the Scheduled Castes on a par with the members of other Hindu Communities in the matter of temple entry and worship of the deity in temple. In the same year the Government of the Province passed the Central Provinces and Berar Scheduled Castes (Removal of Civil Disabilities) Act, 1947 (XXIV of 1947). The Act prohibited discrimination against members of Scheduled Castes in all public places, like schools, wells, hotels, shops, etc. These Acts greatly helped in giving civil rights and liberties to the so-called untouchables.

One more legislative step, with a view to giving death-blow to the evil of untouchability, was taken in 1955, when the Untouchability (Offences) Act was made applicable. The Act declared observance of untouchability at public places an offence. Under this Act in the year 1958, two offences were registered in the District while in 1964 only one case was registered but none was convicted for want of evidence.

Now, in general, former restrictions enjoined against the untouchables are not observed at public places by the people. They are not treated as socially disabled persons.

Other Welfare Measures

Under the Centrally sponsored schemes the State Government, through the agencies of the Janapad Sabhas etc., of the District, started a few works for the welfare of these Castes and Tribes. It constructed 140 ideal mud huts at the cost of Rs. 1,05,000, during the years 1959-60 and 1960-61 for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes of the District. These were allotted to 20 Scheduled Castes and 120 Scheduled Tribes families.

The Government also started a scheme of sinking wells to provide drinking water for them. The Table below exhibits details of the work done under the scheme in this District during the years 1957-58 to 1965-66,

Year	Targets fixed and Achieved		Year	Targets fixed and Achieved	
	Wells	Amount in Rs.		Wells	Amount in Rs.
1	2	3	1	2	3
1957-58	12	19,000	1962-63	5	10,000
1958-59	4	6,000	1963-64	4	3,000
1959-60	5	10,000	1964-65	6	5,500
1960-61	14	28,000	1965-66	2	5,500
1961-62	4	8,000			

In the year 1960-61, the Government sanctioned construction of four bunds and an amount of Rs. 20,000 for the work. Out of these four bunds, three were constructed in the *adiwasi* areas of the District.

In the year 1957-58, a fair weather road of the length of about 16 kilometres (10 miles) was constructed in *adiwasi* area at the cost of Rs. 8,665. The road linked Athanair, with Dhanora via Gujarmal. In the year 1959-60, work on a metalled road of the length of about 21 kilometres (13 miles) started and carried upto second coat metal consolidation but left incomplete. Another road of the length of about 60 kilometres (37 miles) from Bhimpur to Bhainsdehi via Nanda was completed. On both these roads Rs. 50,000 were spent. Culverts and bridges are yet to be constructed. In the year 1961-62, an approach road of the length of about 16 kilometres (10 miles) from Athanair to Hidli was completed at an expenditure of Rs. 9,697. Another approach road of the same length and linking Lahas Kukru with Bhainsdehi was completed at the cost of Rs. 10,000 in the year 1962-63.

Public Health Department is running four hospitals and 12 other medical units like primary health centres, family planning centres, *Ayurvedic* dispensaries, etc., in the Scheduled Areas of the District. These hospitals and medical units have an arrangement of 21 beds. The Tribal Welfare Department started two child welfare centres in tribal area, in addition to two tribal welfare centres started in 1951. In 1956, three more child welfare centres were organised for the welfare of tribals by the same Department. With the same purpose the Veterinary Department is running nine veterinary hospitals and 12 poultry farms in the tribal areas of the District. For cattle breeding, 20 bulls are also maintained in those areas.

In addition to the above mentioned activities of the Government Departments the local bodies of the District have also started and completed some works for the welfare of their employees, belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The municipal councils of Betul and Multai of the District annually supply uniform dresses and give leave facilities, including that of maternity, etc., as per rule sanctioned by the Government from time to time. Such employees of the Municipal Council, Betul have been included

in the Provident Fund scheme but no pension or gratuity rules are applied to them. Action is being taken to stop the practice of carrying night soil on head. In making an appointment to the post of a Jamadar, preference is given to senior sweeper, if found suitable for the post. Two municipal wells are located in sweepers' colony area of Betul. Both the municipal councils, under the Centrally sponsored scheme, constructed sweepers' colonies and the huts are given to the sweepers free of any rent.

Sweepers of Municipal Council, Betul, have formed their association in 1961, having a membership of 69 persons. It is working for the economic and social welfare of the sweepers.

CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS

Organisation for the Control of Public Trusts and Charitable Endowments

For the first time, the Central Provinces passed the Central Provinces and Berar Religious and Charitable Trusts Act in 1937, which was amended in 1948 and finally replaced in 1951 by the Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act, 1951.

At District level, the main controlling authority of the Public Trusts, established in the District, is the Collector, who is the Registrar¹ for this purpose. Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act of 1951 governs the working of all Public Trusts, which are required to get themselves registered with the Registrar. The Registrar looks after the proper management and functioning of these institutions. Prior to 1951, the working of various Trusts and Endowments of the District was regulated and supervised under various Central as well as provincial enactments. The Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act of 1951 has, for the first time, brought about systematisation in the management of all the Public Trusts of the District. The Central Charitable Endowment Act, VI of 1890, and the Charitable and Religious Endowment Act, XIV of 1920, are also applicable to the Public Trusts and Charitable Endowments of this District.

As required by the Act of 1951, all the Public Trusts of the District have to open their individual account in any Scheduled Bank or Post-office Saving Bank or any bank registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1912 and deposit all their funds in the bank. With the approval of Registrar, the funds can be kept with any banker or persons, acting as a banker, who has given security for the safe custody and repayment, on demand of the money so deposited. The Manager or the Secretary, as the case may be, of the Trust is authorised to spend the amount normally required for the smooth running of the day to day essential activities of the Trusts. All the Public Trusts Committees prepare their annual budgets and send them for the approval of the Registrar. The accounts of these Trusts are subject to audit annually by a person, who is a holder of a certificate, granted under section 144 of the Indian Companies

1. The power of registration of Public Trusts has also been delegated to the Sub-Divisional Officers.

Act, 1913 or in the case of a Public Trust, the gross annual income of which does not exceed Rs. 1,000, by a person approved by the Registrar by a general or special order.

The total number of Public Trusts in the District was 58 on the 17th May, 1966. Of these 19 are in Betul tahsil, 33 in Multai tahsil, while the remaining 6 are in Bhainsdehi tahsil. A close study of the object of these trusts makes it clear that as many as 49 are devoted to the purely religious objects. Of the remaining 9 Trusts, one is devoted to medical purpose, one runs *dharmashala*, three render some sort of social service and two are partly religious and partly charitable. From the point of view of their annual income, most of these Public Trusts are minor, their financial resources being very limited and poor.

The only medical Trust of the District is known as the Betul Sanatorium. The Trust runs a sanatorium at village Jamathi of Betul tahsil. Its movable and immovable properties amount to Rs. 8,800 and Rs. 38,500, respectively. Its annual income is Rs. 6,000 and it spends Rs. 6,000 per year in maintaining the sanatorium. Betul Ganj Dharmashala Trust has a movable property of about Rs. 1,040, while its immovable property is of the value of Rs. 8,580. Its annual income and expenditure amount to Rs. 2,000. Rai Sahib Keshoram Dharmashala Trust, Amla has movable property of Rs. 100 and an immovable property of Rs. 1,000. Its annual income and expenditure are Rs. 1,086 and 968 respectively.

Charitable Endowments

There are two Charitable Endowments in the District. A brief account of them is given below.

Kamala Prasad Poor Boys' Library Fund

Mohanlal, Extra Assistant Commissioner, Betul, established this Fund in the year 1931, with a sum of Rs. 400 only. This amount has been deposited in the Savings Bank Account of the post office. The income of the fund, i. e., the interest, is utilised for purpose of purchasing text books and reference books suitable for the use of school boys of Government Multi-Purpose Higher Secondary School, Betul. These books are given on loan to poor and deserving boys of the said Higher Secondary School, Betul. The controlling authority is the District Education Officer, Betul.

Shrimati Laxmibai Devi Scholarship Fund, Betul

Devchand Thakur, a retired Tahsildar, established a Fund in 1957, by investing a sum of Rs. 1,000/-. The amount is now deposited in the post office Savings Bank. It was established with the object of awarding scholarships to poor and deserving Rajput girls. The income received by way of interest is utilised for the award of scholarship of the value of Rs. 3/- per month to a poor and deserving Rajput girl student of class VI of Government Maharani Laxmibai

Girls Higher Secondary School, Betul. It is also administered by the District Education Officer, Betul.

Government Grant to Religious Institutions

Under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, only one annual grant of the value of Rs. 350 has been sanctioned from the charitable (*dharmartha*) head, in the District. This grant has been sanctioned for maintenance and upkeep of the *dargah* of Raheman Shah Dulah at Umari. The amount is also utilised for the religious festival 'urs' and for feeding of *fakirs* during *urs* days.

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Representation of the District in Union Legislature

The beginning of representation of the District in the Central Legislature dates back to the year 1909 when, on the 15th of November, the Indian Councils Act 1901 came into operation in the Central Provinces of which Betul formed a constituent part. It was a very limited representation of the District as the latter formed only a part of the non-territorial constituencies of the Central Provinces.

Then the Governor-General in Legislative Council called upon the District Councils and the Municipal Committees of the Central Provinces to elect an Additional Member to the Legislative Council of the Governor-General. The landholders of the Province too were called upon to elect another Additional Member to represent them in the same Council. Thus the Province formed two non-territorial constituencies and they elected two additional members to sit in the Council of the Governor-General.

The members (other than those appointed ex-officio) of the District Councils and Municipal Committees, and the landholders selected their respective delegates to form their own electoral colleges to elect these two additional members. The councillors of the District Council of Betul District and the Municipality of the town of Badnur now called Betul Kothi Bazar, selected one delegate each, while the landholders of the District selected one delegate to be enrolled on their province-wide respective electoral colleges.

Subsequently, a modification was effected in the above procedure. This was achieved in pursuance of Regulations for nominations and elections of additional members of the Council, first published on 14th November, 1912 and amended subsequently. By these Regulations the right to elect a Additional Member hitherto enjoyed by the District Councils and Municipalities, was transferred to the non-official members of the Legislative Council of the Chief Commissioner of Central Provinces which was first formed in 1914-15. These non-official members since then began to elect an Additional Member of the Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India.

In 1920, under the provisions of the Government of India Act, 1919, two Legislatures were created at the Centre. For the election of a member for the

Council of State, Central Provinces, excluding certain *zamindari* and *jagirdari* estates and some other backward tracts, formed one constituency, while the Province was divided into four constituencies to elect five members to represent the Province in the Indian Legislative Assembly. The District of Betul formed a part of the following three constituencies.

- (1) Double-member Central Provinces Hindi Division (non-Muhammadan),
 - (2) Central Provinces (Muhammadan), (3) Central Provinces (Landholders).
- Berar separately formed a constituency to return one member to each of these Legislatures at the Centre.

When the Government of India Act, 1935 came into force, this position remained much the same, because the Federal part of the scheme never came into executive existence.

The inauguration of the Republic constitution of India in 1950 necessitated the delimitation of constituencies in the Country for the elections of members to the House of the people. At the time of the first General Elections of 1951-52, certain parts of the District were in Chhindwara and Hoshangabad Parliamentary constituencies, while some parts of Chhindwara, Amrawati and Nagpur districts were included in Betul Parliamentary Constituency for the election of members to the House of the People under the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order 1951. During the General Elections of 1957 and 1962 to the House of the People the District formed a part of Chhindwara Parliamentary Constituency. For the General Elections of 1967 Betul Lok Sabha Constituency included some parts of Chhindwara District.

Representation of the District in State Legislature

Upto the year 1914, when the first Central Provinces Legislative Council of the Chief Commissioner was established, the representative Government in the Central Provinces and Berar remained practically confined to Local Bodies. Until the 10th November, 1913 the Legislative Authority for the Central Provinces was the Council of the Governor-General of India, while Legislation for Berar was effected by notification issued by the Governor-General in Council under the power conferred on him by the Indian (Foreign Jurisdiction) Order in Council in 1902.

The territories, till then administered by the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces, were by Proclamation declared to be a Province with effect from the 10th November, 1913, and the provisions of the Indian Councils Acts, 1861 to 1909, were made applicable thereto. The Central Provinces Legislative Council of the Chief Commissioner was established in 1914. The Governor-General in Council, under the Indian Councils Act, 1909, issued Regulations for the nomination and election of members of the Central Provinces Legislative Council on the 15th November, 1913.

Under these rules the ordinary constitution of the Legislative Council was as follows.

(i) Elected Members

By the Municipal Committees of the Central Provinces— 3 Members
 By the District Councils of the Central Provinces — 2 Members
 By the Landholders of the Central Provinces — 2 Members
 By the above organisations one each from Berar — 3 Members

(ii) Officials nominated by the Chief Commissioner — 11 Members

(iii) Non-officials nominated by the Chief Commissioner — 4 Members

The Municipal Councillors of Badnur from this District exercised their right of electing, along with other Municipal Councillors of Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Division, one member from this Electoral group I. Similarly, District Councillors and Landholders of the District elected one member each from their groups I, which included other District Councillors and landholders of Jubbulpore-Nerbudda Division. Thus the District was in a very limited sense represented by the three said members in the first Legislative Council of the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces, the first meeting of which was held on the 17th August, 1914. The term of this Legislative Council expired in July 1917, when a new Council came into existence. It functioned till August, 1920. The position of representation remained much the same.

The Government of India Act, 1919 provided for constituting the Central Provinces a Governor's Province. The provisions of the Act and the Central Provinces Legislative Council Rules came into force from the 17th December, 1920. The Reformed Council, which replaced the old one, first met in January, 1921. This new Council was constituted as under:

Members elected by the Constituencies of the Central Provinces	36
Members nominated as a result of election in Berar	17
Officials nominated by the Governor	7
Non-Officials nominated by the Governor	8
Ex-officio members of Executive Council of the Governor	2
	70

For the election of 36 Members from Central Provinces, the Province was divided into the following constituencies

	No. of Constituencies	No. of Members
A. Non-Muhammadan Urban	6	7
Non-Muhammadan Rural	21	21
B Muhammadan Rural	4	4

C. Special	—	—	4	4
1. Jubbulpore Nerbudda Landholders	1		1	1
2. Nagpur Chhattisgarh Landholders	1		1	1
3. Central Provinces and Berar Mining Association	1		1	1
4. Central Provinces Commerce and Industry	1		1	1
			—	36

Betul District formed a non-Muhammadan (Rural) Constituency of the same name for electing a member. In respect of Muhammadan Rural Constituency, Betul District was included in the Constituency by name Nerbudda Division (Rural). Of the 4 special constituencies, Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Landholders' Constituency included landholders of Betul District for electing a member, while the District formed part of other two non-territorial constituencies, viz., Central Provinces and Berar Mining and Central Provinces Commerce and Industry, for electing one member from each of them. Thus the District formed part of five constituencies participating in the election of five members out of 36 elected members of the Central Provinces Legislative Council of the Governor. The First Reformed Council lasted from January, 1921 to October, 1923.

The Second Council worked from January, 1924 to September, 1926. The representation of the District in the Council remained unchanged in respect of old constituencies. In addition to these the District formed a part of a newly constituted non-territorial Constituency of Nagpur University in 1923. The Constituency returned an elected member for the first time in the Second Council. This caused an increase in the number of elected members of the Legislative Council.

In the Third Council, which was constituted in January, 1927 and dissolved in August 1930, Mandla District returned an elected member for the first time as the District was enfranchised and given benefit of the reforms in 1926. The strength of elected members in the Council was then 55, while the total strength of the councillors was 73. By the way it is worth mentioning that for the first time women were enfranchised from third September, 1927. The representation of the District remained as it was till 1926.

The Fourth Legislative Council, commenced from December, 1930, continued enjoying extensions till March, 1937. The representation of the District remained much the same.

When the Government of India Act, 1935, came into force, the Province was declared to be entitled to constitute its Legislative Assembly. Accordingly, delimitation of constituencies was achieved and under the Central Provinces

and Berar Legislative Assembly Electoral Rules of 1936, Elections were held in 1937. All the 112 seats of the Assembly were elective. The Province was divided into various classes of constituencies and the seats were allotted to them. The following Table provides details.

Class of Constituency	No. of Seats	Number of Electors	No. of Seats Reserved for Scheduled Castes
1	2	3	4
All classes	112	1,741,364	20
1. General	84	1,568,812	20
(i) Urban	10	185,885	1
(ii) Rural	74	1,382,927	19
2. Muhammadan	14	73,903	
(i) Urban	2	12,827	
(ii) Rural	12	61,070	
3. Women	3	70,250	
4. Backward Tribes	1	16,357	
5. Commerce	2	383	
6. Landholders	3	1,283	
7. Labour	2	8,028	
8. European	1	546	
9. Anglo-Indian	1	1,444	
10. University	1	358	
	112	1,741,364	20

Betul District was represented in the First Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly through following constituencies.

Betul and Bhainsdehi, both the tehsils of the District jointly formed one separate General Rural Constituency, while the tahsil of Multai formed the another General Rural Constituency. The total number of electors in these constituencies were then 23,256 and 17,571, respectively. The District was included in one member Hoshangabad-Chhindwara-Betul Muhammadan Rural Constituency. It also formed part of the following Single-Member non-territorial constituencies, Central Provinces Commerce, Central Provinces Northern Landholders, University, etc. In the Second Elections of the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly, which took place in 1946, the representation of the District remained undisturbed.

When the Republic Constitution of India was made applicable to the Country in 1950, the First General Elections to the newly formed Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly were held in 1951-52. For the purpose of these elections, under the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order 1951, Betul District was divided into three Single and one Double-Member

constituencies viz. Chicholi, Betul, Bhainsdehi and Multai. These four constituencies elected five members to the Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly to represent the District. Details of these constituencies are tabulated below.

Name of the Constituency	Total No. of Electors	Total No. of Votes	Total No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of col. 4 to 3
1	2	3	4	5
1. Chicholi	33,324	33,324	27,862	85
2. Betul	49,010	43,010	24,198	49
3. Bhainsdehi	40,107	40,107	20,894	52
4. Multai (Double-Member)	1,01,828	2,03,656	93,675	46

Subsequently, delimitation of constituencies was made under the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order 1956, and Second General Elections were held in 1957. For these General Elections, though the District remained covered by the four constituencies for electing its five representatives, the constituencies were reconstituted as would be clear from the following details.

Name of the Constituency	No. of Electors	No. of Votes	No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of col. 5 to 4
1	2	3	4	5
1. Bhainsdehi	44,357	44,357	12,412	28
2. Betul	91,786	1,83,572	56,045	31
3. Multai	52,018	52,018	16,185	33
4. Masod	53,428	53,428	27,655	52

Of these, all constituencies, except Betul, were Single-Member, while the seat of Bhainsdehi Constituency and one of the two seats of Betul Constituency were reserved for the Scheduled Tribes. Thus, though the strength of reserved constituencies continued to be two in the District, Multai Constituency, formerly having two seats (one reserved for the Scheduled Castes), became a Single-Member Constituency in 1957. The former Single-Member Betul General Constituency now became a Double-Member Constituency and one of the seats was treated as reserved for the Scheduled Tribes. Thus, in all, the Scheduled Tribes received two seats in the District for the first time and for the Scheduled Castes there remained no reserved Constituency in the District.

Under Section 7 of the Two-Member Constituencies (Abolition) Act, 1961, the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1956,

was amended and revised and it was known as the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1961. The Double-Member Betul Constituency of the General Elections of 1957, was split up into two Single-Member constituencies viz. Ghoradongari (reserved for the Scheduled Tribes) and Betul.

Other details of all the constituencies of the District, as they were in the General Elections of 1962 are given below.

Name of the Constituency	No. of Electors	No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 3 to 2. (in round figure)
1	2	3	4
1. Masod	59,908	32,715	55
2. Multai	58,189	21,459	37
3. Ghoradongri	50,345	8,433	17
4. Betul	60,435	25,136	42
5. Bhainsdehi	53,893	13,092	26

For the Fourth General Elections of 1967, the District was divided into five Vidhan Sabha constituencies. Details of these constituencies are shown below,

Name of the Constituency	Total No. of Votes	Total No. of Valid Votes Polled	Percentage of Col. 3 to 2	Reserved Seat
1	2	3	4	5
Multai	66,101	26,708	40.40	—
Masod	65,407	33,331	50.96	—
Bhainsdehi	62,793	20,196	32.16	Scheduled Tribes
Betul	63,558	36,089	56.78	—
Ghoradongari	59,399	16,908	28.46	Scheduled Tribes

POLITICAL PARTIES

Indian National Congress

One Sewa Samiti a socio-political organisation was organised in the year 1914 in this District. Subsequently, the Samiti was transformed into the District Congress Committee in 1920 when the Indian National Congress adopted linguistic principle for reorganising provinces and forming Congress at provincial level. Henceforth, the activities of the District Congress are synonymous with the history of the Freedom Movement.

The Congress Party in the District became premier political Party. Naturally, with its superior organisation and a vast army of devoted workers, who penetrated

into the remotest villages, carried everything before it in the District during the Elections of 1937, held in the Central Provinces and Berar. The Congress won the elections in two General Rural constituencies (except Hoshangabad-Chhindwara-Betul, Muhammadan Rural, to which the District was attached for the election purposes) viz. Betul-Bhainsdehi and Multai. They defeated all their rivals, who lost even their deposits in these elections to Provincial Assembly.

In the Central Provinces and Berar second Elections under the Act of 1935 were held in 1946. From both the General Rural constituencies of the District two candidates of the Congress Party were declared elected unopposed to the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly. The Congress, being a party in majority, formed in 1946 a cabinet, which released all political prisoners, withdrew all warrants against absconders in political cases and remitted the collective fines levied by the previous regime.

After Independence, first General Elections were held in 1951-52. The Party put up a candidate for Betul Parliamentary Constituency and he came out successful by securing 53 per cent of the valid votes. It also contested all the five seats of the four constituencies for Vidhan Sabha (Legislative Assembly) and won all the five seats. In Betul, Chicholi, Bhainsdehi and Double-Member Multai constituencies the candidates of the Party, secured about 49, 69, 20 and 19 per cent of the total valid votes polled. The Congress maintained its position intact in 1957, so far as the elections to the Lok Sabha were concerned. The District was then in the Double-Member Constituency named Chhindwara. In the elections for Vidhan Sabha the Congress lost two seats to Independents in Multai and Masod Constituencies, in which the candidates of the Party could secure only 42.55 and 46.32 per cent valid votes, respectively, as against 57.68 and 53.68 per cent polled by the Independents. The remaining three candidates of the Party won the election from Bhainsdehi Scheduled Tribes Constituency and Double-Member (General and Scheduled Tribes) Betul Constituency. Here they, respectively, secured 47.69, 34.0 and 31.35 per cent valid votes.

In the third General Elections of 1962, the Party won the Lok Sabha seat (Chhindwara Constituency), while out of the five seats in Vidhan Sabha, the Party could secure only three seats. It won two seats in constituencies of Masod and Multai (lost to Independents in 1957), and third one in Betul Constituency. It lost Bhainsdehi and Ghoradongari seats to Jana Sangh. In Masod and Multai constituencies the party candidates could secure 46.5 and 51.9 per cent valid votes, respectively, while in Betul Constituency the Party could bag 44 per cent of valid votes. In Ghoradongari and Bhainsdehi Scheduled Tribes constituencies the Party could get only 41.5 and 27.1 per cent votes, as against 46.1 and 40.5 per cent votes bagged by the Jana Sangh.

In the Fourth General Elections to Lok Sabha the candidate of the Congress Party, getting 1,02,661 valid votes, defeated his two rivals. For the Elections to

the Vidhan Sabha the Party set up its candidates in all the five constituencies. In two constituencies i.e. Multai and Masod, the party candidates were successful and they received about 27 and about 48 per cent valid votes, respectively. In three other constituencies i.e. Bhainsdehi, Betul and Ghoradongari the candidates of the Congress were defeated. The candidates could secure about 48, 30 and 36 per cent valid votes, respectively.

As regards the organisational set-up of the Party in the District it may be mentioned that the set-up and constitution of the Party had undergone changes from time to time. There is a Village Congress Committee for every 2,000 of the population. These Congress Committees are grouped into Mandal Congress Committees. The Mandal Committees elect their representatives to respective Tahsil Congress Committees. Above all there is the District Congress Committee working in the District under the State Congress Committee.

Hindu Mahasabha

Prior to the year 1937 this communal organisation was devoted more to the social and religious uplift of the Hindus. In the first Elections of 1937 for the first time, the Sabha contested two seats of the General Rural Constituencies of the District and lost them. Both these candidates lost even their deposits. In later period the Sabha claimed no following in the District and now it is defunct.

Muslim League

This communal organisation had established two of its branches in 1938, at Betul and Amala with the membership of about 300 and 85, respectively. The Party had some influence on some Muslims of the District, but there being no purely Muhammadan constituency in the District its member did not represent in the Legislative Assembly. The Party stopped its working from 15th August 1947.

Forward Block

The Party, with the aim of instilling a revolutionary impulse in the then Congress programme and preparing the country for mass struggle through agitation and radical programme, established its District Unit in Betul District in 1939-40.

The members of the Party participated in the *Satyagrah* movements during the years 1940-41 and in Quit India Movement for which many of them were put behind the bars.

The Party (Ruikar Group and Marxist Group) contested some of the seats of the Legislative Assembly constituencies of the District during the first General Elections of 1951-52. Ruikar group contested Chicholi General seat and winning only 6 per cent valid votes lost it. In Double-Member Multai Constituency both the Groups fought both the seats and lost them. The candidates of

Ruikar Group can secure only 3 per cent votes in each constituency while the contestants of Marxist Group secured only 15 per cent votes in each of the two constituencies. In the General Elections of 1962 the Party contested the Chhindwara Lok Sabha seat and lost it. In the same Elections four of the five Legislative Assembly seats were fought by the workers of the Party but in none of them they were successful. In Masod Constituency the candidate could secure only 24.8 per cent valid votes while the percentages of valid votes in other constituencies were as below

Multai 5.9, Ghoradongri 12.2 and Bhainsdehi 12.1.

Socialist and Praja Socialist Parties

The Congress Socialist Party was formed in the District in the year 1940 and it was working within the Congress Party as one of its wings. But when the socialist workers of the Party decided to form a separate party the socialists of the District too organised their District Unit. The candidates of the Party fought the first General Elections of 1951-52 in Chicholi and Betul constituencies and by securing respectively 9 and 10 per cent valid votes lost the elections.

In 1954-55, the Socialist Party and Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party were amalgamated and the new Party was rechristened as the Praja Socialist Party. This new Party contested both seats in Double-Member Chhindwara Lok Sabha Constituency and lost them by securing only 12.97 and 10.16 per cent valid votes in the General Elections of 1957. The candidates of the Party fought these Elections for three seats of Bhainsdehi and Double-Member Betul constituencies of Vidhan Sabha. In the first Constituency, the contestant could secure 40.34 per cent valid votes, but could not win. The Party candidates could secure only 18.54 and 16.05 per cent valid votes in Betul Constituency and lost both the seats. In the General Elections of 1962, the Party contested only Betul and Bhainsdehi constituency seats for the Legislative Assembly and lost them by securing only 8.3 and 13.9 per cent valid votes, respectively.

Scheduled Castes Federation and Republican Parties

The Federation fought the reserved seat of the Double-Member Multai Legislative Assembly Constituency in 1951-52 and lost it by securing only 7 per cent of the valid votes.

The Republican Party, in the General Elections of 1962, fought for three of the five Legislative Assembly seats in the District and could win none of them. The candidates fetched votes as below in these constituencies. Masod-11.4, Multai 8.4 and Betul 4.3 per cent.

In the General Elections of 1967 to Lok Sabha, the Party set up its candidate to fight Betul Lok Sabha seat. The candidate securing only 32,846 valid votes lost his deposit. As regards the Elections to Vidhan Sabha, the Party, in vain,

tried to fight in Multai and Masod constituencies in which they could get only about 6 and 7 per cent valid votes, respectively.

Bharatiya Jana Sangh

The district branch of the Sangh was organised in 1958. The Party candidate fought in the Lok Sabha Constituency of Chhindwara (which included Betul) and lost it in the General Elections of 1962. As regards the Elections to the Legislative Assembly constituency seats of the District, the candidates of the Party contested all the five seats and won Bhainsdehi and Ghoradongri constituency seats by securing 40.5 and 46.2 per cent valid votes, respectively.

Jana Sangh candidate contested Betul Lok Sabha seat in 1967 and lost it by securing only 88,762 valid votes. In respect of Vidhan Sabha constituencies, the party candidates fought four of the five seats of the District and won three of them. They got about 56 per cent valid votes in Bhainsdehi Constituency, 62 per cent in Betul Constituency and 64 per cent in Ghoradongri Constituency. In Multai Constituency, the party candidate lost the Election securing about 24 per cent valid votes.

A consolidated statement given in Appendix provides the number of seats in the State Legislature allotted to the District, total number of votes, total number of valid votes polled, number of contestants, number of seats won and number of valid votes polled by various parties at the four General Elections held in 1951-52, 1957, 1962 and 1967.

NEWSPAPERS

Papers Published in the District and their Importance

History of newspapers and other periodicals of the District is of very recent origin. *Pukar*, a monthly organ to preach Christianity, was started at Betul. Its declaration was made by the end of 1952 and it started publication from October, 1954. The publication was very irregular and it ceased in the year 1955. From April, 1955, a weekly paper, called *Naya Jamana*, was started at Betul. Its publication was also irregular. It was a paper of the Praja-Socialist Party. It closed first in May, 1955 and again started from June, 1955. The paper again suspended its publication during the month of December, 1955. It again resumed publication from 22nd March, 1956, only to cease on the 6th April, 1956. Another weekly paper, called *Betul Samachar*, started its publication from 28th November, 1957 only to enjoy a short life. It ceased in April, 1958. The month of March, 1959 witnessed the publication of one more weekly paper, started from Multai. Its name was *Sadhana*. Its declaration was not in proper form and was declared void by the District Magistrate. The paper, upholding the socialistic views, ceased publication from June, 1959. In the years 1960 and 1961, three more weeklies appeared in the District. *Yug-wani* was started by the end of 1960, while *Satpuda* *Yug-wani* appeared in July, 1961. Both these papers appear to have enjoyed

a short life. The third paper *Betul Warta*, first appeared in September, 1961 and ceased in January, 1962, again to start from 25th October, 1962. All these papers, except the last one, had a very limited circulation ranging 100 to 300 copies. *Betul-warta* commands wider circulation. According to the Registrar for Newspapers in India, in 1962, its circulation was about 750 copies as against 510 in 1961. Circulation figures for later years are not available. One more weekly paper started its publication from Betul since 1963 and its name was *Satpuda Sandesh*. Besides these Hindi papers, there has been no other District paper, which exercised any influence and enjoyed popularity. Most of the reading public here depends on the newspapers and periodicals published outside within and without the State.

State and Extra-State Papers in Common Circulation in the District

Among the English news papers of the State figure the *Madhya Pradesh Chronicle and Hitawada* (both dailies of Bhopal). The Extra-State English dailies, weeklies and monthlies, which are in common circulation in the District include *The Times of India* (Bombay and Delhi), *Free Press Journal* (Bombay), *Nagpur Times* (Nagpur), *Hitawada* (Nagpur), *Hindustan Times* (Delhi), *Indian Express* (Bombay-Delhi), *Blitz* (Bombay), *Illustrated-weekly* (Bombay), *Organiser* (Delhi), *Sports and Past-Time* (Madras), *Shankar's Weekly* (Delhi), *Urvashi* and *Advance* (both of Bombay), monthly *Mother India* and *Filmfare* (both of Bombay).

Of the Hindi papers published in the State, following deserve mention—*Nava Bharat* (Bhopal), *Nai Dunia* and *Yugdharma* (both of Jabalpur), all three dailies, and weekly *Karmaveer* (Khandwa). Of the Extra-State Hindi dailies, *Hindustan*, *Nava Bharat Times*, *Veer Arjun* (all of Delhi), *Nava-Bharat* (Nagpur), *Yugdharma* (Nagpur) and *Vishvmitra* (Bombay), are read by the public. Among the Extra-State Hindi weeklies *Dharmayug* (Bombay), *Blitz* (Bombay), *Hindustan Saptahik* (Delhi), *Panchajanya* (Lucknow), *Hindi Times* (Delhi) and *Urvashi* (Bombay) enjoy circulation, while following monthlies are read by the public of the District. *Sarita*, *Bal-Bharati* (both of Delhi), *Manamohan* (Allahabad), *Chandamama* (Madras), *Jnanodaya* (Calcutta), *Aajkal* (Bombay) *Kalyan* (Gorakhpur), *Navaneet*, *Bharati* and *Sarika* (all from Bombay). Among the Marathi Extra-State papers the *Tarun Bharat*, *Maharashtra* (both from Nagpur) and *Nava Shakti* (Bombay) are the leading dailies, which command circulation.

VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Available early Government records¹ show that the people of the District realised the necessity of forming such societies during the last quarter of the past Century. An organisation, called Betul Newspaper Club, was formed at Betul in April, 1876, but it was closed in the year 1877-78. At the same place, Betul Jnan Mul Sabha was established in February, 1879, with the object of self-improvement. It enjoyed the support of 25 members. In the year 1879-80, Badnur

Jnan Mul Sabha was established at Badnur. Fifteen members subscribed to the institution. At Multai, with the object of self-improvement, Multai Vidya Vardhini Sabha was organised in May, 1879. It received patronage of 19 members. Again at Badnur, Badnur Native Library and Badnur Reading Club were formed in January and June of 1881, respectively. Study and discussion of law was the object of the former and it was joined by 39 members, subscribing Rs. 202. A reference to Mac' George Prukusbak(?)¹ Sabha Badnur is datable to the year 1882-83. Its aim was to develop the art of writing and reading and to teach music. The institution received a donation of Rs. 48. December, 1882, witnessed the formation of Vachan Samaj at Multai, which was joined by 35 members. Native General Library, receiving subscription of Rs. 182 from 55 members, was started at Badnur in July, 1884. In the next month of the same year at the same place, Badnur Reading Club was organised. The Club received endowment of Rs. 66 and subscription of Rs. 70 from 48 members. In February, 1885, Betul Reading Club, with the strength of 50 members subscribing Rs. 87, was again established at Betul. References to a few of these organisations are available till the year 1889-90.

In the year 1887-88, Chicholi Reading Club (July, 1886) and Sindkhara Reading Club (April, 1887) were formed. At Multai, Multai Reading Club and at Betul Pupils' Reading Club in Anglo-vernacular School, were started from July, 1888 and January, 1889, respectively. In subsequent years, no references to these organisations are available. Secondly, the above account gives an idea as to the short life enjoyed by most of the societies, established in those early years.

A brief account of some of the important voluntary social service organisations, now working in the District, is given below

Arya Samaj, Betul

Of the existing voluntary social service organisations, this is probably the oldest organisation. A branch of Arya Samaj was established at Betul in the year 1928, for the social, cultural and economic welfare of the people. But no activities are conducted by the Samaj for want of funds and small number of members. The Samaj has constructed its own building with the help of donation received from a retired primary school teacher.

Harijan Sewak Sangh, Betul

This Sangh was organised in 1935, with the aim and object of all round welfare of the Harijans of the District. It is affiliated to the Harijan Sewak Sangh, Delhi. Since its inception the Sangh carried on a propaganda against the observance of untouchability, and in favour of prohibition. It also inspired Harijan boys and girls to take to learning and cultivate healthy habits. The number of members of the Sangh is 20.

1. This name appears in the Central Provinces Administration Report 1882-83, Appendix. Scientific and Literary Societies. Probably the name is Mac' George Prakashak Sabha.

1. The Central Provinces Administration Reports, 1875-76 to 1890-91.

Harijan Chhatra Jyoti Mandal, Betul Bazar

With the object of conducting activities for the welfare of Harijans, this Mandal was organised in August, 1960. The Mandal is recognised by the Directorate of Panchayat and Social Welfare for allotting annual grant-in-aid. The Mandal has started a small library for the benefit of Harijans. It also organised a drama and music squad. The squad presents cultural programmes in urban as well as rural areas of the District. The workers of the Mandal provide facilities of games to the students. The Mandal also helps Harijan students in getting scholarships, lending them books, organising extra-night classes and establishing *akhadas* for them. The members of the society help in smooth running of Charkar Co-operative Society and Banskar Co-operative Society. The Mandal also tries for the economic welfare of Harijans by securing *takavi* loans for Harijan cultivators and fighting for the just and legitimate demands of the sweepers of the town. It has started Hanuman Vyayam Shala, which is attended daily by about 100 persons. By the efforts of the Mandal, a Harijan Mahila Samaj has been organised in 1964-65, for the welfare of women. During the years 1961-62 to 1965-66 the Mandal received Rs. 752 as grant-in-aid from Panchayat and Social Welfare Department and Betul Municipal Council. Other sources of income of the Mandal include annual subscription from members and donations. It organises, festivals such as Ganesh Utsava, Durga Puja Utsava and Dashahara Utsava. The Mandal has purchased a building and musical instruments. Average income and expenditure of the Mandal range from Rs. 300 to 500.

Bharat Sewak Samaj, Multai

The Samaj was organised in the District at two places. The main office is at Multai, while at Betul there is a branch-office. The Samaj works under the guidance of the Bharat Sewak Samaj of the State and receives grant for its activities. The main object of the Samaj is to conduct welfare activities for the all round uplift of the people of this District. The Samaj from time to time, organises camps to inspire students, young people, teachers, women, agriculturists and others to participate in the social welfare activities. Thus during the years 1962 to 1966 (May end), the Samaj at Multai organised seven youth and students camps, three *Adiwasi* camps, two women camps, four teachers camps, four agriculturists camps and 14 family planning camps. The Samaj also organised series of lectures, presented cultural programmes and carried on propaganda in favour of prohibition. People of eight villages of Multai Tahsil signed on oath not to drink liquor.

Betul branch of the Samaj, during the same period, with the financial aid of Government and contribution of the villagers, built school buildings in three villages. Swadhyaya Mandals were established at seven places of the District. In village Baghoda a *Balak-mandir* has been started. With the efforts of women workers of the Samaj, 15 Mahila Mandals are organised in the District for the welfare of women-folk. The Samaj, in 1962-63, collected cash and gold for the National Security Fund.

Mahila Samaj, Kothi Bazar, Betul

The Samaj, established in 1957, was registered in November, 1960. Its aims and objects include all activities meant for the welfare of women and children. In the beginning it started organising national day celebrations and cultural and literary programmes. The Samaj also established a *Bal-mandir* and adult school for women. The members of the Samaj try to popularise the methods of family planning. In Betul Development Block, with the help of Government, the Samaj started sewing class, advantage of which was taken by 30 women in 1961-62. The Samaj also conducted five Ambar Charkha schools under the guidance of Khadi Bhandar and Gramodyog Sangh. Some 90 women took advantage of it. The Samaj received grant-in-aid from Panchayat and Social Welfare Department for conducting eight social welfare centres in the rural areas.

During the years 1962-63 and 1963-64, these centres were run as *Bal-mandir* welfare centres in which efforts were made to train rural women folk in matters of health and hygiene. A condensed course school for women was run by the workers of the Samaj in the years 1963-64 and 1964-65. Twenty women were benefited by this activity. Singing and sewing classes are also managed by the Samaj. Subsequently, it was running a *Balmandir* at Betul.

For all these activities, the institution received grants-in-aid to the tune of about Rs. 41,500 from Madhya Pradesh State Social Welfare Advisory Board, Central Social Welfare Board and Directorate of Panchayat and Social Welfare, during the years 1962-63 to 1965-66. Donations of the value of about Rs. 21,000 were received from the public. The total expenditure in the same period was Rs. 55,450.

Vanita Samaj, Betul

This Samaj, interested in the work of welfare of women and children, was established in 1942. The social welfare institution was registered and recognised by the Panchayat and Social Welfare Department from which it receives annual grant-in-aid. The number of members of the institution is 80 and annually about 100 women and children are benefited by the activities of the Samaj.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

Amla (78° 05' N; 21° 55' E; MSL 732 m.)

This town of Multai tahsil lies to the north-west of the tahsil headquarters at a distance of about 23 kilometres by rail. It is a railway junction station on the Itarsi-Nagpur line of Central Railway and from here a railway line branches off and links the town with Parasia. It is also connected by road and rail with Betul, the District headquarters town. Regular buses ply on the Betul-Amla road. By rail it is 23 kilometres to the east of Betul.

The town contains a few old tombs which are attributed to the Gonds. Formerly, the brass-working industry of the town had earned a name, but since long this industry has declined. A training class in sheet-metal work has been started here by the Community Development office, Amla. Two small local fairs are held on Ramanavami day and on the second day of Holi, respectively.

The educational institutions of the place include primary, middle and higher secondary schools. It is an important retail marketing centre, where a large weekly market is held on every Saturday.

The town has a primary health centre, rural family planning centre, veterinary hospital, cattle breeding extension unit, piggery unit, public reading-room, sub-post-office, telegraph office, police station, *gram* and *nyaya panchayats*, two cinema houses and an air-staff colony. The town is electrified and electricity is available for industrial and domestic purposes.

The Amla Railway and Air Staff Colony covers an area of 1,423.23 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 12,259 persons. In 1901 the village Amla had a population of 1,400 persons. The town is non-municipal urban area.

Asirgarh (78° 05' N; 22° 15' E; MSL 686 m.)

This old fort in ruins is in Betul tahsil. It is situated nearly 64 kilometres north-east of Betul and about 24 kilometres east of Shahpur, an important large village of Betul tahsil. It is in Reserved Forest area, called after the fort of Asir. The fort can be reached by Bhaura-Rampur forest road. It is at a distance of nearly six kilometres from the forest village, Rampur.

Only an entrance gate can be seen as the walls have collapsed. There is also a cannon in good condition.

Athnair (78° 05' N; 21° 35' E; MSL 671 m.)

An important large village of Bhainsdehi tahsil, Athnair lies to the south-east of the tahsil headquarters at a distance of about 35 kilometres by road. It is also connected by roads with Betul (35 kilometres) and Multai (48 kilometres), the two other tahsil headquarters of the District.

The village appears to be an old one. Outside the village, there are two springs, locally called Tapti-jhiras. It is the popular belief, that the river Tapti, flowing at a distance of nearly 13 kilometres from here, appeared here in the form of these *jhiras* or springs to enable a sage, residing at Athnair, to have his daily bath in the water of that river. One of the *jhiras* is in a neglected condition, while the other one, quite adjacent to the former, is maintained in good condition by repairs. It has masonry steps on all sides. Just near these *jhiras* there are remains of some old temple. Carved images of deities there are worshipped.

Formerly, Athnair was a *pargana* headquarters and till 1855, it was also the official headquarters of a Naib-Tahsildar.

It is the headquarters of a Community Development Block of the same name. For some time, a training centre for basket making, etc., functioned here. The village has schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education of boys and girls, a sub-post-office, telegraph office, allopathic dispensary, maternity and childwelfare centre, veterinary hospital, police station, public library, public reading-room, multi-purpose co-operative society, *gram* and *nyaya panchayats* and a rest-house. Electricity is available for domestic and agricultural purposes.

The village is one of the most important retail marketing centres of the tahsil and a weekly market is held here on every Thursday. In the month of Phalgun a large bazar known as Phalgun Bazar, lasting for two days, is held at the village. It attracts about 4,000 visitors.

The area covered by the village is 1,925.53 hectares according to the Census of 1961, it is populated by 4,013 persons, as against 2,600 in 1901.

Betul Bazar (77° 56' N; 21° 52' E; MSL 650 m.)

This town of Betul Tahsil is situated at a distance of about 5 kilometres to the south-east of the Betul town, the headquarters of the District. A feeder road connects this town with the road to Multai. The Sampna river flows close to the town. In fact, the District received its name from this town, which was until 1822, the District headquarters and the headquarters of a *pargana* containing 390 villages. But in subsequent period, the importance of the town was overshadowed by the

neighbouring town of Badnur, which became the District headquarters and later on came to be known as Betul (Kothi Bazar) town.

The town contains an old fort. Formerly, ornamental cups and dishes, made locally, were held in some estimation by the local people. The town continues to be an important retail marketing centre, where a weekly market is held on Tuesday.

The town has schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education of boys and girls, allopathic dispensary, family planning centre, maternity home, police-station, sub post-office, telegraph office, etc. Civic administration of the town is looked after by the municipality. Electricity is available for domestic, agricultural and industrial purposes.

The town covers an area of 199.11 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 6,736, as against 4,739 in 1901.

Betul town (77° 54' N; 21° 55'; MSL 655 m.)

The headquarters town of Betul Tahsil and the District of the same name, it is situated on the small river Machna. The place is linked by rail with Multai, Itarsi and Nagpur, all being railway-stations on the Itarsi-Nagpur section of the Central Railway. By road it is connected with Bhainsdehi, Paratwada, Amla, Chicholi, Itarsi, Pandhurna, Nagpur within and without the State. On all the roads regular buses ply daily. By rail it is 199 kilometres to the south-east of Bhopal, the State capital.

The town was formerly called Badnur. From 1822 onwards, it has been the headquarters of the District. It is now known as Betul (Kothi Bazar) town. The town appears to be an old one. An old tank, having flights of masonry steps exists here besides two other tanks. Its water is used for washing clothes.

It is the principal trading town and as such it is now considerably increasing its importance. In Betul Kothi Bazar area bi-weekly markets are held on Sundays and Thursdays, while in Ganj area on Wednesdays.

The town has the usual district and tahsil headquarters offices, and district offices of other departments such as, Education, Excise, Public Works, Sales Tax, Panchayat and Social Welfare, Industry, Forest, etc. Educational institutions of the town include schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education for boys and girls, a degree college and an institute for technical training. Betul contains three libraries, a beautiful public garden, sub-post offices, head post-office, telegraph office, a public call-office, hospital, family planning centre, sanatorium, maternity home, municipal *ayurvedic* dispensary, veterinary hospital, poultry unit, semen production centre, District police headquarters, jail, municipal and private *dharmashalas*, rest-house, circuit house and two cinema houses.

This municipal town is electrified and electricity is available for domestic, agricultural and industrial purposes. Drinking water is obtained from wells. Tongas and rickshaws are available for passengers and a number of hotels and restaurants are there to provide them with meals and sweet-meat.

The town covers an area of 863.02 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 19,860 as against 5,566 in 1901.

Bhainsdehi (77° 40' N; 21° 40' E; MSL 762 m.)

The large village, situated to the south-west of Betul town and near the river Purna, is the headquarters of the Tahsil and Community Development Block of the same name. A feeder road of the length of nearly 10 kilometres links this important village with the road connecting Betul with the town of Paratwada in Maharashtra State. It is a little above 60 kilometres from Betul, the District headquarters town. Regular buses ply on the road. The village is also connected by road with Athnair and Multai.

The locality appears to be old, as it contains in its north-east corner an old temple built of finely carved stones. It is in a dilapidated condition. The temple was built on a high masonry plinth. The spire over the temple and the roof over the *mandapa* having three entrances had long ago collapsed. Only the beautifully carved pillars of the *mandapa* are standing. A spire built in cement has recently been constructed. Numerous carved stones of the building are arranged as boundary walls on two sides of the temple. An inscribed stone is also lying there. The original *lingam* was long ago replaced by a newly-installed one. It is said that some of the carved stones have been carried away by the people from neighbouring localities. Carvings on many of the stones are wonderfully clear. Once upon a time, the temple must have been a grand building of imposing height. A considerable portion of masonry was displaced by a *pipal* tree growing at the rear of the temple. It seems, that some additions to the original building were made later on, introducing some obscene features. In front of the temple, just near the steps there is a *kund* or pool, water of which is supposed to be of the Tapti flowing under ground. People take bath in this renovated pool on sacred days. The construction of the temple can be attributed probably to the 15th or 16th century A.D. or even to some earlier date.

The village has also an old fort, said to have been built by Thakur Samman Singh, the ancestor of the Kiledar Rajput family of the place. The fort is partly in ruins.

Formerly glass bangles were made here. The village being a centre of trade in grain is of considerable importance. It is also an important retail marketing centre, where weekly market is held on Saturdays. An annual fair known as Fagun Bazar, lasting for three days and attracting nearly 4,500 persons, is held. To the north-west of the village at a distance of about two kilometres near the

road going to village Bagdara, there is a sacred tank, popularly called "Kashi talao." It is the popular belief that the river Purna secretly takes its origin in this tank. Near the tank remains of some old temple are there and carved images of Hindu deities, apparently all brought from elsewhere, are located under a tree and worshipped. On occasions of festivals, people take bath in the tank.

The village contains schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education of boys and girls, public-library, public reading-room, allopathic dispensary, family planning centre, veterinary hospital, police-station, sub-post-office, telegraph office, and *gram* and a *nyaya panchayat*. Being the Tahsil and Block Development headquarters, it has usual Tahsil Offices besides Block Development Office, Forest Range Office, Soil Conservation Office, and a branch of the Co-operative Bank.

The village covers an area of 1494.37 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 5,769, as against just over 2,700 persons in 1901.

The village Bagdara, 3 kilometres to the north-west of Bhainsdehi, has two seasonal waterfalls of the height of about 25 to 40 metres, jumping from opposite directions. The water flows through the hills of considerable height possessing scenic beauty. The spot is known as Adhura Deva Baba ka Khora among the local population of Bagdara numbering 854 persons as per Census of 1961.

Bhanwargarh (77° 45' N; 22° 15' E; MSL 893.06 m.)

This hill fort of Betul tahsil is situated to the west of Shahpur from where by forest road via Pawarjhandia it is about 16 kilometres away.

The fort is now in ruins. A few observation posts and step-wells in fortified area can still be seen. On the summit of the hill are located some water-holes fed by natural springs. The Gonds and Korkus of the region worship the tutelary deity of the hill under the name Bhanwar.

Bhopali (78° 0' N; 22° 0' E; MSL 457 m.)

This small village of Betul tahsil, lying to the north-east of Betul, the District headquarters, is a little above 14 kilometres from Ghoradongari railway-station on the Itarsi-Nagpur section of the Central Railway and about five kilometres from village Ranipur. A motorable forest road of the length of 32 kilometres links the village with Betul.

In a hill near Bhopali there are three natural caves. In one of these caves is installed an image of Siva, while the other cave contains an image of Parvati. The third one is locally known as *Gowadi* or *Gaikotha* (cow-house). A large fair, attracting about 10,000 to 15,000 persons and lasting for a week, commences near *Gowadi* during Shivaratri days. On the summit of the hill, there are two platforms of stone, from which, it is said, the Chauragarh hill at Pachmarhi can be seen.

The area of the village is 223 hectares, while its population, according to the Census of 1961, is 69.

Birool (78° 10' N; 22° 45' E; MSL 686 m.)

This fairly large village of Multai tahsil is to the south-west of the tahsil headquarters. By road (partly *pucca*), it is about 16 kilometres from Multai.

It is one of the important retail marketing centres of the tahsil in respect of grain and cattle in general and bullocks in particular. A weekly market, held on every Wednesday, is important for the sale and purchase of bullocks. An annual fair, lasting for a week, is held on the 15th bright half of the Chaitra. Handloom cloth is locally manufactured from here. The village is electrified.

The village contains schools for primary and middle education of boys and girls, branch post-office, outlying veterinary dispensary, cattle-breeding extension unit (both common for Birool and Badegaon) and *gram* and *nyaya panchayats*.

The village covers an area of 1013.80 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 2,592 persons. In 1901 the population of the village was about 4,350.

Chicholi (22° 0' N; 78° 45' E; MSL 625 m.)

A fairly large and important village of Betul tahsil and headquarters of the Development Block is situated about 35 kilometres to the north-west of Betul, the tahsil and the District headquarters. It is connected by road with Betul and regular buses ply on the road. The place is also connected by partly *pucca* road with Harda, the important town of Hoshangabad District.

Till 1855, a Naib-Tahsildar was stationed here. It is one of the important retail marketing centres, where a large weekly market is held on Tuesday and grain and forest produce are sold in considerable quantity. There is an old tank.

The village has schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education of boys and girls, public-library, public reading-room, sub-post and telegraph offices, primary health centre, family planning centre, rural health centre, police-station, rest-house, veterinary hospital, cattle breeding extension unit, and *gram* and *nyaya panchayats*. There is Development Block office and a carpentry centre run by it. The village covers an area of 268.80 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 3,205.

Dhanora (78° 00' N; 22° 50' E; MSL 642 m.)

The large village of Dhanora of Bhainsdehi tahsil is situated to the east of the tahsil headquarters, to the south of Betul and to the north-east of Athnair. It can be approached by a *kutchra* road of the length of about 11 kilometres from Athnair, the nearest road being one connecting Athnair with Betul. The village is about 34 kilometres from the District headquarters.

The importance of the village lies in a large annual fair, held on the 15th bright day of Kartik in the bed of the river Tapti flowing at a distance of about two kilometres from here. This fair is attended by about 6,000 people. The fair is known as Parasdoh ka mela. The *doh* or deep pool is formed in the wide bed of the river Tapti. The river flows in this part through a hilly region. The solid rock, occupying the whole bed of river, ends here abruptly in the major width of the bed and the water jumps down below to the depth of about 20 metres. In the northern part of the bed, rock has several curious deep cracks or cuts of small width and the flow of two small streams of water forcefully falls below in the cavity among the rock making great noise. The water-fall has worn the rock below and created a pool, in which the falling water appears to be boiling. The stream in these cracks disappears and reappears from another point. The main stream mostly gets dried up after September-October, while the small streams making other water-falls in the cavity continue to flow till February-March. The whole environment is very pleasant. The valley of the hills, having scenic beauty, re-echoes the sound of the falls. The *doh* or deep pool is called Parasdoh, because of the popular belief, that *paras* (philosopher's stone) lies buried in it. On the day of the fair, people take bath in the river and worship the images of the Tapti, Dattatreya and other deities, located in the temple, built on the southern bank of the river.

The village Dhanora has *gram panchayat*, which manages the fair. There are primary and middle schools, post-office and co-operative credit society.

It covers an area of 1575.60 hectares and as per Census of 1961, it is populated by 1,410 persons.

Dudhia (77°35' N; 22°00' E; MSL 640 m.)

This village of Betul tahsil lies about 39 kilometres to the north-west of Betul, the tahsil and District headquarters and about six kilometres to the west of Chicholi, from where a partly *pucca* road starts for the place.

The village has some importance, as near the village, on a small hillock, remains of images and ruined building, possibly a small fort, are noticed. Quite adjacent to this hillock, in the area of village Godhna, are situated two temples built on high masonry plinths. The temples are constructed with bricks mortar and stand in complete form. In style, they resemble buildings erected by the Gond elsewhere in the region. None of the temples contain any idol and they are deserted. Stone images of men, horses and men on horseback, formerly¹ existed at these two places, are not now traceable in these localities.

The village Dudhia has primary school and *gram panchayat*. The area of the village is 990.03 hectares, while that of Godhana is 992.40 hectares. According

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 244.

to the Census of 1961, these villages have a population of 996 and 701 persons, respectively.

Kajali (78°10' N; 22°07' E; MSL 732 m.)

A small village, lying about seven kilometres to the east of Amla, in Multai tahsil is connected with the latter place by a partly metalled and partly *kutcha* road. The river Bel flows near the village.

The village and its surrounding area, including that of adjacent village of Kanojia, contain remains of several old temples both of Hindus and Jains, built in stones near the tanks, now in complete ruins. Innumerable stones of these are also freely utilized by the cultivators in their fields to construct water channels for irrigating crop. The traces of these temples make the visitor think that most probably, once the locality was looked upon as a place of considerable religious importance. The carved images of deities are at several places arranged to offer worship. Jain statues of good workmanship, some of which were long ago taken to Nagpur Central Museum, were found on the Bel river. A beautifully carved long stone slab bears Jain images in a sitting posture with carved elephants on their either side. It is among the collections of Hindu deities, now arranged in the premises of a primary school building at Kanojia.

Peculiar stories are locally told about two masons, Nangar and Bhongar, who were associated with making stone idols in an enclosure, surrounded by walls, in a state of nudity. "They had ordered their sisters to give them warning, when they came to bring food. But one day, the sisters entered the enclosure, without giving warning and saw their brothers naked, on which they were all immediately changed into stone images." Old people of the locality believe that the two masons were divine beings.

The story probably originated to account for the naked figures, which are in reality of the Jain *Tirthankaras*.

There is another large village called Lalawadi at a distance of about two kilometres to the south of village Kajali.

The village area contains a *mandha* of Barah Beri, built in stones. It is supported by four pillars and has a dimension of 3.05 × 2.44 metres. Its construction is attributed to Nangar and Bhongar, who are said to have resided there.

Kanojia and Lalawadi house primary schools and *gram panchayat*. Kajali, Kanojia and Lalawadi, respectively, have an area of about 295,355 and 763 hectares, while according to the Census of 1961, the villages are inhabited by 249,792 and 1,188 persons, respectively.

1. Ibid., p. 245.

Kherla (77°45' N; 22°05' E; MSL 655 m.)

This hill fort of the mediaeval fame stands in the village of the same name in the tahsil of Betul. It is nearly seven kilometres north-east of the tahsil headquarters, with which it is connected by a forest road. The hill and its fort dominate the fertile valleys of the rivers Machna and Sampna.

Nothing precisely is known about the foundation of the fort and the dynasty that must have ruled the region at the time of construction of the fort. However, it is held that "the Kherla fort cannot be older than A.D. 1363 and there is evidence to show that it can not be later than 1398 A.D. because that was the year in which Narsimha Rai, king of Kherla, opened hostilities with the Bahamani kings of Berar¹.....". The fort was taken by the Bahamani army in A. D. 1400, according to Firishta.

The Fort is in ruins, only portions of its front and side walls attract the eyes of the visitors.

On all sides of the hill, around which the fort was built there is a space sufficient to accommodate a large garrison. At the foot of the hill there is a tank covering an area of about 2.50 hectares. This open space including the tank is enclosed by an inner wall width of which is nearly two metres. For a considerable height, the wall is built of massive stones, some of which apparently belonged to some older buildings, like temples in the locality. The present position of many carved or designed stones in the outer face of this wall clearly shows that they are taken out from the ruined structures. Thus, on the eastern wall of the fort, an inscribed stone, which apparently belonged to a step-well, is fixed. The seventh line of it mentions that "the illustrious Haradeva constructed a *vapi* (step-well) to the north of Khetakapura, which is apparently the old name of Kherla".² The inscription is of Samvat 1420 and Shaka 1285 corresponding to A.D. 1363. It contains a sort of genealogy of local kings but the record being in a much mutilated condition can yield no reliable data. This inner wall has some gates which are now in ruins.

The outer wall of the fort is also in a ruinous condition and appears to be older than the inner wall.

The fort contains a *Samadhi*, popularly believed to be of Mukund Raj Swami, author of the first Marathi book *Vivek Sindhu*³, dealing with *Advaitvad* as expounded by the great Shankaracharya. The *Samadhi* is enclosed within the temple, in which a *Siva linga* has been installed.

1. Hiralal, Inscriptions in the Central Provinces and Berar, p. 90.

2. Ibid.

3. Internal evidence from *Vivek Sindhu* proves that, Mukund Raj wrote this voluminous work for King Jayantpal, son of King Ballal Nrisimha. The latter is identified with
(Contd.)

Besides, some ruins of Muhammadan origin are also noticed. Possibly the fort has been rebuilt after the several sieges, which it under-went. It witnessed several struggles between the Sultans of Malwa and the Bahamanis of Berar, till it was annexed by the Mughals.

In the 17th and 18th centuries Kherla was the headquarters of *sarkar* under the *subah* of Berar, and was governed by the Gond kings of Deogarh under sovereign Mughal kings. On the road below the fort, there are two stone pillars on which distances of certain places are marked and these are signed by Burhan Shah, the last Gond ruler of Deogarh, who succeeded Wali Shah in 1738 A.D. After the annexation of this region by the Bhonslas of Nagpur, headquarters of the District was shifted to Betul. The fort was destroyed. Cut stones from the fort were removed by the people in the neighbourhood for constructing their own houses.

The fort is now a protected monument. The land enclosed by the inner wall has been now brought under cultivation and it is granted by the State Government to the families of soldiers.

On the occasion of Shivaratri, an annual fair, attended by about 2,000 people, is held in the fort in honour of Shiva.

The village Kherla has an area of 685.50 hectares. According to the Census of 1961, its population is 191 persons. In another hamlet of the village is situated a tank, called Rewanwadi, covering an area of nearly 9 hectares.

In the adjoining village of Somaripet there is an inscription in Hindi and Persian. The record states that Hazrat Nizam Shah (perhaps a local Governor) became *shahid* and the memorial was set up by an Imperial order.¹

In another adjoining village named Umari there is a tomb of a Muhammadan general, probably the Nizam-ul-mulk, who commanded the fort under the

Bhillam I (A. D. 1187 to 1191 A. D.), the Yadava King of Devagiri, while the former with king Jaitugi or Jaitrapal I (A. D. 1191 to 1210 A. D.), the son of Bhilam. The poet composed the book while he was at Ambanagari on the bank of the river Vain-ganga. This Ambanagari is the modern village of Ambhora of Nagpur District, where a tomb of Harinath Swami, teacher of Mukund Raj's teacher Raghunath is situated. When Mukund Raj composed *Vivek Sindhu*, king Sharangdhara (probably a local king) was governing the region.

[1. *Vivek Sindhu*, Purvardha, Adhyaya 7, verse 155, Uttarardha, Adhyaya 11, verse 38; 2. K. P. Kulkarni, *Marathi Bhasha : Udgama Va Vikas*, pp. 213-14. 3. G. B. Nirantar, *Marathi Vangmaycha Paravarsha*, pp. 15-17; 4. Madhya Prant Samshodhan Mandal, *Nivadak Nibandha*, Bhaga Pahila, pp. 78-80; 5. V. A. Kulkarni, *Marathi Kavya Samshodhan*, pp. 39-40.]

1. Hiralal, op., cit., p. 90.

Bahamani King, and was slain at Kherla, Popularly it is supposed to be the *dargah* of Rahman Shah Dulah. It is an object of pilgrimage and two villages are granted revenue free for the support of the tomb.

Malajpur (77° 45' N; 22° 00' E; MSL 617 m.)

Situated about 45 kilometres to the north-west of Betul and about eight kilometres to the north-east of Chicholi, this important village of Betul tahsil is connected with the latter place by a road, which is partly *pucca* and partly *kutchha*.

The main attraction of the village lies in a sacred shrine containing two foot-prints of saint Deoji, of much local celebrity, in whose honour a large fair is annually held here.

Saint Deoji of the Banjara caste is said to have originally belonged to Rajasthan. Various miracles are attributed to this saint. It is said that, even when he was child, he possessed the power of turning a heap of pebbles and stones into sweetmeats for his playfellows after covering the heap under a cloth. He is said to have flourished in the 19th century. He migrated to this part of the country when Pindaris made Deoji work as a common labourer. It is further added that the loads of earth, which he carried, travelled along in the air by themselves. Again, it is said that, Deoji and his sister had themselves buried alive and their tombs were raised. The management of these shrines is traditionally entrusted to the hereditary *mahant* or priest. When a *mahant* dies, his body is buried in salt for six months, at the end of which period, the tomb is opened, the body is taken out and the hair and nails are cut, after which final burial of the body is effected. There are a few other such tombs near the shrine of Deoji.

In Deoji's honour a largely attended fair lasting for 21 days from the 15th bright day of Pausha to 5th bright day of Magha (Vasant Panchami) is annually held. People from distant places, numbering in thousands, attend the fair and offer worship by presenting large quantity of *gur*, which is stored in a building and distributed through out the year as *prasad* or blessings to the pilgrims, visiting the tomb, to get their desires fulfilled. Neither do the ants nor-flies touch the *gur*, so collected at the place. A part of the first floor of this building is adorned with a wooden seat covered by a carpet. This seat represents Deoji. The buildings attached to the tombs are not in any way impressive and mostly they are incomplete. In the fair, brisk business is carried out in household utensils, cloth, cattle, etc.

The village contains a large masonry well with a broad parapet at the top and a staircase leading down into it. The well is said to have been built by a dancing-girl out of her income of one night, secured by attending 999 marriage processions. Besides, the village has also a large tank constructed in the famine of 1900.

The village has a primary school, *gram panchayat* and adivasi multipurpose co-operative society. A weekly market is held on every Friday.

It covers an area of about 1,327 hectares and has a population of 833 persons as per Census of 1961, as against nearly 800 in 1901.

Muktagiri (77° 35' N; 21° 25' E; MSL 610 m.)

It is a hamlet of village Thapoda of Bhainsdehi tahsil, lying to the south of the tahsil headquarters at a distance of about 50 kilometres. It is to the south-west of Betul, bordering on Achalpur tahsil of Amrawati District of Maharashtra. A feeder road of the length of nearly seven kilometres links the village with Betul-Paratwada road at village Kharpi of Achalpur tahsil. For travellers and pilgrims taxis or buses are available at Paratwada.

The importance of the place lies in the collection of temples constructed there by the Digambar Jains from time to time. Most of the temples are of modern Jain architecture but "they form, however, picturesque group perched on pre-cipitous ledges of rock at the end of a secluded and wild ravine, where a pretty waterfall comes tumbling down to the valley from the highlands above."

Of the 52 temples containing above hundred images of various Jain *Tirthankaras*, two are quite ancient. One of them is a cave temple. Its approximate length, breadth and height in metres are 5.5 and 2.50, respectively. It is supported by four pillars carved out in the rock. The second cave has been renovated and it contains three to four small temples. One of them contains three ancient images of *Tirthankaras* of the height of about two metres. In one of the modern temples, a huge image of Bahubali or Gommateshwara has been installed. On the top there are pairs of foot-prints of Jain *Tirthankaras* enshrined. Flights of steps have been built to reach all the temples. There is also a temple at the foot of the hill. Some of the images are specimen of best workmanship.

The place is regarded as one of the most sacred places by the Digambar Jains and it is referred to in an old Jain Prakrit work as one of the *Nirvankshetras*. The passage runs as follows:—"Bow to three and half crores of saints, who obtained salvation from the crest of Mendhagiri, situated to the north-east of the good city of Achalpur."¹

Many of these statues here bear inscriptions, below their pedestal, giving dates ranging between the 13th to 20th century A.D. Inscriptions on some of the images said to be of earlier dates became illegible.

Near the temple, at the foot of the hill, there is a large *dharmahsala*, containing about 100 rooms to accommodate the pilgrims and travellers visiting this picturesque site through out the open season. Two drinking water wells are sunk

1. Achchalpur-war Nayare isan bhayammi Mendhagiri sihare |
Audhdhaykodi muni nivvan gaya namo tesim ||
Nivvui kandan, Gatha,

446

BETUL

at both the ends of the *Dharmashala*. An annual fair, largely attended by the Digambar Jains, is held on the 15th bright day of the Kartik. The management of the temples and fair rests with the Committee formed of the Digambar Jains.

The village Thapoda is mostly populated by the tribals, who in addition to cultivation and forestry, extract oil by indigenous method from Rusa grass grown abundantly in this region. The village has a primary school.

It covers an area of 401.51 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 511 persons.

Multai (78° 15' N; 21° 45' E; MSL 749 m.)

This headquarters town of the tahsil of the same name is situated nearly 48 kilometres south-east of Betul, the District headquarters town. It is connected by roads with Betul, Chhindwara, Nagpur and Amrawati within and without the State of Madhya Pradesh. Regular buses ply on all these roads.

The town contains an old large tank surrounded by stone flights of steps and some old temples. This tank has been popularly supposed to be the origin of river Tapti, which, in fact, rises nearly 3 kilometres away. On account of this popular belief the place was originally called Multapi, 'the source of the Tapti'. The present name Multai is apparently a corruption of Multapi. One of the temples, on the bank of the tank, contains illegible inscriptions. Some *gossains* of the town were in possession of three copper plate grants given by the king Nannaraja of the Rashtrakutas of Achalpur, who flourished in early years of the eighth century, A. D.

As the tank is popularly supposed to be the origin of the river Tapti, it is held sacred and in its honour an annual Tapti fair is held in November and lasts for 15 days. It is attended by 10,000 to 15,000 persons.

The town is in a flourishing condition in all respects. It is an important trade centre. Bi-weekly markets, which are largely attended by people from surrounding region, are held on every Sunday and Thursday. This municipal town is electrified and electricity is available for agricultural, domestic and industrial purposes.

It is the headquarters town of the Community Development Block and Janapad Sabha. Besides usual tahsil offices, there is an office of the Forest Ranger. A training centre in sheet metal is run here by the Government. There are also a *Panchayat* training centre, public library, public reading-room and co-operative society.

The educational institutions of the town include schools for primary, middle and higher secondary education of boys and girls. The town has primary health centre, family planning centre, veterinary hospital, artificial insemination centre,

public call and telegraph offices, sub-post-office, police-station and a cinema house, etc.

The town covers an area of 260.05 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 8,232, as against 3,339 persons in 1901.

Pattan (78° 15' N; 21° 25' E; MSL 680 m.)

Is one of the most important large villages of Multai tahsil. It is nearly 64 kilometres south-east of Betul, headquarters of the District and 16 kilometres south of Multai, on the Betul-Amrawati road passing through Multai. Regular buses ply on the road.

The village is also known by its another name, Prabhat Pattan and has an old tank. It has yielded a historically important copper plate and perforated onyx stones called Sulaiman's bead. It contains a number of Muhammadan ruins. The tomb of a Muhammadan *Fakir*, called Sulaiman Shah, who resided here, is an object of worship. Tradition speaks of his long residence at the village, where he was supported by the labour of a man and a woman, who devoted themselves to him.

The Fakir knew nothing of this. He was under the impression that public charity helped his maintenance. But subsequently, he discovered that, he was supported by the labour of the said couple, who used to bring headloads of fuel for sale. Finding lack of charity among other residents of the village, the saint became furiously angry and he not only turned down the village but also buried in the ground. It is said that whenever excavations are carried out in the village, remains are dug out of the earth upside down. Another tradition, no doubt originated in the long residence of Muhammadan saints at the place, speaks that the village is fatal to pigs, and therefore nobody dares to keep or bring them within the village limits.

The village is the headquarters of a Community Development Block and one of the most important retail marketing centres, where a large weekly market is held on every Saturday. The educational institutions of the place include primary, middle and higher secondary schools and basic training institute for teachers. The village has primary health centre, family planning centre, veterinary hospital, artificial insemination unit, poultry unit, sub-post and telegraph offices, police station, co-operative society, public reading-room and library, and *Gram* and *nayaya panchayats*.

The village covers an area of 1,366.01 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 3,778 persons as against 1,500 in 1901.

Salbardi (78° 22' N; 21° 22' E; MSL 389 m.)

In the south-east corner of Multai tahsil, just near the border of Morsi tahsil of Amrawati District of the Maharashtra State, is situated the tiny village

of Salbardi, on the bank of the river Maru. It is located in forest area and is linked by *kutch* roads with village Masod of Multai tahsil and Morsi town of Amrawati District. Masod and Multai are to the north-east of the village and both these latter places are linked by a motorable road. The distance of Masod and Morsi from Salbardi by road is nearly 29 and 10 kilometres, respectively. Regular buses upto Masod and Morsi from Multai are available.

By the village stands a hill, on which an idol of Siva or Mahadeva is installed in a cave. It is a popular belief, that from this cave an underground passage reaches the Mahadeva's hill at Pachmarhi. It is further said, that Mahadeva at Pachmarhi put two thousand goats into this passage and only one came out at Salbardi. It is said also, that a hole in the hill leads down to the cave and that this hole was made by Bhimsen, so that he might see Mahadeo better.¹ There are water springs here. Another temple on the hill contains a headless image of Devi. A pool of reddish-coloured water is located in front of the temple. It is supposed that, when the Devi was beheaded, her blood fell in the water giving the latter a reddish colour.

An annual religious fair, attended by about 8,000 to 10,000 people from the District and Vidarbha region and lasting for ten days, commences on the 13th dark day of Phalgun.

The village has an area of 297.52 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 194, as against about 300 in 1901.

Saoligarh (77°30' N; 22°13' E; MSL 680.31 m.)

It is a hill-fort in the forest village Kursana of Betul tahsil, situated on the Chicholi-Harda road, 80 kilometres to the north-west of Betul and 26 kilometres north of village Chirapatla. Regular buses are available from Betul upto Chicholi.

The fort is in a ruined condition. Seven water-holes cut in the basalt rock on the hill are fed by natural springs.

The village has an area of 174 hectares and a population of 203 persons, according to the Census of 1961.

Sarni

Situated near the Tawa river, to the north-east of Betul, its tahsil and District headquarters town, the village of Sarni, is about 27 kilometres from Ghoradongri, a railway-station on Itarsi Nagpur line of the Central Railway, with which it is connected by a recently constructed road.

Till recently an insignificant forest village, covering an area of 233 hectares and inhabited by 118 persons, Sarni can now boast of its bright future prospects.

1. Betul District Gazetteer, p. 257.

It received unique honour of being selected as a site for establishing the Satpura Thermal Plant. This Thermal Station is situated in the middle of practically inexhaustible 120 kilometres long coal belt, extending from Parasia in Chhindwara District in the east to Shahpur and beyond in Betul District in the north-west. The Satpura coal basin provides the Station with fuel.

The site has an independent but small lake to serve as a cooling water reservoir for the power station. The cooling lake adjoins the Pathakheda coal fields and the power station is located between the boundary of the two so that the requisite coal and water are both available on the spot. The 1,071.71 hectares lake with about 1,201 million cubic metres capacity has the capacity of supporting a power station of 1,000 M.W. There is another storage site on the river Tawa, upstream of this lake, on which a dam is constructed. This newly developed cooling reservoir would supplement the lake storage for supporting the power station and will irrigate thousands of hectares of land, mainly distributed among the displaced persons from East Pakistan.

The power generated here would be supplied to Rajasthan and a few districts including Betul of Madhya Pradesh. Thus Sarni having Satpura Thermal Station, one of the biggest in India and the biggest in the State of Madhya Pradesh, would help in ushering in an era of industrial and agricultural development of the power-hungry State of Madhya Pradesh in general and the backward Betul District in particular.

A new beautiful but tiny factory township is now springing up with residential quarters for the staff, a rest house, post and telegraph offices, dispensary, schools, etc., in this region, bestowed with scenic beauty.

Shahpur (77°55' N; 22°05' E; MSL 401 m.)

Standing on the river Machana, this important large village of Betul tahsil is situated, nearly 34 kilometres north of the tahsil and District headquarters, on the road, connecting Betul with Itarsi. Regular buses ply on the road. Barbatpur, a railway-station on the Itarsi Nagpur line of the Central Railway is about two kilometres from the village.

It is said to have been founded about 210 years ago. Being situated on an important trade route, this village has developed a flourishing trade and as such it is an important retail marketing centre, where a large weekly market is held on every Wednesday.

An important large fair, known as *Guru Saheb ka Mela*, attracting about 10,000 persons and lasting for five days from the 15th bright day of Pausa, is held here. In a neighbouring village of Motidhana a training centre in brass ware is being conducted by American Christian Mission and the centre produces artistic brass articles.

The importance of the village has been considerably increased in recent years as it has been made the headquarters for implementation of Refugee Rehabilitation Project, financed by the Central Government. During the years 1964 to 1966, about 1,600 refugee families comprising about 68,000 persons, migrating from East Pakistan, have arrived at Shahpur and they are sheltered in various relief camps and rehabilitation centres in the surrounding locality. As the scheme goes, these refugees will be settled in 32 newly set up villages, each containing 80 to 100 families. Each of these families will be given 52.02 hectares of cultivable land and 0.20 hectares of land for homestead. All these village will be set up in a zone within the radius of about 13 kilometres from Shahpur.

The village is electrified and has primary, middle and higher secondary schools, public-library, primary health centre, rural health centre, veterinary hospital, cattle-breeding extension unit, post, telegraph and public call offices, police-station, co-operative society, rest-house, and *gram* and *nyaya panchayats*. The village occupies an area of 105.85 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, it is populated by 2,236 persons. Its population was more than 1,500 in 1901.

Shergarh (78°17' N; 21°43' E;)

This old fort is in village Borgaon (Shergarh) of Multai tahsil about 15 kilometres to the south-east of the tahsil headquarters by road. The village, because of its fort, is called Borgaon (Shergarh) and can be approached from village Narkhed on Multai-Amrawati road on which regular buses ply. It is nearly seven kilometres to the north-east of Narkhed by *kutchha* road. It is on the Wardha river.

The fort is in a dilapidated condition, two fine gateways of which are in ruins together with the mosque and an *idgah*. The construction of these buildings is attributed to Sherkhan, one of Aurangzeb's generals, who is said to have celebrated his victory over the Marathas by these constructions. People in surrounding region reach there for picnic.

The village has primary school and *gram panchayat*. Its area is 1,936.81 hectares and according to the Census of 1961, its population is 843.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX—A
(Statistical Tables)

	Page
I. Normals & Extremes of Rainfall.	455
II. Frequency of Annual Rainfall.	456
III. Normals of Temperature & Relative Humidity.	456
IV. Mean Wind Speed.	457
V. Special Weather Phenomena.	457
VI. Average Annual Rainfall & Rainy Days.	458
VII. Mortality Caused by Reptiles & Wild Animals.	459
VIII. No. of Wild Animals Recorded in North Betul Forest Division.	459
IX. Total Area & Classification of Area.	460
X. Total Area & Classification of Area—Tahsilwise.	462
XI. Area Irrigated by Sources.	463
XII. Area Irrigated by Sources—Tahsilwise.	463
XIII. Irrigation Projects.	464
XIV. Area Under Principal Crops.	467
XV. Area Under Principal Crops—Tahsilwise.	469
XVI. Production of Principal Crops.	469
XVII. Agricultural Machinery & Implements.	471
XVIII. Number of Livestock.	472
XIX. Number of Poultry.	473
XX. Forest Revenue & Expenditure.	473
XXI. Volume & Value for Forest Produce.	475
XXII. Loans Granted from State Funds—Ordinary Taccavi.	476
XXIII. Loans Sanctioned Under Agriculturists' Loans Act.	476
XXIV. Loans Sanctioned Under Land Improvement Loans Act.	477
XXV. Subsidies & Remissions.	477
XXVI. Surfacewise Length of Roads.	478
XXVII. Income & Expenditure of Janapada Sabhas.	478
XXVIII. Income & Expenditure of Municipalities.	479
XXIX. Consumption of Electricity for Different Purposes.	480
XXX. Number of Prisoners.	481
XXXI. Number of Suits Instituted & Disposed of.	482
XXXII. Number of Cases Disposed.	482
XXXIII. Number of Persons Convicted Under Various Offences.	483

XXXIV.	Number of Persons Punished.	483
XXXV.	Distribution of Land Tenures.	484
XXXVI.	Progress of Education.	485
XXXVII.	Political Parties' Position in General Elections to Vidhan Sabha.	486

APPENDIX—B

I.	List of Important Fairs.	487
II.	List of Weekly or Fortnightly Markets.	488
III.	List of Rest-Houses, Circuit Houses & Dharmashalas.	489
IV.	List of Post Offices.	490
V.	List of Police Stations.	491
VI.	List of Nyaya Panchayats.	492
VII.	Conversion Tables.	493

TABLE I
Normals and Extremes of Rainfall

Station	No. of Years of data	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual rainfall as % of normal and year**	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal and year**	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal and year**	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours.* Amount Date (mm.)	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Betul (Badnur)	50 a	18.5	16.3	20.6	8.1	11.9	160.8	374.7	303.5	194.1	48.5	27.2	8.6	1,192.8	174	44	259.6	1930, Jul. 3
	b	1.3	1.5	1.4	0.7	1.2	8.6	16.8	15.4	10.4	2.9	1.3	0.9	62.4	(1944)	(1918)		
Muhai	50 a	15.5	19.6	19.3	11.9	13.2	163.3	294.1	227.3	161.3	50.8	26.2	8.9	1,011.4	188	43	236.0	1888, Sep. 18
	b	1.2	1.6	1.7	1.3	1.3	8.6	15.8	12.8	9.7	3.0	1.2	1.0	59.2	(1944)	(1918)		
Shahpur	50 a	27.4	20.6	15.2	5.1	11.9	150.6	363.2	297.4	185.4	37.6	20.3	7.4	1,142.1	175	43	289.6	1930, Jul. 3
	b	1.4	1.4	1.0	0.6	0.8	7.1	15.1	13.4	9.2	2.2	1.0	0.7	53.9	(1948)	(1918)		
Chicholi	50 a	17.5	12.5	12.5	5.5	16.5	149.9	375.4	294.6	180.3	47.0	30.0	6.1	1,147.6	177	45	240.3	1890, Aug. 9
	b	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.6	0.9	7.6	16.3	14.5	9.2	2.4	1.4	0.6	56.8	(1944)	(1918)		
Athnair	45 a	12.5	18.8	12.5	6.3	12.5	142.2	277.6	188.0	151.1	52.3	31.0	9.4	914.2	197	43	173.7	1925, Aug. 16
	b	1.0	1.4	1.3	0.6	1.1	8.1	13.6	11.0	8.5	2.3	1.4	1.0	51.3	(1944)	(1918)		
Bhainsdehi	40 a	14.5	14.8	13.7	11.2	12.5	161.5	333.5	241.3	180.9	66.8	36.1	8.4	1,094.9	187	41	207.1	1944, Aug. 20
	b	1.2	1.3	1.0	0.7	1.3	8.8	16.1	13.9	10.1	3.5	1.9	0.7	60.5	(1944)	(1928)		
Betul Dist.	a	17.7	17.1	15.6	8.0	13.1	154.7	336.4	258.7	175.5	50.5	28.5	8.1	1,083.9	179	43		
	b	1.2	1.4	1.2	0.7	1.1	8.1	15.6	13.5	9.5	2.7	1.4	0.8	57.2	(1944)	(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 upto 1959. **Years given in brackets.

TABLE II
Frequency of Annual Ranfall (1901-1950)

Range in mm.	No. of Years	Range in mm.	No. of Years
401-500	1	1,201-1,300	4
501-600	0	1,301-1,400	3
601-700	1	1,401-1,500	4
701-800	5	1,501-1,600	2
801-900	5	1,601-1,700	0
901-1,000	9	1,701-1,800	0
1,001-1,100	8	1,801-1,900	0
1,101-1,200	7	1,901-2,000	1

TABLE III
Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity

Month	Mean Daily Maximum Temperature °C	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature °C	Highest Maximum ever recorded °C	Maximum Date	Lowest Minimum ever recorded °C	Minimum Date	Relative Humidity 0830 1730*	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Jan.	26.9	10.9	30.7	1958, Jan. 11	2.8	1953, Jan. 24	64	36
Feb.	29.4	12.3	37.2	1953, Feb. 27	1.1	1950, Feb. 12	48	25
March	33.6	16.5	38.9	1953, Mar. 25	8.8	1957, Mar. 6	35	20
April	37.1	20.9	42.6	1958, Apr. 26	15.0	1955, Apr. 16	31	19
May	39.2	24.7	43.3	1954, May 25	19.2	1957, May 7	39	22
June	34.9	24.4	42.2	1953, June 7	20.6	1957, June 12	70	51
July	28.1	22.3	34.4	1951, July 11	20.0	1954, July 16	88	78
Aug.	27.2	21.7	32.2	1951, Aug. 24	18.9	1951, Aug. 29	90	79
Sept.	28.1	21.0	32.2	1951, Sept. 28	17.4	1957, Sept. 30	85	77
Octo.	29.3	17.2	33.9	1952, Oct. 6	8.5	1952, Oct. 30	69	55
Nov.	27.5	12.0	32.2	1948, Nov. 1	5.6	1956, Nov. 29	58	44
Dec.	26.6	10.1	30.6	1952, Dec. 18	3.3	1955, Dec. 25	65	42
Annual	30.6	17.8					62	46

*Hours I. S. T.

TABLE IV
Mean Wind Speed

(In Km./hr.)

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
4.7	5.3	5.8	5.8	7.2	8.5	7.5	7.6	6.3	4.2	3.9	4.0	6.0

TABLE V
Special Weather Phenomena

Mean No. of days with	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annua- al.
Thunder	1.0	0.7	3.3	3.6	3.2	7.9	4.2	3.3	4.9	1.6	0.3	0.6	34.6
Hail	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.0	1.1
Dust-Storm	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7
Squall	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Fog	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.6

TABLE VI
Average Annual Rainfall and Rainy Days

Station	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960
Betul (Badnur)	(a) 716.4	1,082.9	1,355.3	1,226.1	1,228.1	717.3	1,101.2	1,612.8	636.4
	(b) 40	42	63	76	84	45	73	64	40
Multai	(a) 471.0	797.1	1,375.4	1,122.3	1,050.9	1,074.1	1,052.8	1,089.8	1,029.9
	(b) 33	46	65	71	72	53	61	63	64
Shahpur	(a) 622.0	1,082.4	1,290.8	1,157.4	1,202.3	300.0	979.5	1,441.6	864.1
	(b) 40	39	56	70	75	26	50	52	46
Chicholi	(a) 608.9	1,456.5	1,540.8	1,464.9	1,241.4	892.7	1,026.7	1,541.7	864.0
	(b) 39	46	54	69	70	46	64	66	55
Athnair	(a) 377.6	689.8	1,159.3	827.2	966.1	851.4	613.7	777.8	733.2
	(b) 21	43	63	62	74	45	49	42	45
Bhainsdeschi	(a) 596.5	899.7	931.1	1,149.0	1,046.5	870.3	991.7	1,362.6	875.7
	(b) 44	68	68	61	78	51	66	65	48
Betul District	(a) 603.0	1,001.4	1,275.4	1,157.8	1,122.6	922.2	1,030.4	1,403.4	873.5
	(b) 38	45	62	68	76	49	63	59	52

(a) Normals of rainfall in mm. (b) Average No. of rainy days.

TABLE VII
Mortality Caused By Reptiles & Wild Animals

S.No.	Name of Police Station	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	Total
1	Betul	6	5	4	9	11	7	42
2	Shahpur	5	4	6	5	5	4	29
3	Jhallar	1	3	—	5	5	4	18
4	Chicholi	6	5	3	5	4	6	29
5	Ranipur	4	2	3	2	3	3	17
6	Bijadehi	3	5	6	4	6	1	25
7	Mohta	4	2	1	5	2	2	16
8	Multai	6	7	5	5	9	5	37
9	Bhainsdeschi	2	3	3	4	7	3	22
10	Bordehi	6	5	2	3	5	2	23
11	Amla	3	6	2	1	5	1	18
12	Athnair	1	2	7	8	5	5	28
13	Sainkheda	2	1	3	5	5	1	17
Total		49	50	45	61	72	44	321

TABLE VIII
No. of Wild Animals Recorded in North Betul Forest Division

Range	Name of shooting block	No and category of wild life available						
		Tiger	Panther	Bear	Blue bull	Sambhar	Other deer	Chital
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Amla	Amla	1	1	..	..	4	3	4
	Ladi	2	2	3	4	3	6	6
Betul	Baretha	1	2	..	..	2	3	2
	Betul	2	2	..	3	4	4	5
Ghoradongri	Rampur	1	2	..	..	4	4	4
	Punji	2	3	..	4	2	4	3
Shahpur	Kantawadi	3	2	..	..	3	5	4
	Selda	2	3	..	..	4	4	6
	Shahpur	2	2	..	..	4	6	6
Sarni	Sarni	1	1	2	3	2	3	2
	Amhdhana	1	1	..	..	3	4	2
	Sallaiya	..	2	..	..	2	3	4
Total		18	23	5	14	37	49	48

TABLE IX
Total Area and Classification of Area

(In Acres)

Year	Total Geographical Area According to Village Paps (Reporting Area)	Forest	Not Available for Cultivation		Other Uncultivated Land Excluding Fallow Lands				Fallow Lands		Under Crops	
			Land Put to Non-Agricultural Uses	Barren & Uncultivable Land	Permanent Pastures and Other Grazing Land	Land under Misc. Tree and Groves not included in Net Area	Sown Culturable Waste	Fallow Lands other than Current	Current Fallow	Net Area Sown	Total Cropped Area	Area Sown Once More than
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1950-51	24,90,454	7,45,179		1,56,924*		4,17,003	+2,30,000	1,60,178£		7,81,170	8,24,061	42,891
1951-52	24,90,454	10,50,119		1,57,054*		1,06,433	+2,30,000	1,38,140£		8,08,708	8,67,193	58,485
1952-53	24,90,337	10,50,457		1,57,193*		98,669	+2,30,000	1,27,333£		8,26,685	8,69,266	42,581
1953-54	24,90,337	9,65,037	1,04,211	31,635	1,82,447	13,682	1,66,981	1,21,460	50,290	8,54,594	9,08,461	53,867
1954-55	24,90,337	9,49,749	1,03,019	31,414	1,96,428	13,097	1,60,987	1,16,655	60,482	8,58,506	9,06,066	47,560
1955-56	24,90,337	8,93,233	1,04,595	28,923	2,54,487	12,607	1,60,306	1,10,211	65,851	8,60,124	9,14,700	54,576
1955-57	24,90,337	8,75,758	1,06,753	21,819	2,78,174	9,762	1,59,708	1,09,280	68,985	8,60,098	9,21,234	61,136
1957-53	24,90,336	8,07,312	1,07,721	19,841	3,15,553	9,844	1,63,956	1,10,975	64,855	8,90,279	9,51,759	61,480

Contd....

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1958-59	24,90,337	8,30,823	1,07,589	17,380	2,94,122	7,641	1,59,039	1,09,298	53,967	9,10,478	9,85,714	75,236
1959-60	24,90,337	8,40,367	1,08,354	14,056	2,85,714	6,192	1,54,294	1,02,154	66,803	9,12,403	9,93,192	80,789
1960-61	24,90,337	8,34,694	1,09,975	14,191	2,89,882	5,913	1,50,442	1,04,222	64,400	9,16,618	10,00,270	83,652
1961-62	24,90,344	9,01,059	1,09,811	13,439	2,64,314	4,786	1,36,392	97,578	62,696	9,00,269	9,90,733	90,464
1962-63	24,90,344	9,14,101	1,09,313	11,600	2,55,087	4,120	1,29,305	98,776	65,508	9,02,534	9,76,760	74,226
1963-64	24,90,337	10,35,363	1,05,677	56,745	66,939	363	1,47,908	98,329	49,865	9,28,148	10,22,888	94,740
1964-65	24,90,235	10,34,857	97,534	65,034	70,429	26	1,42,470	92,321	49,707	9,37,857	10,21,115	83,258

.....Concluded

* Inclusive of 'Land put to non-agricultural uses'.

+ Inclusive of 'Permanent pastures and other grazing lands'.

£ Inclusive of 'Current fallows'.

TABLE X
Total Area and Classification of Area—Tahsil—wise

Year Tahsil	Total Geogra- phical Area According to Village Papers (Reporting Area)	Not Available for Cultivation			Other Uncultivated Land Excluding Fallow Lands					(In Acres)
		Forest	Land Put to Non-Agricul- tural Uses	Barren & Unculturable Land	Total	Permanent Pastures and Other Grazing Lands	Land under Misc. Tree Crops and Groves Not included in Net Area Sown			
							Culturable	Waste	Total	
1964-65										
Betul	5,97,278	1,05,565	39,611	20,671	60,282	26,284	18	50,290	76,592	
Multai	5,77,329	29,990	32,606	20,572	53,178	26,663	5	58,041	84,709	
Bhainsdehi	5,70,668	1,54,342	25,317	23,791	49,108	17,482	3	34,139	51,624	
Total District	17,45,275	2,89,897	97,534	65,034	1,62,568	70,429	26	1,42,470	2,12,925	
		Fallow Lands Other Than Current Fallows		Current Fallows	Total	Net Area Sown	Total Cropped Area	Area Sown More Than Once		
Betul		43,646		24,742	68,388	2,86,451	2,97,227	10,776		
Multai		26,446		12,144	38,590	3,70,862	4,27,276	56,414		
Bhainsdehi		22,229		12,821	35,050	2,80,544	2,96,612	16,068		
Total District		92,321		49,707	1,42,028	9,37,857	10,21,115	83,258		

TABLE XI
Area Irrigated by Sources

(In '000 Acres)					
Year	Canals	Tanks	Wells	Other Sources	Total
1951-52	..	..	31.0	0.6	31.6
1952-53	..	..*	25.3	0.3	25.6
1953-54	..	..*	39.1	0.5	39.6
1954-55	..	0.1	42.9	0.7	43.7
1955-56	..	0.2	45.8	1.0	47.0
1956-57	..*	..*	19.2	0.5	19.7
1957-58	1.9	0.1	40.5	0.9	43.4
1958-59	3.4	..*	33.6	1.1	38.1
1959-60	4.2	0.2	41.0	1.4	46.8
1960-61	5.1	0.1	38.8	1.0	45.0
1961-62	5.8	0.4	41.9	1.6	49.7
1962-63	1.9	..*	32.7	1.2	35.8
1963-64	4.2	0.2	38.8	1.1	44.3
1964-65	2.5	0.1	47.8	1.0	51.4

*Denotes less than 50 acres.

TABLE XII
Area Irrigated by Sources—Tahsilwise

(In '000 Acres)					
Year/Tahsil	Canals	Tanks	Wells	Other Sources	Total
1964-65					
Betul	1.9	0.1	6.9	0.1	9.0
Multai	0.6	..	33.1	0.2	33.9
Bhainsdehi	..	..	7.8	0.7	8.5
Total District	2.5	0.1	47.8	1.0	51.4

TABLE XIII
Irrigation Projects*

No.	Name of the Scheme	Location	Year of Construction	Cost. (Rs.)	Area Irrigated (Designed) (Areas)
1	2	3	4	5	6
First Plan Schemes:					
1.	Sampna Tank Including straghtening	7½ miles from Betul towards Nagpur	1969	106.92 lakhs	9,500
Second Plan Schemes					
C.D./N.E.S. Block Works:					
2.	Bhayawadi Anicut	Near village Bhayawadi (Betul Tahsil)	1961	45,800	200
3.	Tara Anicut	7 miles north of Chicholi (Betul Tahsil)	1962	4,075	25
4.	Gorginullah Anicut	Near village Deogaon (Multai Tahsil)	1955	16,536	50
5.	Surgaon Anicut	In mile 5 of Betul Athnair road (Betul Tahsil)	1961	31,500	100
6.	Hiwar Khed Regulator	Masod road (Multai Tahsil)	1960	46,100	200
7.	Narkheda Anicut	Near village Narkheda (Multai Tahsil)	1961	6,500	25
8.	Pohar Anicut	West of village Pohar (Bhainsdehi Tahsil)	1966	30,500	100
9.	Sandia Anicut	About 3 furlongs towards west from mile 4.5 of Multai-Masod road (Multai Tahsil)	1962	47,300	100
Collector's Sector:					
10.	Purna Anicut	Across river Purna about half a mile from village Bouhopura (Bhainsdehi Tahsil)	1961	80,900	250
Third Plan Schemes:					
11.	Bhogiteda Anicut	About a mile D/S of the P.W.D. road near village Parsoda	1965	1.72 lakhs	100

* As in June, 1970.

Contd....

1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Bakurdhana Anicut	Near village Bakurdhana towards east (Bhainsdehi Tahsil)	1965	37,250	120
13.	Mokha Anicut	Near village Mokha, 25 chain U/S crossing point of Shahpura-Ghodadongri road	1964	42,560	100
14.	Bori Anicut	Near village Bori 1½ miles south of Chicholi	1966	36,000	100
15.	Junapani Regulator	Mile 13.3 of Multai-Betul road (Multai Tahsil)	1966	38,100	120
16.	Dongarpur Regulator	1½ miles east of Masod road	1964	18,245	50
17.	Chikhal nullah	Multai-Masod road	1965	28,700	100
18.	Morkha Regulator	About 1½ mile to the south-west of village Morkha in Amla Block	1964	33,100	150
19.	Deogaon Anicut	Near village Deogaon in Prabhat Pattan Block	1964	65,143	150
20.	Khedidhana Anicut	In 5th mile, east of village Masod	1964	19,115	60
21.	Kajli Regulator	22½ miles south-west from Multai on Multai-Masod road	1966	16,950	50
22.	Gangapur Regulator	North of village Masod in Prabhat Pattan Block	1964	20,500	60
23.	Chichkhara Regulator	Near village Chichkhara, 17½ miles south-east of Multai road	1966	16,600	50
24.	Waregaon Tank	5½ miles south of Multai near village Waregaon	1967	7.42 lakhs	440
25.	Mungazhiri Anicut	Near village Mungazhiri (Bhainsdehi Tahsil)	1966	35,360	50
26.	Gadrazhiri Anicut	16 miles in south of Bhainsdehi (Bhainsdehi Tahsil)	1966	34,500	75

Contd....

1	2	3	4	5	6
C.D./N.E.S. Block Works:					
27.	Ratanpur Anicut	$\frac{1}{2}$ mile north-west of village Ratanpur	1964	27,200	100
28.	Waigaon Regulator	$2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of Masod	1962	30,285	80
29.	Shahangaon Regulator	In mile 18th of Multai-Masod road	1963	47,550	150
30.	Parsoda Regulator	3 miles from Amla (Multai Tahsil)	1966	24,350	90
31.	Pisata Regulator	4 miles west of Multai	1966	18,680	50
32.	Datora Regulator	3 miles east of village Masod	1962	25,000	100
Collector's Sector:					
33.	Gunkhed Anicut	About 23 miles from Bhainsdehi on Bhainsdehi-Multai road.	1966	30,000	100
34.	Patha nullah Regulator	Across Patha nullah near Chicholi	1963	43,801	100
35.	Kalmeshwara Regulator	Near village Kalmeshwara (Bhainsdehi Tahsil)	1966	22,800	40
36.	Charghati Regulator	Near village Charghati (Bhainsdehi Tahsil)	1970	29,600	30
37.	Umri Regulator	Near village Umri	1970	38,500	75
38.	Churia Regulator	Near village Churia 21 miles from Betul	1970	1.7 lahs	120
Scarcity Works:					
39.	Jeen tank	Near village Jeen 19 miles from Betul	1967	38,000	10
40.	Bhayawadi tank	Near village Bhayawadi 5 miles from Betul	1968	49,800	30

... Concluded

TABLE XIV
Area Under Principal Crops

(In '000 Acres)

Year	Rice	Jowar	Groundnut	Tur	Wheat	Gram
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1909-10	.. 13.0	125.5	..	19.0	143.7	40.4
1910-11	.. 11.8	110.2	..	17.8	166.8	51.5
1911-12	.. 12.1	108.8	..	19.0	178.4	43.1
1912-13	.. 11.6	108.5	0.2	19.4	184.8	43.1
1913-14	.. 10.1	104.1	0.2	18.6	180.8	42.0
1914-15	.. 9.6	130.6	0.2	20.6	170.2	44.8
1915-16	.. 11.2	149.7	0.3	22.1	167.1	37.6
1916-17	.. 11.4	145.8	0.3	21.2	175.8	38.0
1917-18	.. 12.3	143.7	0.2	20.9	176.2	37.0
1918-19	.. 22.1	156.6	..	24.2	112.0	32.0
1919-20	.. 18.5	153.8	0.5	24.8	117.8	45.4
1920-21	.. 17.9	121.1	1.0	18.3	131.4	50.8
1921-22	.. 15.8	159.4	2.0	20.5	123.3	38.4
1922-23	.. 15.3	148.6	3.5	8.4	143.6	46.2
1923-24	.. 13.5	117.4	3.5	18.3	150.0	54.9
1924-25	.. 14.5	124.6	2.4	20.0	161.7	51.8
1925-26	.. 14.7	116.9	2.6	14.6	162.4	52.9
1926-27	.. 14.2	138.3	3.3	22.5	169.0	52.0
1927-28	.. 16.1	153.4	3.9	23.4	175.9	54.0
1928-29	.. 17.7	152.2	7.8	24.0	185.3	59.7
1929-30	.. 20.2	161.2	10.2	25.3	182.8	51.3
1930-31	.. 20.6	187.0	11.5	28.8	178.8	53.4
1931-32	.. 19.4	178.4	10.9	28.6	183.6	61.5
1932-33	.. 21.9	162.7	9.1	25.6	177.7	72.6
1933-34	.. 24.5	176.4	9.1	28.6	174.5	71.2
1934-35	.. 27.9	180.4	8.3	27.8	179.7	71.3
1935-36	.. 32.2	174.7	8.0	29.4	169.7	69.0
1936-37	.. 32.2	180.1	7.9	29.7	159.1	64.3
1937-38	.. 32.1	171.0	8.9	28.7	171.7	72.2

Contd....

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1938-39	.. 31.7	172.9	10.8	29.2	173.7	66.6
1939-40	.. 32.6	188.3	14.6	29.9	167.1	58.3
1940-41	.. 29.6	172.1	15.7	28.9	171.5	72.6
1941-42	.. 29.6	184.4	15.9	29.8	156.8	57.1
1942-43	.. 27.9	220.1	15.3	34.1	129.7	50.1
1943-44	.. 33.0	213.3	14.6	33.5	128.3	60.9
1944-45	.. 36.9	183.2	21.9	29.7	130.5	77.7
1945-46	.. 38.4	183.0	25.0	29.4	130.9	75.7
1946-47	.. 37.5	166.6	24.8	29.5	131.5	76.6
1947-48	.. 41.1	189.6	25.4	26.2	63.3	79.5
1948-49	.. 39.6	181.0	27.1	40.5	68.5	84.1
1949-50	.. 43.5	147.2	31.9	44.2	102.4	90.2
1950-51	.. 42.4	168.9	33.2	41.2	111.5	73.4
1951-52	.. 38.5	195.4	35.9	38.5	129.0	86.7
1952-53	.. 37.4	162.0	41.6	61.0	128.1	78.2
1953-54	.. 36.3	202.6	43.8	50.6	135.6	76.6
1954-55	.. 34.7	202.9	45.7	50.9	143.5	78.4
1955-56	.. 35.7	160.8	42.3	73.3	153.2	85.4
1956-57	.. 36.2	147.1	42.2	65.9	165.5	97.7
1957-58	.. 41.0	171.1	47.3	74.3	137.0	91.5
1958-59	.. 43.4	172.6	55.9	77.1	145.2	94.3
1959-60	.. 47.8	170.5	60.6	72.1	162.2	93.8
1960-61	.. 51.3	173.7	56.9	79.8	161.3	93.9
1961-62	.. 54.3	162.7	62.9	76.0	161.9	88.1
1962-63	.. 54.8	196.7	61.2	65.0	155.2	84.7
1963-64	.. 57.3	176.2	63.7	78.9	162.5	99.2
1964-65	.. 61.6	182.9	72.1	79.4	155.0	92.0

... Concluded

TABLE XV
Area Under Principal Crops—Tahsilwise

(In '000 Acres)

Year/Tahsil	Rice	Jowar	Groundnut	Tur	Wheat	Gram
1964-65						
Betul	10.3	31.5	6.6	14.6	53.1	40.4
Multai	35.4	81.4	36.0	31.2	78.9	34.2
Bhainsdehi	15.9	70.0	29.5	33.6	23.0	17.4
Total District	61.6	182.9	72.1	79.4	155.0	92.0

TABLE XVI
Production of Principal Crops

(In '000 Tons)

Year	Rice	Jowar	Groundnut	Tur	Wheat	Gram
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1919-20	.. 4.1	..	..	..	38.6	..
1920-21	.. 1.6	..	..	..	17.5	..
1921-22	.. 3.5	..	..	..	39.0	..
1922-23	.. 3.0	..	..	..	49.0	..
1923-24	.. 2.8	..	..	..	44.3	..
1924-25	.. 3.2	..	..	..	48.8	..
1925-26	.. 2.3	..	..	..	34.3	..
1926-27	.. 2.7	..	..	..	40.5	..
1927-28	.. 3.6	..	..	..	44.1	..
1928-29	.. 3.9	..	..	..	38.8	..
1929-30	.. 3.5	..	..	..	35.1	..

Contd...

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1930-31	..	4.2	31.1	..	..	46.3	..
1931-32	..	3.7	29.6	..	..	40.4	..
1932-33	..	3.8	27.0	..	..	..	..
1933-34	..	4.6	32.6	..	..	38.5	..
1934-35	..	4.9	26.7	..	..	35.5	8.4
1935-36	..	5.6	29.0	..	..	34.2	11.6
1936-37	..	5.6	36.2	..	3.6	34.0	8.6
1937-38	..	5.1	31.6	..	3.9	37.5	12.1
1938-39	..	5.5	38.3	..	4.6	38.5	11.2
1939-40	..	4.7	34.8	..	4.4	37.3	10.2
1940-41	..	4.3	28.6	..	4.3	37.1	9.8
1941-42	..	3.9	30.6	..	2.9	26.3	7.7
1942-43	..	5.3	32.5	..	4.6	31.4	8.4
1943-44	..	5.3	43.3	..	4.5	17.3	8.2
1944-45	..	5.9	23.7	..	3.5	27.3	13.0
1945-46	..	5.0	22.0	..	3.1	23.3	11.4
1946-47	..	5.5	21.5	..	2.8	1.4	6.4
1947-48	..	5.9	27.0	7.0	2.8	9.2	10.7
1948-49	..	6.2	28.4	6.9	4.7	16.7	14.1
1949-50	..	7.2	25.8	8.0	5.9	22.8	13.6
1950-51	..	4.6	21.8	6.2	4.4	26.1	12.3
1951-52	..	6.0	46.9	10.4	31.0	28.3	16.5
1952-53	..	11.0	27.4	6.7	16.9	27.2	8.0
1953-54	..	7.2	61.1	12.4	27.9	33.0	11.8
1954-55	..	6.6	49.4	10.3	20.4	38.8	12.5
1955-56	..	9.9	34.7	11.0	40.5	37.9	12.8
1956-57	..	10.4	37.3	9.0	19.6	28.6	12.3
1957-58	..	8.8	42.3	11.4	15.7	20.0	9.8
1958-59	..	11.7	51.0	18.6	27.2	41.6	12.0
1959-60	..	11.4	31.3	11.9	17.6	38.6	15.5
1960-61	..	13.3	54.0	17.9	25.4	34.9	12.3
1961-62	..	20.0	28.1	11.9	16.7	40.0	14.0
1962-63	..	14.1	52.8	11.2	11.3	41.6	15.5
1963-64	..	24.8	48.4	14.8	18.4	30.1	14.9
1964-65	..	22.2	57.6	17.1	17.5	34.4	14.5

....Concluded

TABLE XVII
Agricultural Machinery and Implements

Census Year	Ploughs Wooden	Carts Iron	Sugarcane Crushers		Oil Engines with Pumps for Irriga- tion Purposes	Electric Pumps for Irriga- tion Purpose	Oil Engines for Other Purposes	Persian Wheels	Motes	Tractors		Chanis	
			Worked by Power	Worked by Bullocks						Govt.	Private	Five Seers and Over	Less Than Five Seers
1951	65,711	150	43,708	33	661	149	..	..	..	..	5	113	291
1956	82,425	177	55,414	57	675	293	111	41	16,811	..	8	89	566
1961	96,898	294	65,555	111	615	452	146	31	18,445	2	7	63	522
Tahsil-wise 1961													
Bornl	34,276	113	23,001	50	112	95	37	19	2,753	1	1	23	121
Maktai	35,706	35	25,520	46	466	251	71	4	13,458	..	4	25	316
Bhainsdehi	26,916	146	17,034	15	37	106	38	8	2,234	1	2	15	85
Distt. Total	96,898	294	65,555	111	615	452	146	31	18,445	2	7	63	522

TABLE XVIII
Number of Livestock

Census Year	Cattle	Buffaloes	Sheep	Goats	Horses & Ponies	Mules	Donkeys	Pigs	Camels	Total Livestock
1951	4,02,339	44,137	3,860	42,390	5,388	—	661	—	2,670	5,01,445
1956	4,69,347	52,350	12,577	77,308	4,617	4	662	9	3,298	6,20,172
Variation (%)	+17	+19	+226	+82	-14	—	+0	—	+24	+24
1961	5,00,629	56,525	4,980	87,710	3,512	1	625	5	2,274	6,56,264
Variation (%)	+7	+8	-60	+13	-24	-75	-6	-44	-31	+6
Tahsilwise:										
1961										
Betul	1,85,763	20,087	937	33,286	730	1	172	5	350	2,41,331
Multai	1,73,044	21,187	3,491	28,689	1,873	..	340	..	1,594	2,30,218
Bhainsdehi	1,41,822	15,251	552	25,738	909	..	113	..	330	1,84,715
Total District	5,00,629	56,525	4,980	87,713	3,512	1	625	5	2,274	6,56,264

TABLE XIX
Number of Poultry

Census Year	Fowls				Ducks	Others	Total
	Hens	Cocks	Chickens	Total			
1951	38,070	13,940	47,671	99,681	71	..	997
1956	54,112	16,100	1,03,329	1,73,541	125	1,138	1,74,804
Variation %	+12	+15	+117	+74	+76	—	+75
1961	63,257	20,753	1,54,905	2,38,915	74	983	2,39,972
Variation (%)	+17	+29	+50	+38	-41	-14	+37
Tahsilwise							
Betul	26,354	8,542	66,969	1,01,865	26	52	1,01,943
Multai	15,392	4,916	32,204	52,512	42	681	53,235
Bhainsdehi	21,511	7,295	55,732	84,538	6	250	84,794
Total District	63,257	20,753	1,54,905	2,38,915	74	983	2,39,972

TABLE XX
Forest Revenue and Expenditure

(Rs. in '000)		
Year	Revenue	Expenditure
1940-41	359.6	200.1
1941-42	399.1	264.8
1942-43	752.0	573.4
1943-44	1065.5	648.4
1944-45	1038.1	700.1
1945-46	857.3	448.1
1946-47	1407.0	380.2
1947-48	1225.4	400.4
1948-49	828.6	350.1

Contd....

1	2	3
1949-50	1,550.1	427.1
1950-51	1,744.0	430.3
1951-52	2,172.5	516.7
1952-53	2,073.2	507.8
1953-54	2,354.1	482.7
1954-55	2,526.3	501.9
1955-56	2,824.3	524.9
1956-57	3,500.0	663.3
1957-58	4,810.3	861.1
1958-59	5,382.7	880.1
1959-60	5,543.5	1,180.9
1960-61	5,030.0	1,493.1
1961-62	5,503.1	1,811.8
1962-63	6,505.7	1,890.8
1963-64	9,233.5	1,892.8
1964-65	1,11,85.7	2,231.9
1965-66	1,55,56.2	2,706.6
1966-67	9,782.4	2,453.0

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TABLE XXI
Volume and Value of Forest Produce

Year	Timber		Firewood		Total Value of Major Forest Produce (Rs.)		Total Value of Minor Forest Produce (Rs.)	
	Out-turn (Cft.)	Value (Rs.)	Out-turn (Cft.)	Value (Rs.)				
1950-51	1609	891.9	24324	546.6	1438.5	135.4	65.4	275.8
1951-52	2154	1226.0	34096	635.4	1861.4	138.6	67.8	271.5
1952-53	2465	1359.0	34000	565.1	1924.1	102.6	199.0	328.6
1953-54	2756	1401.3	37013	692.4	2093.7	148.7	76.0	335.0
1954-55	2868	1620.1	31433	653.5	2273.6	139.8	62.6	345.3
1955-56	2863	1636.2	40778	798.4	2434.6	179.4	62.8	511.6
1956-57	2945	2295.8	5374	697.1	2992.9	342.1	81.6	561.5
1957-58	4720	3088.5	16562	1274.1	4362.6	283.6	87.9	444.4
1958-59	4885	3537.4	10500	1276.6	4864.0	373.9	89.1	606.9
1959-60	4109	3523.4	9090	1032.5	4555.9	304.7	88.3	495.7
1960-61	3727	2956.5	14641	1157.8	4114.3	350.2	89.0	501.2
1961-62	1928	3089.2	3024	1263.8	4353.0	431.1	51.0	555.2
1962-63	1177	3939.1	4827	1555.8	5484.9	398.9	52.5	919.3
1963-64	1403	6053.0	3401	1804.1	7857.1	462.0	38.3	1147.7
1964-65	1898	6941.6	4755	2643.9	9585.5	387.8	37.3	1447.7
1965-66	2275	8655.4	6543	4234.5	12889.9	556.8	43.7	2167.8
1966-67	1541	5791.2	2099	2130.0	7921.2	380.2	28.4	1437.9

TABLE XXII
Loans Granted from State Funds—Ordinary Taccavi

Year	Agriculturists' Loans Act	Land Improvement Loans Act
1957—58	1,690	7,460
1958—59	—	1,800
1959—60	—	25,610
1960—61	5,600	18,975
1961—62	23,120	78,635
1962—63	12,400	44,375
1963—64	65,135	33,050
1964—65	Nil	Nil
1965—66	Nil	Nil

TABLE XXIII
Loans Sanctioned under Agriculturists' Loans Act (G.M.F. Schemes)

Year	Amount (Rs.)	Purpose
1956-57	10,811	Wheat seed, R.R. Wheat seed, Sunn seed, Ammonium Sulphate, Super Phosphate
1957-58	16,388	Gram seed, Potato seed, Paddy seed, Mung seed, Fertilizers, Cotton seed, Oil engines
1958-59	1,25,512	Electric pumping sets, Horticulture development
1959-60	1,37,758	—do—
1960-61	9,061	—do—
1961-62	75,704	—do—
1962-63	1,28,556	—do—
1963-64	68,314	Potato seed, Improved seed, Groundnut seed, Sugarcane seed, Cotton seed
	40,927	Green manuring, Ammonium sulphate, Phosphatic fertilizers
	78,436	Electric pumping sets, Oil engines, Horticulture development
1964-65	29,702	Potato seed and gur-making
	3,84,867	Manures, Fertilizers
	2,34,690	Electric pumps, oil engines and Horticulture development
1965-66	22,684	Improved seed, Groundnut seed
	1,188	Green manuring
	1,17,788	Electric pumps, Oil engine pumps and Horticulture development

TABLE XXIV
Loans Sanctioned Under Land Improvement Loans Act (G.M.F. Schemes)

Year	Amount (Rs.)	Purpose
1956-57	34,120	Construction of new wells, repairs to old wells, bunding of cropped area and construction of embankments
1957-58	1,68,100	—do—
1958-59	21,790	—do—
1959-60	37,985	—do—
1960-61	76,575	—do—
1961-62	1,56,545	—do—
1962-63	74,005	—do—
1963-64	2,07,545	—do— and soil conservation, contour-bunding and tractor-ploughing
1964-65	5,05,963	—do—
1965-66	1,04,719	—do—

TABLE XXV
Subsidies and Remissions

Year	Land Improvement Loans Act	Agriculturists' Loans Act
1954—55	3,700	—
1955—56	2,020	4,700
1956—57	34,520	5,550
1957—58	11,220	50,500
1958—59	5,230	—
1959—60	9,817	947
1960—61	15,609	1,856
1961—62	17,584	4,848
1962—63	30,217	5,262
1963—64	1,41,243	10,792
1964—65	2,87,445	4,908
1965—66	1,12,550	438

TABLE XXVI
Surface-Wise Length of Roads

Surface	Length in different years			
	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
1. Bituminous	1. 232-6-220	235-6-220	240-2-220	241-5-220
2. Concrete	2. —	—	—	—
3. Water bound Macadam (Gravelled)	3. 113-7-0	111-0-0	125-7-0	143-7-330
4. Natural Soil Fair weather Roads (Motorable)	4. 47-4-330	47-7-330	47-7-330	29-2-0
5. Natural Soil (Un-motorable)	5. —	—	—	—

TABLE XXVII
Income and Expenditure of Janapad Sabhas

Year	Income (in Rs.)			Expenditure (in Rs.)		
	Betul	Bhainsdehi	Multai	Betul	Bhainsdehi	Multai
1956-57	3,12,971	58,158	3,92,526	3,80,611	53,865	4,08,394
1957-58	4,02,150	55,513	4,79,640	3,99,386	49,247	4,62,410
1958-59	3,74,435	57,227	5,26,684	3,57,285	51,149	5,13,223
1959-60	3,80,294	53,446	5,30,801	3,32,573	74,161	5,83,322
1960-61	4,26,759	70,035	6,86,434	4,08,968	56,978	6,05,900
1961-62	3,98,229	60,422	3,35,793	4,47,010	..	..
1962-63	6,69,004	63,306	9,82,118	5,43,008	57,279	5,95,647
1963-64	4,30,036	65,639	6,14,079	5,69,993	56,292	7,09,603
1964-65	2,57,979	75,612	2,14,754	1,81,682	27,948	1,51,910
1965-66	1,65,575	73,578	2,04,908	1,65,490	81,591	1,41,210
1966-67	1,60,177	60,198	1,83,380	1,46,726	70,931	1,64,437
1967-68	1,57,863	89,576	1,95,388	1,61,950	75,909	1,92,622
1968-69	3,54,405	80,760	1,51,952	2,57,812	89,868	1,23,888

TABLE XXVIII
Income and Expenditure of Municipalities

Year	Betul Municipality		Betul Bazar Municipality		Multai Municipality	
	Income (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)	Income (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)	Income (Rs.)	Expenditure (Rs.)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1940-41	..	..	8,972	5,863	...	..
1947-48	1,37,951	1,13,673	11,989	13,576	21,691	17,151
1948-49	1,59,419	1,68,342	13,067	12,438	31,848	32,829
1949-50	1,49,792	1,40,907	16,355	14,601	34,794	37,480
1950-51	1,82,081	1,45,938	19,684	17,695	45,423	43,995
1951-52	1,82,789	1,89,305	22,851	25,824	36,042	38,145
1952-53	1,95,715	2,31,526	26,699	22,212	53,386	49,547
1953-54	2,21,696	2,14,671	26,136	29,511	67,299	54,712
1954-55	2,08,472	2,31,861	31,008	31,975	70,731	69,278
1955-56	2,24,789	2,17,902	27,114	28,121	91,955	89,180
1956-57	2,12,859	2,21,900	33,254	30,623	99,838	1,02,749
1957-58	2,45,227	2,30,350	34,458	35,443	1,02,727	96,495
1958-59	3,62,358	2,74,915	41,486	42,013	1,06,892	1,11,494
1959-60	3,18,275	2,96,408	63,639	55,054	1,18,297	1,38,993
1960-61	3,59,885	3,72,994	60,938	61,686	91,880	86,023
1961-62	3,62,387	3,52,028	61,259	65,321	93,290	94,270
1962-63	4,51,633	4,33,947	85,267	70,009	3,46,869	3,24,025
1963-64	4,90,150	4,86,612	75,616	84,814	15,990	1,77,614
1964-65	4,21,765	4,24,311	72,251	67,707	2,25,159	2,17,819
1965-66	7,09,105	6,55,174	87,749	75,518	4,97,295	5,07,030
1966-67	5,91,679	6,14,532	80,217	77,438	2,73,420	2,69,110
1967-68	8,14,557	8,32,958	89,282	1,15,285	1,74,145	1,169,001
1968-69	10,74,031	10,98,433	85,233	88,885	2,65,850	2,69,235

TABLE XXIX
Consumption of Electricity for Different Purposes

Year	Betul			Betul-Bazar			Multai			Amla			Ghodadongri		
	Domestic light and fan	Commercial light and fan	Industrial	Domestic light and fan	Commercial light and fan	Industrial	Domestic light and fan	Commercial light and fan	Industrial	Domestic light and fan	Commercial light and fan	Industrial	Domestic light and fan	Commercial light and fan	Industrial
1957	8,954	..	..	823	..	..	15,141	1,973	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1958	57,763	17,238	64,860	6,920	..	..	28,742	7,353	29,689	6,396	15,961	20,694	..	..	..
1959	1,10,553	28,898	2,59,439	2,046	..	..	40,455	7,673	56,872	16,707	46,836	66,134	..	..	..
1960	1,52,842	36,872	2,59,804	4,061	..	..	47,646	10,336	1,06,348	24,743	48,308	84,562	..	..	..
1961	1,98,337	48,473	2,30,518	..	..	..	58,526	11,899	1,26,774	30,209	91,616	77,236	..	..	..
1962	2,21,647	60,799	3,43,764	..	..	..	67,056	13,036	1,31,792	32,660	2,01,708	83,976	..	..	..
1963	3,18,476	57,833	2,97,391	22,800	2,701	39,836	74,164	14,623	1,41,031	66,586	4,176	1,17,569	608	..	..
1964	2,91,115	82,665	3,29,092	40,188	4,430	65,626	92,848	20,152	1,73,978	58,421	4,508	1,46,575	2,01,728	4,509	2,50,863
1965	2,87,021	97,923	4,17,256	53,422	5,490	70,848	1,05,885	20,088	97,803	72,833	1,210	1,50,838	40,343	..	1,55,149

BETUL

TABLE XXX
Number of Prisoners

Year	Prisoners at the beginning of the year			Received during the year			Discharged from all causes			Remaining at the end of the year			Total daily average of prisoners		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1956	95	1	96	356	5	361	372	6	378	81	..	81	62.41	1.08	63.49
1957	81	..	81	259	5	264	314	4	318	32	1	33	53.33	0.05	53.38
1958	32	1	33	241	7	248	240	7	247	33	1	34	29.50	1.39	30.89
1959	33	1	34	189	4	193	182	5	187	40	1	40	37.92	0.13	38.05
1960	40	..	40	210	3	213	216	2	218	34	1	35	36.01	0.55	36.56
1961	54	1	55	179	4	183	160	5	165	53	..	53	42.03	0.16	42.19
1962	53	..	53	190	3	193	199	2	201	47	1	48	55.57	0.42	55.99
1963	47	1	48	215	..	215	214	1	215	48	..	48	44.65	0.07	44.72
1964	48	..	48	361	3	364	313	3	316	48	..	48	68.66	0.03	68.69
1965	48	..	48	347	2	349	291	2	293	104	..	104	153.04	3.69	156.73
1966	104	..	104	96	..	96	82	..	82	118	..	118	163.45	1.50	164.95
1967	118	..	118	346	6	252	369	5	374	94	1	95	118.73	0.04	118.77
1968	94	1	95	383	3	386	383	4	387	94	..	94	76.70	0.70	77.40

APPENDICES

TABLE XXXI
Number of Suits Instituted & Disposed

Year	Suits pending at the end of the year	Instituted during the year	Revived during the year	Otherwise received during the year	Total for disposal	Disposed of by transfer	Otherwise disposed of	Pending at the close of the year
1958	306	500	119	133	958	133	415	410
1959	410	433	9	215	1067	215	377	475
1960	475	452	14	113	1054	113	442	499
1961	499	516	18	..	1033	..	584	449
1962	449	493	40	56	1039	56	628	354
1963	354	401	27	..	880	..	507	373
1964	373	563	17	110	1965	110	521	434
1966	565	557	30	..	1152	..	551	657
1967	651	488	31	..	1170	..	471	699
1968	699	1091	32	503	1822	..	722	597

TABLE XXXII
Number of Cases Disposed

Year	Total number of offences reported	Disposal of Cases		Disposal of persons	
		Disposed	Pending	Disposed	Pending
1961	2,221	2,562	663	4,482	1,708
1962	2,555	2,080	697	3,471	1,484
1963	2,175	2,180	1,198	3,520	2,085
1964	3,436	3,530	1,014	5,551	2,380
1966	4,247	2,395	1,852	2,872	3,201
1967	5,781	2,825	2,955	4,670	4,877
1968	4,877	4,556	2,732	6,821	4,973

TABLE XXXIII
Number of Persons Convicted Under Various Offences

Year	Offences			
	Affecting Human Body	Against property	Affecting Public Health	Relating to religion
1961	96	218	52	4
1962	43	317	37	1
1963	61	173	34	1
1964	125	418	97	..
1966	137	271	36	..
1967	165	239	45	..
1968	120	312	40	..

TABLE XXXIV
Number of Persons Punished

Year	Imprisonment	Fined	Security taken	Borstal Act	Death sentence
1961	360	2,707	27	3	..
1962	139	1,944	61	..	..
1963	167	2,230	23	..	..
1964	398	4,231	16	2	1
1966	213	1,995	93	..	..
1967	136	2,590	62	..	..
1968	201	4,219	62	..	..

TABLE XXXV
Distribution of Land Tenures

(In Acres)								
Year	Bhumi-swamis	Bhumi-dharis	Govt. Lessees	Bhoodan-dharaks	Service Land	Raiyat Malik in Raiyat Villages	Raiyat Patel	Raiyat Sarkar
					5,710			
1955-56	2,90,246	8,47,659	..	..	Ryt.493	397	2,691	65,176
					5,710			
1956-57	2,90,246	8,47,659	..	..	5,710	397	2,691	65,176
1957-58	2,90,975	9,19,053	63	151	5,714	..	..	..
1958-59	2,90,975	9,19,053	63	151	5,714	..	..	..
1959-60	2,91,217	9,21,678	..	212	5,714	..	..	..
1960-61	12,16,505	..	..	238	5,692	..	..	..
1961-62	12,16,505	..	..	238	5,692	..	..	..
1962-63	12,16,504	..	..	259	5,692	..	..	..
1963-64	12,16,970	..	..	341	5,692	..	..	..
1964-65	12,17,314	..	16	438	5,688	..	..	..

TABLE XXXVI
Progress of Education

Category of Schools	Years	No. of Institutions	Students	Teachers	Expenditure (Rs.)
Pre-Primary	1965-66	2	140	4	12,623
	1966-67	2	131	6	11,224
	1967-68	2	151	3	17,902
Primary	1965-66	606	49,012	1,442	20,65,646
	1966-67	622	49,494	1,491	30,08,242
	1967-68	642	52,387	1,541	32,67,946
Middle	1965-66	76	11,264	459	5,66,933
	1966-67	82	11,349	649	6,77,211
	1967-68	85	11,879	457	7,35,692
Higher Secondary	1965-66	23	7,537	327	9,57,052
	1966-67	23	7,736	348	11,43,706
	1967-68	25	7,924	370	15,04,833
Junior Basic	1965-66	25	2,591	61	60,132
	1966-67	25	5,447	59	65,456
	1967-68	25	2,011	71	67,086
Senior Basic	1965-66	7	2,534	78	96,791
	1966-67	7	2,576	80	99,636
	1967-68	7	2,640	81	1,10,129
Training Institution	1965-66	2	247	18	3,35,334
	1966-67	2	264	18	3,66,345
	1967-68	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

TABLE XXXVII
Political Parties' Position in General Elections to Vidhan Sabha

Year of Election	1	(a) No. of Seats			(a) No. of Contesting Candidates			Congress	Socialist	Praja Socialist	Jana Sangh	Forward Block	Scheduled Castes Federation	Republican Party	Independents
		2	3	4	5	6	7								
1951-52		(a) 5 (b) 3,26,097 (c) 1,66,629	5	2	—	—	5 (of two groups)	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	9
1957		(a) 5 (b) 3,33,375 (c) 1,12,297	5 80,950	— 5,287	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7,490	—	—
1962		(a) 5 (b) 2,82,770 (c) 1,00,835	5 3 62,290	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1967		(a) 5 (b) 3,17,258 (c) 1,33,232	5 2 53,231	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

APPENDIX—B-I
List of Important Fairs

Place where <i>Mela</i> or Fair is held	Where held		Local religious or other occasion of the <i>Mela</i> or Fair	Duration of the <i>Mela</i> or Fair (in days)	Average total Attendance	Who manages the Fair/ <i>Mela</i>
	Hindi months	English months				
Bhainsdehi Tahsil						
Theska	Kartika <i>Sudi</i> 15	October/November	Baraling	1	1,000/2,000	Gram Panchayat
River Tapti	Kartika <i>Sudi</i> 15	October/November	Parasdoh	1	5,000/6,000	Gram Panchayat
Bhainsdehi	Phalguna <i>Sudi</i> 15	February/March	Holi	3	2,000	Gram Panchayat
Barkhed	Phalguna <i>Sudi</i> 15	February/March	Holi	1	200	Gram Panchayat
Mahatpur	Phalguna <i>Sudi</i> 15	February/March	Holi	1	500/1,000	Gram Panchayat
Khaira	Phalguna <i>Sudi</i> 15	February/March	Holi	1	500/1,000	Gram Panchayat
Desali	Phalguna <i>Sudi</i> 15	February/March	Holi	1	500/1,000	Gram Panchayat
Salbardhi	Phalguna <i>Sudi</i> 15	February/March	Shivratri	10	8,000/10,000	Janapad Sabha
Betul Tahsil						
Shahpur	Pausa <i>Sudi</i> 15	December/January	Guru Saheb Ka Mela	5	10,000	Gram Panchayat
Malajpur	No certain date	January	Malajpur Fair	30	5,000	Tahsildar
Khedla	Phalguna <i>Badi</i> 13	February/March	Shivratri	1	1,000	Janapad Sabha
Rondha	Phalguna <i>Sudi</i> 15	February/March	Holi	1	1,000	Gram Panchayat
Bajadehi	Phalguna	February/March	Magnath Fair	1	1,000	Local People
Dhodra Mohar	Phalguna	February-March	Magnath Fair	1	1,000	Local People
Tara	Phalguna	February/March	Magnath Fair	1	1,000	Local People
Bhopali	Phalguna <i>Badi</i> 13	February/March	Shivratri	7	10,000/15,000	Tahsildar
Multai Tahsil						
Chhawal	Chaitra <i>Sudi</i> 15	March/April	Chhawal Fair	15	5,000	Janapad Sabha
Narera	Kartika <i>Sudi</i> 15	October/November	Narera Fair	3	1,000	Gram Panchayat
Multai	No certain date	November	Tapti Fair	15	10,000/15,000	Tahsildar

APPENDIX—B—II
Weekly or Fortnightly Markets

1. Bhainsdehi Tahsil

Urban

Nil

Rural

Ratanpur (Monday), Bhimpur (Thursday), Pipariya (Mahatu) (Friday), Chikhali (Friday), Chillor (Thursday), Chuna Lohama (Thursday), Kunkhedi (Tuesday), Chandu (Monday), Mohta (Friday), Damjipura (Saturday), Jhalle (Tuesday), Mandhavi (Tuesday), Bhainsdehi (Saturday), Athnair (Thursday), Chilkapur (Sunday), Satnari (Day not mentioned), Mendna Chhindwad (Sunday), Khamla (Monday), Temni (Tuesday), Hindli (Monday), Sawal mendha (Ryt), (Monday), Kothalkund (Friday), Kaola (Ryt), (Friday), Khomai (Tuesday).

2. Betul Tahsil

Urban

I Betul

Ward No. 3 (Sunday, Thursday),
Ward No. 4 (Sunday, Thursday),
Ward No. 13 (Wednesday),

II Betul Bazar

Ward No. 8 (Tuesday).

Rural

Dodramohar (Bhaora) (Friday), Dodramahu (Sunday), Shahpur (Wednesday), Ghodadongri (Saturday), Saliya (Thursday), Chirapathla (Sunday), Chuna Hazuri (Saturday), Bakud (Wednesday), Ranipur (Friday), Kesiya (Monday), Malanjpur (Friday), Chicholi (Tuesday), Chand Behra (Monday), Khedi Sauligarh (Friday), Roncha (Saturday), Sehra (Monday), Kolgaon (Friday), Barvi (Wednesday).

3. Multai Tahsil

Urban

III Multai

Ward No. 1 (Thursday and Sunday)

IV Amla Town Area (Saturday)

Rural

Chhipaniya Pipariya (Wednesday), Bordehi (Monday), Rateda Kalan (Sunday), Bodkhi (Tuesday & Friday), Khedli Bazar (Friday), Morkha (Sunday), Dunawa (Thursday), Semjhira (Tuesday), Sainkheda (Monday), Jam (Friday), Barkhed (Saturday), Khedi Court (Friday), Birool (Wednesday), Chichanda (Sunday), Poni (Thursday), Narkhera (Tuesday), Gawala (Monday), Hiwarkhed (Saturday), Umraoti (Sunday), Pattan (Saturday), Bisnoor (Tuesday), Tiwarkhed (Thursday), Masod (Monday), Umari (Monday), Khadki (Tuesday), Genhu Barsa (Friday), Itawa (Thursday).

Source:—Betul District Census Hand Book, 1961.

APPENDIX—B—III
List of Rest-Houses, Circuit Houses & Dharmashalas

Name of Tahsil		Situation of Rest-house etc.	Category of accommodation	Situation on Road	Department Responsible for maintenance
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Betul	Circuit House at Betul	4 bed-rooms one dining hall	Civil station Road mile 1/8	Public Works Department
2	"	Rest-house at Betul	4 suits of rooms with one dining hall	Civil station Road mile 1/6	"
3	"	" at Shahpur	2 suits of rooms with one dining hall	Itarsi-Nagpur Rd. mile 33/4	"
4	"	" at Chicholi	—do—	Betul-Harda Rd. M. 21 F.8	"
5	Multai	" at Multai	3 suits of rooms with one dining hall	Betul Nagpur Rd. M. 87/3	"
6	"	" at Dunawa	Two suits of rooms with one dining hall	Multai Chilka-pur mile 16/1	"
7	"	" at Masod	1 bed-room with dining hall	Multai Chilka-pur mile 16/1	"
8	"	" at Amla	2 suits	Amla Bastar	Reva "
9	Bhainsdehi	" at Bhainsdehi	2 suits of rooms with dining hall	Bhainsdehi Chiklapur Rd. M. 7/4	"
10	"	" at Jhallar	—do—	Betul Achalpur Rd. mile 21/7	"
11	"	" at Gudgaon	—do—	Betul Achalpur Rd. mile 32/8	"
12	"	" at Kothalkund	—do—	Betul Achalpur Rd. mile 43/8	"
13	"	" at Athnair	—do—	Multai Chilka-pur Rd. mile 31	"
Dharmashalas					
1	Betul	1. Dharmashala at Betul for about 60 to 70 travellers			
		2. Kothi Bazar Road, Municipal Committee, Betul.			
		Serai at Betul for about 80 to 90 travellers, near Rly. Station road, maintained by Municipal Committee, Betul.			

APPENDIX—B—IV
List of Post Offices

1. Betul Head Office

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Bharat Bharti School, Jatathi | 9. Khedi Saoligarh |
| 2. Bhayawadi | 10. Mathni |
| 3. Chicholi Dhana | 11. Nimpani |
| 4. Garha | 12. Ranipur |
| 5. Ghoradongri | 13. Rondha |
| 6. Jeen | 14. Salaiya |
| 7. Jhallar | 15. Sehra |
| 8. Khandra | 16. Vijaygram |

2. Athnair Sub-Office

- | | |
|-----------|------------|
| 1. Dehgud | 4. Mandvi |
| 2. Mandvi | 5. Satnair |
| 3. Hidli | 6. Wadali |

3. Betul Bazar Sub-Office

- | | |
|------------|-------------|
| 1. Bagholi | 3. Sohagpur |
| 2. Kolgaon | |

4. Bhainsdehi Sub-Office

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------|
| 1. Belkund | 8. Khomai |
| 2. Bothi | 9. Chakwi |
| 3. Chandu | 10. Kothalkund |
| 4. Dhamangaon | 11. Kunkhedi |
| 5. Gudgaon | 12. Majarwani |
| 6. Kokunjh | 13. Palsya |
| 7. Khamla | 14. Sawalmendha |

5. Amla Sub-Office

- | | |
|--------------------|----------------|
| 1. Andhrariya | 12. Lalawadi |
| 2. Awasia | 13. Morandhana |
| 3. Baran wadi | 14. Morkha |
| 4. Barvi | 15. Parsoda |
| 5. Bordehi | 16. Pauni |
| 6. Chipnya Piparia | 17. Rateda |
| 7. Gaula | 18. Sainkhea |
| 8. Jambada | 19. Sasundra |
| 9. Kalmeshwara | 20. Semjhira |
| 10. Khedi Court | 21. Umaria |
| 11. Kharli | |

6. Multai Sub-Office

- | | |
|-------------|--------------|
| 1. Bandli | 7. Barai |
| 2. Barkhed | 8. Birul |
| 3. Bisnoor | 9. Chichanda |
| 4. Chilhati | 10. Chikhli |
| 5. Dahua | 11. Dunawa |
| 6. Baghoda | |

APPENDIX—B-V
List of Polic Stations

1. Betul Circle

1. Betul
2. Shahpur
3. Chicholi
4. Bijadehi
5. Sarni
6. Ranipur
7. Mahta
8. Jhallar
9. Betul Bazar (Out-Post)

2. Multai Circle

1. Multai
2. Amla
3. Bordehi
4. Sainkheda
5. Athnair
6. Bhainsdehi

APPENDIX—B—VI
List of Nyaya Panchayats

Tahsil Betul

- | | |
|--------------------|------------------|
| 1. Dhodhra Mauhar | 30. Dunawa |
| 2. Patha Kheda | 31. Morkha |
| 3. Chouna huzuri | 32. Bordehi |
| 4. Chicholi | 33. Rateda |
| 5. Kesia | 34. Amla |
| 6. Jeen | 35. Amrawati |
| 7. Khedi Sawligarh | 36. Khedli Bazar |
| 8. Sehara | 37. Mambada |
| 9. Barvi | 38. Anus |
| 10. Badora | 39. Sasundra |

Tahsil Bhainsdehi

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| 11. Mathni | 40. Athner |
| 12. Padhar | 41. Mandvri |
| 13. Shahpur | 42. Hidli |
| 14. Bhora | 43. Belkund |
| 15. Sohagpur | 44. Satner |
| 16. Khandara | 45. Khamla |
| 17. Ranipur | 46. Sawalmenda |
| 18. Ghodadongri | 47. Chilkapur |
| 19. Marka Dhana | 48. Bhainsdehi |
| | 49. Khomai |
| | 50. Zallar |
| | 51. Damjeepura |
| | 52. Mohata |
| | 53. Piparia |
| | 54. Bhimpur |
| | 55. Ratanpur |
| | 56. Chaundu |
| | 57. Chhonalohama |

Tahsil Multai

20. Saikheda
21. Masod
22. Gehu Barsa
23. Misnore
24. Bisod
25. Prabhat Pattan
26. Jaulkheda
27. Malegaon
28. Kherwani
29. Chichanda

APPENDIX—B—VII**Conversion Tables****Table****I WEIGHTS.**

10 milligrams (mg)	=1 centigram
10 centigrams	=1 decigram
10 decigrams	=1 gram (1 g=1,000 mg)
10 grams	=1 dekagram
10 dekagrams	=1 hectogram
10 hectograms	=1 kilogram (1 kg=1,000 g)
10 kilograms	=1 myriogram
10 myriograms	=1 quintal
10 quintals	=1 metric tonne (1tonne=1,000 kg)

From Old Units to New Units:

1 Tola	=11.66 grams
1 Chhatak	=58.32 „
1 Seer	=933.10 „
1 Maund	=37.32 kg.
1 Grain	=0.0648 gram
1 Ounce	=28.35 grams
1 Pound	=453.59 „
	=45359 kg.
1 Quarter	=12.706 kg.
1 Handerweight	=50.80 kg.
1 Ton	=1016.05 kg.

From New Units to Old Units

1 Gram	=0.085735 tola
	=15.4324 grains
	=0.035274 ounce
1 Kilogram	=1.07169 Seer
	=2.20462 lbs.
1 Quintal	=2,67923 maunds
	=220.46 lbs.
1 Metric tonne	=26.7923 maunds
	=0.9842 ton

II LENGTH.

Table

10 millimetres (mm)	= 1 centimetre (cm)
10 centimetres	= 1 decimetre
10 decimetres	= 1 metre (1 m = 100 cms = 1,000 mm)
10 metres	= 1 dekametre
10 dekametres	= 1 hectometre
10 hectometres	= 1 kilometre (1 km = 1,000 m.)

From Old Units to New Units:

1 inch	= 2.54 cms. = 25.4 mms. = 0.0254 m.
1 foot	= 30.48 cms. = 0.3048 m.
1 yard	= 91.44 cms. = 0.9144 m.
1 furlong	= 201.163 m.
1 mile	= 1.609344 km. = 1609.344 m.
1 chain	= 20.1168 m.

From New Units to Old Units:

1 mm.	= 0.0394 inch
1 cm.	= 0.393701 inch
1 decimetre	= 3.937 inch
1 m.	= 1.09361 yds. = 3.28084 feet = 39.3701 inches = 0.0497097 chain = 0.00497097 furlong
1 hectometre	= 0.062173 mile
1 kilometre (km)	= 0.62137 mile

III CAPACITY.

Table

10 millilitres (ml)	= 1 centilitre
10 centilitres	= 1 decilitre
10 decilitres	= 1 litre (1 L = 1,000 ml.)
10 litres	= 1 dakalitre
10 dekalitres	= 1 hectolitre
10 hectolitres	= 1 kilolitre

From Old Units to New Units:

1 ounce	= 28 ml. (to the nearest ml.)
1 gill	= 142 ml. (—do—)
1 pint	= 568 . (—do—) = 0.56825 L
1 quart	= 1 litre and 136 ml. (—do—) = 1.13649 L
1 gallon	= 4.54596 L
1 liquid seer	= 940 ml. (to the nearest 10 ml.)

From New Units to Old Units:

1 litre	= 1.75980 pints = 0.87990 quart = 0.219975 gallon = 1.1 liquid seer—(Approx.) = 35 liquid ounces „ = 1000.028 cubic centimetres = 85.735 tolas of pure water = 61.025 cubic inches = 1.000028 cubic decimetres = 1.000028 cubic metres
1 kilolitre	

IV VOLUME.

Table

1000 cubic millimetres	= 1 cubic centimetre
1000 cubic centimetres	= 1 cubic decimetre
1000 cubic decimetres	= 1 cubic metre

From Old Units to New Units

1 cubic inch	= 16.3871 cubic centimetres
1 cubic foot	= 28.3168 cubic decimetres = 28.316 litres
1 cubic yard	= 0.76455 cubic metre
1 gallon	= 0.00454609 cubic metre = 4.5496 litres = 4.54609 cubic decimetres
1 ounce	= 28.4132 cubic centimetres
1 gill	= 142.066 cubic centimetres
1 pint	= 568.2440 cubic centimetres = 0.56825 litre
1 quart	= 1.1365 litres
1 litre	= 1000.028 cubic centimetres = 1.000028 cubic decimetres

From New Units to Old Units:

1 cubic centimetre	=0.061024 cubic inch =0.0070390 gill =0.0351949 ounce
1 cubic decimetre	=0.0353147 cubic foot =0.219969 gallon =0.99997 litre
1 cubic metre	=35.315 cubic foot =1.30795 cubic yard =219.969 gallon =0.99997 kilolitre

V AREA.

Table

100 square millimetres	=1 square centimetre
100 square millimetres	=1 square decimetre
100 square decimetres	=1 sq. metre (1 sq. m.=10000 sq. cm.)
100 square metres	=1 are or 1 sq. dekametre
100 ares	=1 hectare of 1 sq. hectometre (1 hectare (ha)=10000 sq. m.)
100 hectares	=1 square kilometre

From Old Units to New Units:

1 sq. inch	=6.4516 sq. cm. =0.00064516 sq. m.
1 sq. foot	=929.03 sq. cm. =0.092903 sq. m. =9.2903 sq. decimetres
1 sq. yard	=0.83613 sq. metre =0.00831613 are =40.4686 sq. metres
1 cent	=404.686 sq. metres
1 sq. chain	=0.404686 hectare =40.4686 ares
1 acre (4840 sq. Yds. or 10 sq. chains)	=258.999 hectares =2.58999 sq. kilometres
1 sq. mile (640 acres)	

From New Units to Old Units:

1 square cm.	=0.155000 sq. inch.
1 sq. metre	=1550.00 sq. inch =10.7639 sq. foot =1.19599 sq. yard
1 are	=119.599 sq. yard =0.0247105 acres
1 hectare	=2.47105 acres
1 sq. kilometre	=0.386101 sq. mile

LIST OF FREEDOM FIGHTERS OF BETUL DISTRICT

S. No.	Name of the Freedom Fighter with Residence	Term of Imprisonment
1	2	3
1.	Shri Birsa Gond, Behadi (Ghoradongri)	Shot dead
2.	„ Golman Seth, Chicholi	Died in Jail
3.	„ Jirra Gond, Salidhana	Died in Jail
4.	„ Kaila Kirar, Nahia	Shot dead
5.	„ Koma Singh Gond, Banjaridhal	Shot dead
6.	„ Lakkhu Gond, Bijaigram	Died after release
7.	„ Mahadeo Gaotya Teli, Prabhat Pattan	Shot dead
8.	„ Makadu Gond, Jambada	Shot dead
9.	„ Munshi Gond, Behadi	Died in Jail
10.	„ Manohar Rao Paunikar, Multai	Died after release
11.	„ Punna Singh Gond, Mahendrawadi	Died in Jail
12.	„ Ranu Gond, Barangwadi	Shot dead
13.	„ Tatra Gond, Bhainsdehi	Died after release
14.	„ Uday Kirar, Nahia	Shot dead
15.	Smt. Muki w/o Khuitya Gond, Dolidhana	In 1941-1942 (not established)
16.	„ Rikhiya w/o Bhikha Gond, Dolidhana	In 1930 and 1932
17.	„ Shyam Bai w/o Gangadhar Jain, Prabhat Pattan	In 1930
18.	Shri Asharam Gond, Chichdhol	1 year in 1930
19.	„ Anand Rao Jain, Multai	1. 25-9-1941 to 4-12-1941 2. 13 months in 1942
20.	„ Aochitya Nai, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 31-5-1945
21.	„ Atma Ram Sarbare, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 30-6-1944
22.	„ Abdul Faqir, Prabhat Pattan	4 months in 1928 and 1930
23.	„ Anchha Ram Verma, Andharia	1 Year in 1942
24.	„ Amrat Rao Kunbi, Gothani	23-10-1930 to 12-3-1931
25.	„ Atma Ram Kunbi, Narkhed	6 months in 1932 (not established)
26.	„ Anand Rao Lakhande, Vijaigram	1. 17-6-1933 to 31-1-1934 2. 5 years in 1942

1	2	3
27.	Shri Bhikhaji Gond, Dolidhana	Life Imprisonment in 1942
28.	„ Bhangu Gond, Ghapada	1½ years in 1930
29.	„ Brajlal Dhanu Sevak, Barelipar	3 months in 1932
30.	„ Bholaram Dhenu Sevak, Betul	1½ years in 1942
31.	„ Bhimsen Kirad, Nahia	4 months hospitalization due to firing in 1942
32.	„ Bhaddu Korku, Banjaridhal	2 years in 1942 (released on Bail)
33.	„ Bhikarilal Verma, Tikari	9 months detention in 1942
34.	„ Banwarilal Soni, Kothi Bazar, Betul	1½ years detention in 1942
35.	„ Bastiram Sunar, Chicholi	10 months imprisonment in 1942
36.	„ Bhura Korku, Ghapada	1 year in 1930
37.	„ Bhagoo, Ghasai	2 years in 1930
38.	„ Bajirao Korku, Banjaridhal	1 year in 1930
39.	„ Boocha Gond, Banjaridhal	2 years in 1930
40.	„ Bisram Gond, Phulgohan	4- 11-1942 to 27-4-1946
41.	„ Rhode Gond, Ghodadongri	30-9-1942 to 23-1-1946
42.	„ Bhaggu Gond, Ratamati	4-11-1942 to 27-4-1946
43.	„ Bhikha Gond, Mahendrawadi	3-9-1942 to 5-3-1946
44.	„ Bhaiyalal Verma, Katanga	In 1942 (not established)
45.	„ Brajlal Bhatiya, Betulganj	In 1942 (not established)
46.	„ Bhoora Korku, Ghapada	22-12-1930 to 2-4-1931
47.	„ Beni Gond, Malseoni	25-9-1942 to 5-1-1944
48.	„ Baboo alias Chandra Chund Singh, Chicholi	In 1942
49.	„ Bhangu Gond, Mahendrawadi	
50.	„ Bakaram S/O Mallu Khade, Magona-Kalan	5 years in 1942
51.	„ Bakaram S/O Sakharan, Baraskar, Tiwarkheda	2 years rigorous imprisonment in 1942
52.	„ Bhiwaji Maratha, Multai	2 years in 1942
53.	„ Balaji Makode, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 4-9-1943
54.	„ Bakaram S/O Shembekar, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 15-6-1945
55.	„ Baman Rao Jain, Amla	9 months in 1941
56.	„ Bali Ram Jain, Prabhat Pattan	2 years in 1942
57.	„ Brajlal Sahu, Tiwarkhed	7 months in 1930
58.	„ Bharatlal Pawar, Dunawa	4 months in 1930
59.	„ Babu Rao Kunbi, Narkhed	6 months in 1930
60.	„ Bhika Rao Jain, Prabhat Pattan	3-10-1942 to 10-1-1944
61.	„ Biharilal Patel, Prabhat Pattan	In 1930, 1932, 1940 and 1942 for various terms

1	2	3
62.	Shri Balkishan Patel, Prabhat Pattan	In 1930 for 1 year In 1932 for 6 months In 1941 for 1 year In 1942 for 3 years detention
63.	„ Bangali Kunbi, Narkhed	6 months in 1930 (released on appeal)
64.	„ Babu Rao Kunbi, Prabhat Pattan	25-8-1942 to 20-10-1942
65.	„ Bhagwan Kunbi, Narkhed	6 months in 1932 (not established)
66.	„ Biharilal S/O Gopal, Dunawa	6 months in 1932 (released on appeal)
67.	„ Bhagwan Baraskar, Prabhat Pattan	1½ years in 1942 (not established)
68.	„ Baka Ram Yeole, Prabhat Pattan	4 months in 1930 (not established)
69.	„ Bapu Rao Dhote, Magonakalan	1. 2 years in 1940 2. 2½ years in 1942 21-7-1923 to 3-9-1923
70.	„ Bhilaji Dhote, Dhanora	In 1942 (not established)
71.	„ Baburao Jharbade, Bhainsdehi	In 1930 (not established)
72.	„ Bhilaji Korku, Aamulni	From 20-8-1942 to 9-9-43
73.	„ Chandmal Tated, Betul	10 years
74.	„ Chunni Gond, Mahendrawadi	2 years in 1930
75.	„ Chhedilal Teli, Banjari Dhal	5 years in 1942 (including 3 years rigorous imprisonment)
76.	„ Chhatan Gond, Ratamati	Died in 1942 (not established)
77.	„ Chhotelal Gond, Pipri	at Ghodadongri 10 years in 1942 (released in 1946)
78.	„ Chhote Gond, Mehkar	In 1941 and 1942
79.	„ Chaitram Raipure, Boadkhi	1 year in 1942
80.	„ Chunnilal Bhargava, Multai	3 weeks in 1930
81.	„ Chindhya Mali, Birul	15 days detention in 1942
82.	„ Chaitya Deegar, Birul Marshi	(not established)
83.	„ Dashrathlal Arya, Boaspura, Betul	1½ years in 1941 & 1942
84.	„ Doma Gond, Ratamati	4-11-1942 to 29-12-1943
85.	„ Deep Chand Gothi, Betul	During 1919 to 1946 for 1½ years and detention for various terms.
86.	„ Dhanu Singh, Dolidhana	3 months in 1940 (not established)
87.	„ Dinkar Sharma, Betul Ganj	5-6-1941 to 11-6-1941
88.	„ Danlat Rao Taiwade, Multai	2 years in 1940 to 1942
89.	„ Diwakar Rao Jain, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 17-12-1943

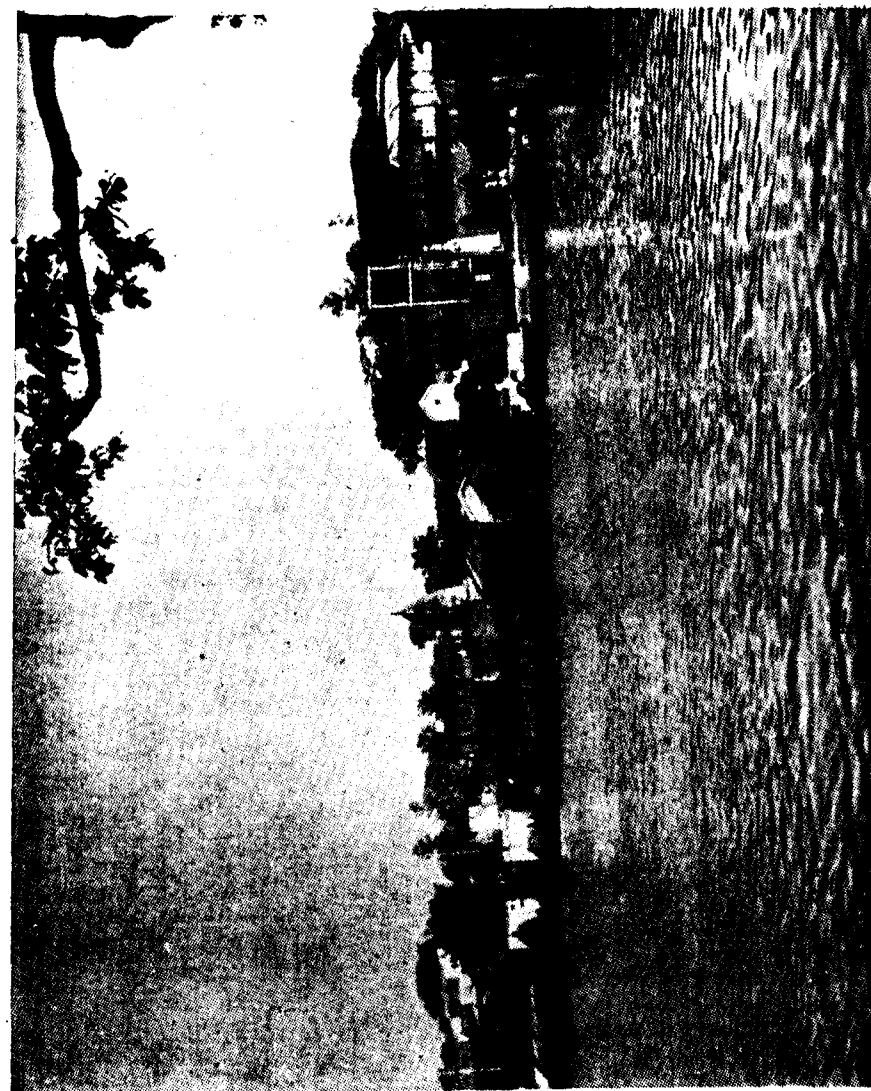
1	2	3
90.	Shri Daulat Rao Banjare, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 17-12-1943
91.	„ Digambar Rao Jain, Prabhat Pattan	6 months in 1942
92.	„ Dilloo Patel, Deo Piparia	3 years in 1942
93.	„ Damadia Lohar, Prabhat Pattan	2 years in 1942
94.	„ Doma Patel, Tiwarkhed	6 months in 1930
95.	„ Damji Maratha, Multai	In 1930 and 1942 (not established)
96.	„ Daulat Rao Kale, Tiwarkhed	1. 24-4-1932 to 28-8-1932 2. 11-6-1942 to 20-6-1942
97.	„ Gudi Gond, Ratamati	5 years in 1942
98.	„ Guru Bax Dhenusevak, Betul	1½ years in 1942
99.	„ Ganesh Datt Arya, Chicholi	1½ years in 1942
100.	„ Ganjan Sing S/O Dayal Sing Gond, Keli	8 years from 1930
101.	„ Ganjan Singh S/O Sukhram Korku, Barelipar	4 years in 1930 and 1942
102.	„ Govindrao Lahate, Betul	11 months detention in 1942
103.	„ Gendlal Badai, Khanjanpur	9 months detention in 1942
104.	„ Gorelal Chourasia, Betul Bazar	18 months detention in 1942
105.	„ Gulab Gond, Khapa	3 years imprisonment in 1930
106.	„ Ghanshyam Kurki, Betul Bazar	1 year imprisonment in 1941
107.	„ Gajju Gond, Mahendrawadi	30-9-42 to 23-2-1946
108.	„ Gannulal Rathore, Dolidhana	15 days in 1942 (not established)
109.	„ Ganpat Rao Khade, Narkhed	1 year in 1930, 1932, 1940 and 1942
110.	„ Ghanshyam Kasare, Prabhat Pattan	2 years in 1942
111.	„ Ganpat Rao, Kunbi, Narkhed	6 months in 1931
112.	„ Gyanji Badai, Narkhed	15 months in 1931
113.	„ Gangadhar Jain, Prabhat Pattan	1 year and 4 months during 1930-1932
114.	„ Ganga Prasad Raghubansi, Morkha	6 months in 1942
115.	„ Girdharilal Vishwakarma, Dunawa	4 months in 1930
116.	„ Ganpat Bhoi, Prabhat Pattan	15 days in 1942 (not established)
117.	„ Govind Rao Badai, Narkhed	In 1932 (not established)
118.	„ Gulab Rao Deshmukh (Maharashtra)	2 years rigorous imprisonment in 1942
119.	„ Gulab Rao Khanna, Deogaon	2½ years in 1942
120.	„ Gendlal, Ashti	1-10-1942 to 22-12-1943
121.	„ Ganpat Rao Kanade, Dhanora	In 1942 (not established)

1	2	3
122.	Shri Har Prasad Jain (Halwai), Kothi Bazar, Betul	In 1942 (not established)
123.	„ Hargovind Chourse	In 1942 (not established)
124.	„ Imratlal Rathore, Dolidhana	15 days in 1942 (not established)
125.	„ Jangu Singh Uike, Baretha	8 months during 1930, 1941 & 1942
126.	„ Jandan Gond, Ratamati	4 years in 1942
127.	„ Johra Gond, Ratamati	4-11-1942 to 27-4-1946
128.	„ Jinda Gond, Dolidhana	15 days in 1942 (not established)
129.	„ Jago Mali (Amraoti)	6 months in 1942
130.	„ Janya Nayab, Prabhat Pattan	In 1932 (not established)
131.	„ Jagannath Prasad Sheohare, Multai	One week in 1941 (not established)
132.	„ Jagroo Gond, Ashti	13-4-1932 to 18-2-1933
133.	„ Jaywant Rao Kanade, Dhanora	7 months in 1923
134.	„ Kishan Bhawsar, Betul	11 months detention in 1942
135.	„ Kishorilal Katore, Chicholi	10 months imprisonment in 1942
136.	„ Kishorilal Kalar, Chicholi	Detention from 11-9-1942 to 5-5-1943
137.	„ Kundan Rao Arya, Chicholi	6 months in 1942
138.	„ Kanhoo Gond, Kuppa	6 months in 1930 & 1942 (charges not established)
139.	„ Krishna Rao Nai, Prabhat Pattan	In 1942
140.	„ Kesheo Rao Makode, Prabhat Pattan	2 years in 1942
141.	„ Kesheo Rao Sohagpure, Multai	15 days detention in 1941
142.	„ Krishna Rao Arya	In 1941 (not established)
143.	„ Kesheo Rao Kharde, Prabhat Pattan	14-6-1940 to 18-6-1943
144.	„ Lala Prasad Arya, Betul Bazar	1½ years in 1941 & 1942
145.	„ Laxman Gond, Ratamati	4-11-1942 to 9-12-1942
146.	„ Latu Pradhan, Ratamati	10-11-1942 to 27-4-1946
147.	„ Lalman Kalar, Chicholi	1½ years in 1942
148.	„ Laxman alias Badri Badai, Tiwarkhed	2 years in 1942
149.	„ Laxman Malviya, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 30-6-1944
150.	„ Laxman Soni, Multai	13 months in 1930
151.	„ Laxman Rao Ambadkar, Bhainsdehi	20-8-1942 to 14-5-1943
152.	„ Lakhaji Korku, Vijaigram	In 1932
153.	„ Munshilal Gond, Mahendrawadi	4 years in 1942
154.	„ Mahakram Gond, Khapa	2 years in 1930
155.	„ Makdan Gond, Mahendrawadi	30-9-1942 to 30-3-1945

1	2	3
156.	Shri Machal Gond, Ratamati	4-11-1942 to 26-2-1944
157.	„ Mahajan Gond, Ghodadongri	4-11-1942 to 16-6-1945
158.	„ Maha Singh, Dolidhana	25-9-1942 to 14-6-1944
159.	„ Mansu Ojha, Ghodadongri	2 years in 1942
160.	„ Maujilal Patne, Tiwarkheda	2 years in 1942
161.	„ Manchit Rao Deshmukh, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 17-12-1943
162.	„ Mahadeo Teli, Prabhat Pattan	2 years in 1942
163.	„ Maroti Rao Machhde, Prabhat Pattan	4 years in 1942
164.	„ Maniram Khade, Narkhed	6 months in 1931
165.	„ Mahadev Garpagari, Birul	7 months in 1930
166.	„ Malluji Khade, Narkhed	15 months in 1931
167.	„ Mangal Kumhar, Prabhat Pattan	15 days detention in 1942 (not established)
168.	„ Madya Kunbi, Narkhed	6 months in 1932 (released on appeal)
169.	„ Nanku Gond, Ratamati	30-9-42 to 29-12-45
170.	„ Nana Rao Khanna, Deogaon	4 years in 1942
171.	„ Nattha Kunbi, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 30-6-1944
172.	„ Namdeo Falke, Prabhat Pattan	1 year in 1942
173.	„ Narayan Kunbi, Prabhat Pattan	2 years in 1942
174.	„ Nago Mahajan, Prabhat Pattan	In 1942
175.	„ Nandlal Kalar, (Bhandara)	In 1942 under detention
176.	„ Neel Kanth Rao Dhote, Prabhat Pattan	1 year in 1942 (released on appeal)
177.	„ Nago S/O Chango, Birul	In 1930 (not established)
178.	„ Nimbaji Mahale, Malegaon	2 years in 1942
179.	„ Paranya Mali, Prabhat Pattan	2 years in 1942
180.	„ Pyarelal Raghubansi, Morkha	6 months in 1942
181.	„ Punya Mali, Umraoti	3-10-1942 to 10-1-1944
182.	„ Pandu Nagle, Prabhat Pattan	15 days detention in 1942 (not established)
183.	„ Punjya Guhade, Bordehi	In 1931 (not established)
184.	„ Ram Murti Choube, (Betul) Kothi Bazar	14 months detention in 1942
185.	„ Ratanlal Arya, Chicholi	9 months detention in 1942
186.	„ Ram Datt Sharma, Betul	9 months detention in 1942
187.	„ Ramharsh Singh, Chicholi	9 months detention in 1942
188.	„ Ram Dulare Soni, Kothi Bazar, Betul	1½ years detention in 1942
189.	„ Ram Prasad Kurmi, Betul	10 months imprisonment in 1942

1	2	3
190.	Shri Ratangir Goswami, Khedi Saoligarh	6 months in 1930 (a 6 months bail in 1945)
191.	„ Ratan Gond, Mahendrawadi	4-11-1942 to 23-2-1944
192.	„ Ramkrishan Arya, Chicholi	21-8-1942 to 14-5-1943 in detention
193.	„ Rao Singh Gond, Kanhegaon	6½ months in 1930, 1940 & 1942
194.	„ Radhelal Luhar, Dolidhana	9 days in 1942 (not established)
195.	„ Rameshwar Khade, Narkhed	4 years in 1942
196.	„ Ram Gopal Lakhera, Morkha	6 months in 1942
197.	„ Ram Rao Sonare, Prabhat Pattan	2 years in 1942
198.	„ Ram Rao Malvi, Prabhat Pattan	6 months in 1942
199.	„ Rameshwar Dayal Agrawal, Multai	15 days detention in 1942 (not established)
200.	„ Roop Chand Sahu, Narkhed	3 months in 1932 (not established)
201.	„ Radhelal Horne, Dhanora	7 months in 1923
202.	„ Ramji Korku, Malegaon	6-4-1932 to 20-1-1933
203.	„ Raghoba Mahale, Malegaon	16-4-1932 to 24-2-1933
204.	„ Soamdatt Sure, Chicholi	6 months in 1933 6 months in 1939 6 months detention in 1942
205.	„ Shamlal Kirad, Nahia	1½ years in 1942
206.	„ Sumer Gond, Banjaridhal	2 years in 1930 (released on bail)
207.	„ Sheo Charan Verma Azadward, Betul	9 months detention in 1942
208.	„ Sakan Gond, Sataldehi	1½ years imprisonment in 1930
209.	„ Surat Gond, Sataldehi	1½ years imprisonment in 1930
210.	„ Summa Gond, Sataldehi	2 years in 1930
211.	„ Shyamrao Maratha, Tilakpura, Betul	1½ years in 1942
212.	„ Sadasheo Sharma, Betulganj	1 year in 1942
213.	„ Sukhnandan Gond, Koilari	4-11-1942 to 6-4-1946
214.	„ Sukali Gond, Mahendrawadi	7 years in 1942 (released on 29-12-1943)
215.	„ Sheokishore Kalar, Chicholi	2 years in 1942
216.	„ Sheodeen Kalar, Chicholi	21-8-1942 to 4-9-1943
217.	„ Shamoo Gond, Ratamati	In 1942 (not established)
218.	„ Shyamlal Gond, Ratamati	In 1942 (not established)
219.	„ Sukh Mangal Singh, Chicholi	In 1942
220.	„ Shobharam Verma, Mayawadi	2 years in 1942
221.	„ Shrayan Jharwade, Magonakalan	4 years in 1942
222.	„ Shukhlal Mishtri, Morkha	6 months in 1942
223.	„ Shahbu Soni, Andharia	20-10-1942 to 28-4-1945

1	2	3
224.	Shri Shyam Rao Barai, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 30-6-1944
225.	„ Sitaram S/O Jiwatiya Kolhe, Prabhat Pattan	20-10-1942 to 30-6-1944
226.	„ Sitaram S/O Raoji Kunbi, Prabhat Pattan	20-8-1942 to 7-5-1943
227.	„ Shravan Mali, Birul	7 months in 1930
228.	„ Shyamlal Patne, Amla	4½ years in 1942
229.	„ Salik Ram Soni, Amla	1½ years in 1942
230.	„ Shyamlal Chourse, Tiwarkhed	1½ years in 1942
231.	„ Sewa Ram Jawane, Tiwarkhed	1½ years in 1942
232.	„ Sunderlal Sikkewal, Prabhat Pattan	20-4-1942 to 20-6-1944
233.	„ Shankar Rao Pande, Prabhat Pattan	In 1941 (not established)
234.	„ Sitaram Badai, Prabhat Pattan	15 days detention in 1941
235.	„ Shabhash Khan, Prabhat Pattan	6 months in 1932 (not established)
236.	„ Shambhaji, Tiwarkhed	7 months from 23-1-1933
237.	„ Soammarpuri Goswami, Multai	9-8-1942 to 28-11-1942 in detention 16-12-1942 to 31-1-1943 imprisonment
238.	„ Tulsi Gond, Sataldehi	2 years in 1930
239.	„ Tannu Gond, Ratamati	4-11-1942 to 9-4-1946
240.	„ Toma Gond, Ratamati	4-11-1942 to 6-4-1946
241.	„ Tamal Singh Gond, Mahendrawadi	4-11-1942 to 6-4-1946
242.	„ Trilokinath Bhargav, Betul Ganj	24-8-1942 to 6-1-1945
243.	„ Trilokinath S/O Laxminarayan Bhargav, Multai	23-8-1942 to 9-9-1943
244.	„ Tanba Kunbi, Narkhed	2 years in 1932
245.	„ Tulsi Ram Sheohare, Prabhat Pattan	2 years in 1942 (released on appeal)
246.	„ Udai Gond, Ratamati	In 1942 (not established)
247.	„ Vishnu Singh Gond, Ghodadongri	7 years in 1942 (released on 27-4-1946)
248.	„ Vyankat Rao Lakhudkar, Prabhat Pattan	15 days detention in 1942
249.	„ Zabbar Singh Gond, Katiya Koylari	5 years in 1942 (not established)



Multai Tank



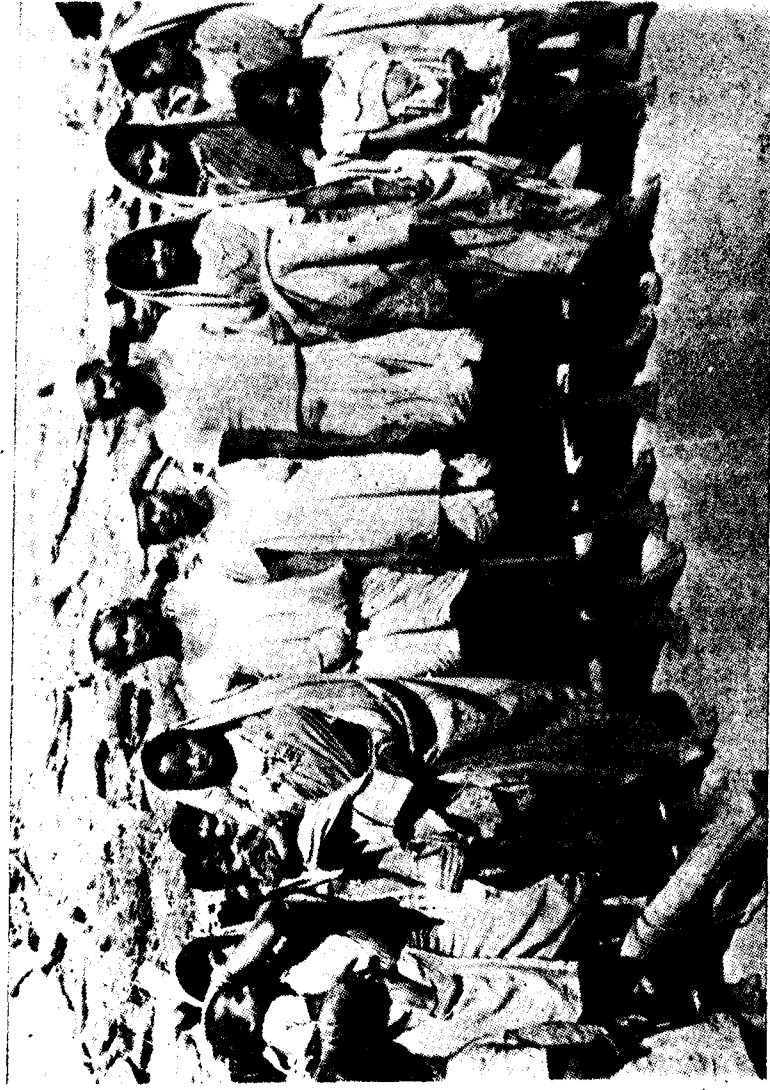
Popularly believed source of the Tapti, Multai



Ruins of Kherla Fort



Another view of the ruins of Kherla fort



The Gonds of Betul



Korku Women and Children



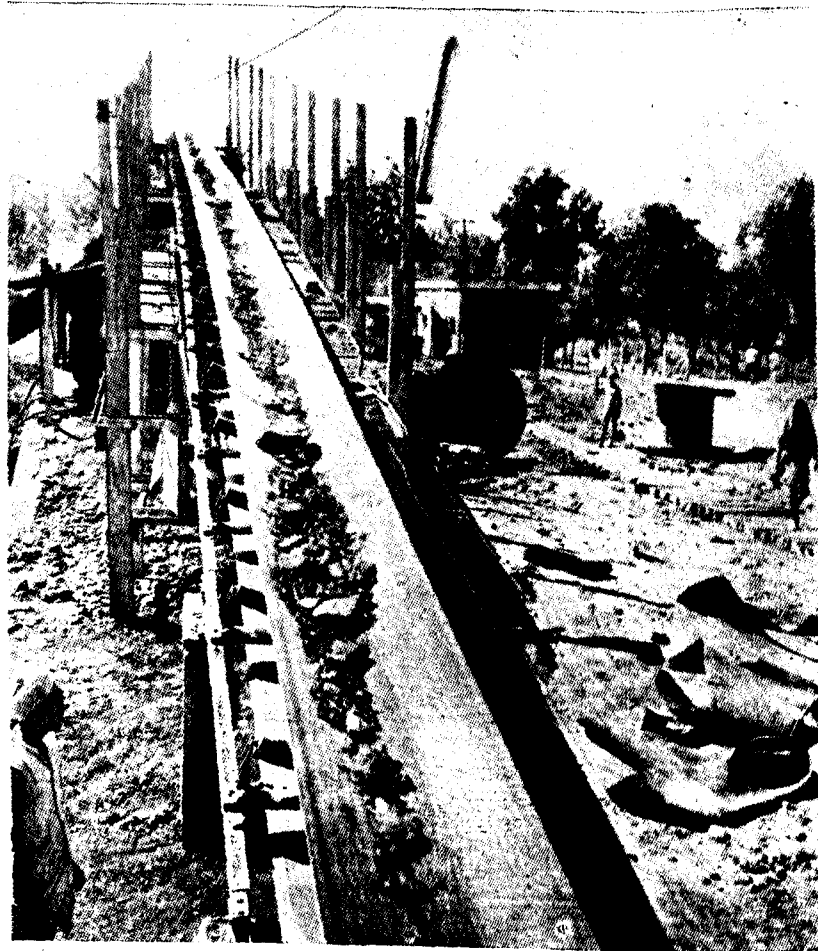
Gond Damsels



Sugarcane Cultivation in Sampna Command Area



Satpura Thermal Station, Sarni



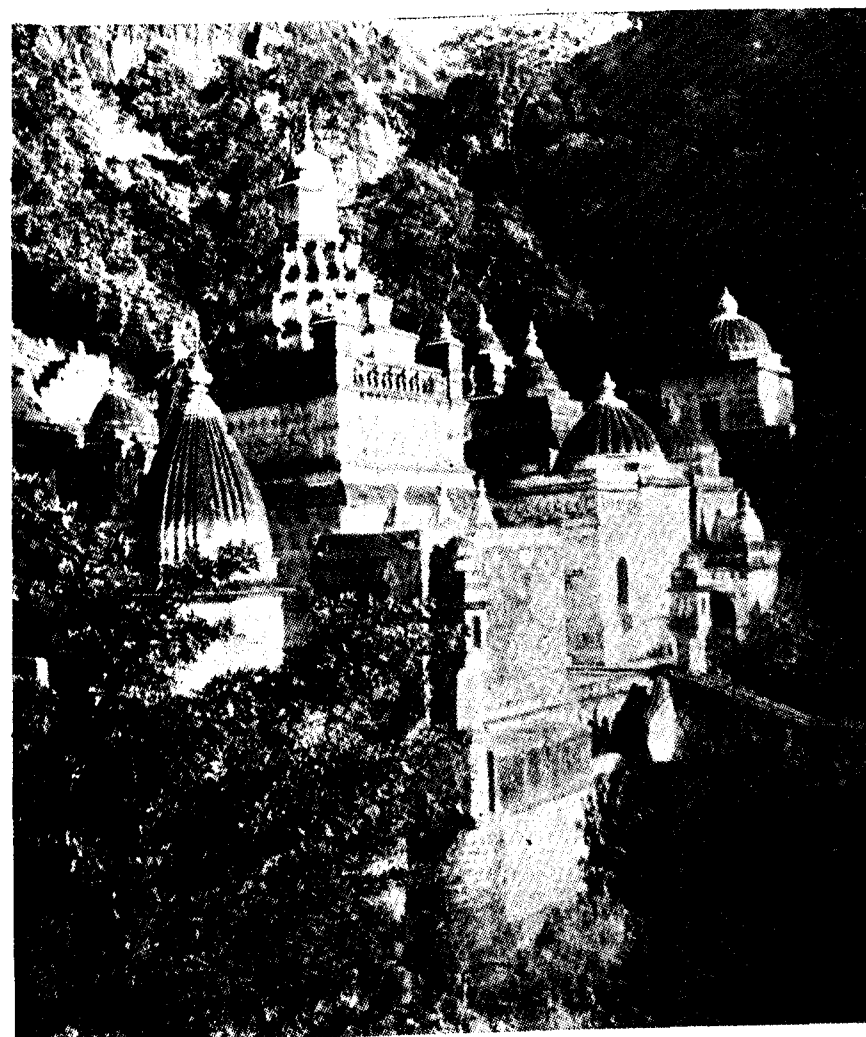
A view of coal conveyer-belt, Pathakheda Coal mine



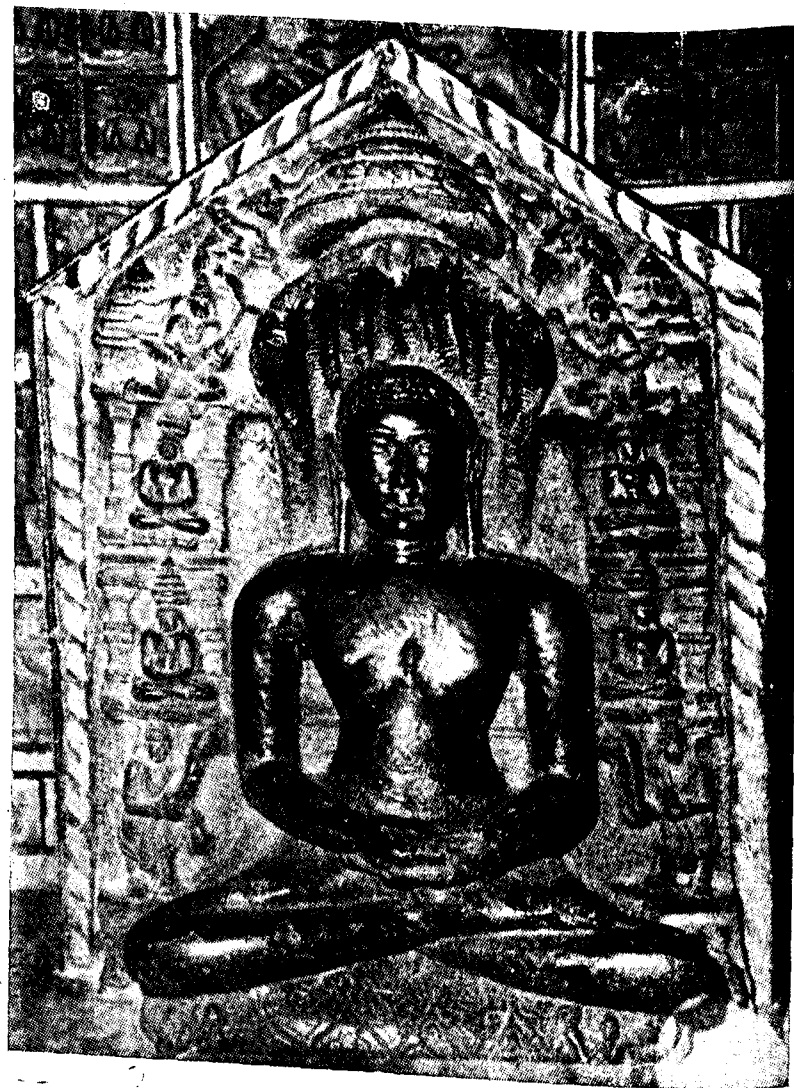
Shiva Temple, Bhainsdehi



A sculptured pillar of the Shiva temple, Bhainsdehi



Jain Temples, Muktagiri



Statue of Parshvanath, Muktagiri



A Korku, Betul



Salla dance of Korkus, Betul



Waterfall, Parasdoh



Refugees at Shahpur, Betul

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INDEX

- ABNA 216**
 Achalapura 37, 38, 149, 153, 208, 209, 213, 445, 446
 Achhavata 36
 Adarsh Dhanora 354
 Aden 44
 Adnura Deva Baba ka Khora 438
 Adil Khan 47
 Adna 211
 Africa 77
 Agnimitra 35
 Agra 9, 76, 152
 Agricultural Produce (Development and Warehousing) Corporation Act 195
 Agriculturists Loan Act 160, 164, 191
 Ahmad Shah 42, 43, 44
 Ajhra 45
 Akbar 2, 48, 49
 —Shah 50
 Akola 37
 Akori 15
 Alampur 7
 Ala-ud-din Hasan Gungoo 42
 Alfred Lyall, Sir 45
 Ali Shah 49
 Allahabad 55, 430
 Amala 427
 Amba 24
 Ambheriaraka 37
 Ambhora 9, 347
 Amdhana 213
 America 77, 131, 132, 230
 Amla 1, 3, 4, 18, 19, 20, 21, 26, 28, 32, 52, 57, 58, 69, 73, 77, 78, 121, 141, 152, 153, 158, 170, 172, 173, 175, 178, 179, 180, 181, 184, 185, 186, 187, 194, 206, 209, 211, 212, 217, 219, 243, 245, 297, 298, 300, 313, 322, 345, 374, 381, 382, 384, 390, 417, 434, 436, 441
 Amner 50
 Amoghavarsha 38
 Amraoti 1, 8, 9, 25, 27, 37, 75, 76, 131, 153, 158, 171, 210, 216, 420, 445, 446, 447, 450
 Andharia 11
 Andhra 137
 Ankawani 15, 20
 Annie Besant 63
 Anuppur 175
 Appa Saheb 54, 55, 56, 57, 58
 Arthapati 37
 Arthur, Mayne 196
 Arya Samaj 63
 Ashta 4, 52
 Asia 77
 Asir 18, 20, 30, 159
 Asirgarh 5, 6, 58, 434
 Asoka 35
 Assair 61
 Assam 17
 Athnair 4, 7, 8, 32, 33, 52, 80, 119, 165, 179, 181, 206, 211, 212, 213, 245, 257, 298, 313, 345, 354, 361, 370, 383, 386, 390, 399, 406, 415, 435, 437, 439, 490
 Athner 34, 210
 Atner 4, 62
 Aurangzeb 40, 49, 85, 450
 Australia 182
 Awasthi 64
BABAI 52
 Baba Saheb Khaparde 64
 Bachai 16
 Badami 37, 38
 Badnur 2, 3, 6, 8, 10, 33, 59, 78, 83, 163, 210, 298, 320, 321, 324, 325, 348, 360, 369, 373, 375, 376, 391, 419, 421, 430, 431, 436
 Badnur Dhana 2
 Bagdara 438
 Baghoda 11, 382, 388, 432
 Bagra 10
 Bahadur Shah 48
 Bairagarh 46
 Bajadehi 111
 Bajaj, Jamanalal 64
 Bakar 16
 Bakhari 15
 Bakhed 115
 Bakht Buland 49, 50
 Bakti 9
 Bakur 24
 Balaghat 136
 Balkheda 115

- Bamla 376
 Banda 62
 Bandara 58
 Banjardhal 66
 Banka 30
 Banking Regulation Act 194
 Baradha 9, 73
 Barakhari 67
 Barbatpur 28, 119, 217, 449
 Barchi 16
 Bardha 4
 Baretha 159
 Barghat 50
 Barkhed 152, 153, 312
 Barvi 152, 312
 Barwhi 386
 Basbardi 16
 Basim 37
 Bastar 37, 148
 Basti 2
 Batla 1
 Becher, Lt. 56
 Beharam 153
 Beharilal 68, 364
 Bel 6, 8, 57, 121
 Belund 376
 Benares 39
 Bengal 36, 56, 137, 156
 Bengal Rent Act 270
 Beni Singh 52, 259
 Berar 1, 37, 38, 39, 41, 43, 44, 46, 47, 49, 50, 53, 55, 59, 75, 80, 83, 86, 110, 131, 171, 201, 206, 210, 257, 421, 442, 443
 Berdehi 216
 Beroli Ghat 53
 Betul 217
 Betulganj 361
 Bhadu Gond 53
 Bhagat Singh 67
 Bhainsdehi 4, 7, 33, 34, 49, 52, 62, 68, 71, 72, 74, 75, 76, 77, 80, 81, 83, 84, 85, 93, 106, 111, 112, 115, 119, 123, 124, 138, 145, 146, 149, 151, 153, 157, 165, 179, 180, 181, 183, 190, 193, 202, 204, 206, 207, 210, 211, 213, 219, 243, 245, 250, 251, 252, 254, 262, 263, 267, 269, 274, 277, 280, 287, 292, 298, 299, 307, 308, 310, 311, 313, 315, 322, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337, 339, 341, 342, 344, 345, 346, 348, 350, 353, 354, 357, 361, 374, 377, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 386, 388, 390, 400, 405, 406, 409, 415, 417, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 435, 436, 437, 438, 439, 445
 Bhalerao 63
 Bhangi 5, 6, 7, 8
 Bhangra 318
 Bhanora 64
 Bhanwargarh 5, 6, 7, 18, 19, 20, 23, 24, 28, 30, 52, 438
 Bharanga 10
 Bharkach 6
 Bhaura 173, 313, 386, 434
 Bhavadatta Varman 37
 Bhawe, Acharya Vinoba 278
 Bhawra 14
 Bhayawari 376
 Bheran 56
 Bhimpur 80, 152, 154, 178, 204, 206, 211, 216, 245, 312, 381, 382, 384, 388, 390, 409, 415
 Bhimsen 448
 Bhongar 441
 Bhonsla 3
 Bhopal 1, 3, 15, 52, 53, 61, 71, 172, 214, 220, 254, 283, 303, 305, 311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 350, 380, 396, 397, 430, 436
 Bhopali 16, 110, 438
 Bhusawal 9
 Bidar 48
 Bihar 17, 70, 135, 180
 Bijadehi 4, 152, 383
 Bijaseni 16
 Bikatghat 210
 Bilaspur 175, 405
 Birool 152, 153, 312, 382, 388, 390, 439
 Blacker, Colonel 58
 Bodhan 9
 Bolland 59
 Bombay 9, 14, 137, 182, 254, 366, 430
 Borai 9
 Bordehi 3, 58, 61, 73, 83, 152, 180, 211, 212, 297, 322, 382, 390
 Bordha 3
 Boreheda 52
 Borgaon 51, 450
 Bori 4
 Bose, Subhas Chandra 68
 Brahman Samaj 63
 Brake, Dr. 374
 Britain 68, 70
 British 3, 4, 9
 Budnaira 209
 Budnoor 209
 Buglatteer-Ghat 53
 Bundela Rising 59
 Bundelakhand 36, 161, 230
 Burhanpur 9, 201, 443
 Burhan Shah 50, 51, 52
 Burma 28
 Bursalie 217

CALCUTTA 430

- California 137
 Cattle Trespass Act 305, 340
 Central Charitable Endowment Act 416
 Central India 29, 36, 37, 61, 76, 83, 164
 Central Provinces 3, 52, 54, 60, 67, 164, 174, 199, 216, 270, 288, 297, 298, 301, 310, 319, 320, 332, 334, 336, 342, 343, 348, 349, 351, 357, 368, 370, 373, 374, 416, 419, 420, 421, 422
 —Courts Act 289, 290, 291, 294
 —Debt Conciliation Act 291
 —Land Alienation Act 272
 —Game Act 29
 —Local Self Government Act 267, 268, 320, 321, 322, 331, 334, 335, 342
 —Medical Registration Act 370
 —Municipal Act 320
 —Protection of Debtors' Act 189
 —Revenue Act 332
 —Tenancy Act 271, 292
 —Vaccination Law Amendment Act 374
 —Village Panchayat Act 342
 —Village Sanitation Act 389
 Central Provinces and Berar 280, 292, 375, 398, 414, 420, 422, 426
 —Debt Conciliation Act 189, 193
 —Excise Act 283
 —Grazing and Nistar Act 277
 —Moneylenders' Act 189
 —Municipalities Act 332, 333, 325, 326
 —Nyaya Panchayat Act 307
 —Panchayat Act 268, 305, 343, 345,
 —Prisons (Amendment) Act 302, 303
 —Prohibition Act 398
 —Relief of Indebtedness Act 292
 —Religious and Charitable Trusts Act 416
 —Revision of land Revenue of Mahals Act 265
 —Revocation of Land Revenue Exemption Act 265, 269, 418
 —Sales Tax Act 285
 —Scheduled Castes (Removal of Civil Disabilities) Act 414
 —State Aid to Industries Act 199
 —Temple Entry Authorisation Act 414
 Chachundra 262
 Champaner 48
 Chanda 40
 Chandel 210
 Chandev 9
 Chandji 43
 Chandni 28
 Chandora 118, 315
 Chandra Gupta 37
 Chandrapur 10
 Chandra Shah, Thakur 53
 Chand Sultan Shah 49, 50
 Chandu 20, 152, 153, 262, 312, 386
 Charitable and Religious Endowment Act 416
 Charles Arthur Molony 55
 —Grand 54
 Charter Act 281
 Chaturvedi, Makhanlal 64
 Chatwa 2, 49
 Chawhan, Subhadra Kumari 64
 Chaurarh 438
 Chelmsford, Lord 282, 322
 Chhapana 55
 Chhatisgarh 136, 422
 Chhawal 111
 Chherpa 11, 209
 Chhindwara 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9, 11, 49, 56, 61, 62, 73, 75, 85, 131, 143, 162, 170, 199, 209, 210, 212, 216, 217, 254, 259, 292, 294, 297, 307, 311, 315, 374, 376, 377, 391, 420, 423, 426, 428, 429, 446, 449
 Chhиту 58
 Chicholi 4, 5, 7, 11, 18, 34, 69, 152, 153, 162, 177, 179, 180, 181, 205, 209, 210, 211, 216, 245, 298, 312, 313, 374, 382, 388, 390, 406, 409, 424, 426, 427, 431, 439, 440, 444, 448
 Chichonda 209, 217
 Chickalmai 15
 Chikalda 1, 9
 Chikhali 382
 Chikhar 66
 Chikhar 67
 Chikhli 213
 —Kalan 385
 Chiklar 15, 174
 Chilhati 211, 382, 388
 Chilkapur 11, 211, 213
 Chilor 4
 Chilpokna 7
 Churia 166
 Chirapatla 4, 210, 448
 Choghra 4
 Chopna 317
 Chunahazuri 159, 382
 Chunalohama 382
 Civil Procedure Act 288
 Co-operative Societies Act 307, 308
 Crosthwaite 319, 332
 Cumming, Major 57
 Cunningham, General 36

DABKA 18, 23, 25, 27, 28, 1791 210

Dabri 259
 Dahawadhana 10
 Damjipura 3, 8, 152, 153, 262, 312, 334, 354, 386
 Damuda 173
 Dantidurga 38
 Dantivarman 38
 Darya Khan 41
 Daryakho 5, 9, 10
 Dautalabad 41
 Deccan 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 46, 47, 48
 Delhi 1, 9, 40, 135, 180, 181, 182, 217, 430, 431
 Denva 10
 Deogaon 4, 52, 69, 255
 Deogarh 2, 40, 49, 50, 51, 52, 208, 443
 Deogiri 41
 Deoji 444
 Deo Rao Patel 63
 Devchand Thakur 417
 Dhabadeo 7
 Dhala 4, 209
 Dhamangaon 354
 Dhanora 110, 159, 415, 439, 440
 Dhansee 209
 Dhar 8, 11, 159, 209
 Dharakhoh 148, 186, 217
 Dhara-Nagari 85
 Dharmadhikari S. T. 67
 Dharmapala 38
 Dharwar 11
 Dhaser 173
 Dhatrang 9
 Dhaul 52
 Dhekna 211
 Dhodia Mohar 10
 Dhodramau 410
 Dhodra Mohar 1, 111, 158, 185, 186, 217
 Dhola 86
 Dhote, Baburao 67, 68, 69,
 Dhruva Nirupama 38
 Diwakar Rao Patel 64
 Dohia 376
 Dubka 20
 Dudhia 440
 Dulhara 15, 173
 Dulkeria 16
 Dunawa 4, 6, 164, 165, 345
 Dunda Borgaon 115
 Dunewa 152
 Durgaraja 37
 Duyan Mul Sabha 63

EAST NIMAR 6, 146, 158, 262

—Pakistan 79, 115, 299, 317, 385, 449, 450
 Edlabad 9
 Elgin, Lord 321
 Ellichpur 2, 5, 39, 40, 42, 43, 46, 47, 49, 111, 162, 209, 210, 216
 Ellora 38, 39
 Employees, Provident Fund Act 185
 —State Insurance Act 185, 396
 Employment Exchange (Compulsory Notification of Vacancies) Act 243
 England 67, 83
 Enkawari 16
 Epidemic Diseases Act 373
 Raghvendra Rao, E. 64
 Erskine 59
 European 9, 77, 158, 182,
 Excise Act 297

FACTORIES ACT 177, 181, 185

Fatehpur 61
 Fermor, L. L. Dr. 174
 Fernandez, E. E. 25
 Firishta 442
 Firoz Shah 41, 42, 83
 First Five Year Plan 117, 118, 233, 234, 239, 244, 345, 352, 354, 364, 365, 385, 404, 410
 —World War 28, 63, 181, 230, 231, 236, 237
 Forest Act 25
 Forsyth, J. F. Captain 29
 France 158

GADNAKHAR 19

Gafur Khan 51
 Gagraun 43
 Gajanan Patel 64
 Gambling Act 103, 297
 Gandhi, Mahatma M. K. 66, 67, 68, 70, 324
 Ganjal 1, 3, 9
 Ganjan Korku 66
 Ganpat Rao 53
 Gargud 115
 Garha 40
 Gaur 208
 Gautamiputra Satakarni 36
 Gauthana 15, 174
 Gawilgarh 11, 55
 Gayadeen 259
 Ghana 16
 Ghat 53
 Ghazni Khan 45

—Women's Right to Property Act 99

Hirdee 4
 Hiradehi 210
 Hiralal 347
 Hirapur 155, 317, 318, 391
 Hirdagarh 175
 Hiwarkhedi 212, 213,
 Hobhouse, Sir Charles 322
 Home Guards Act 300, 301
 Home Rule League 63
 Hoshangabad 1, 3, 8, 25, 35, 46, 52, 53, 55, 56, 57, 59, 61, 62, 73, 75, 76, 83, 86, 158, 170, 171, 181, 194, 201, 208, 209, 291, 292, 294, 311, 312, 314, 315, 349, 350, 365, 374, 375, 378, 420, 423, 426, 439
 Hoshang Shah 42, 43, 44, 45, 46
 —Ghori 84, 86
 Hyderabad 36, 38

INCOME TAX ACT 283

India 8, 9, 33, 35, 63, 77, 79, 138, 175, 182, 199, 233, 249, 253, 280, 302, 377, 378, 401, 420, 430, 449.
 Indian Companies Act 417
 —Councils Act 419, 420
 —Factories Act 176, 394, 397
 —Independence Act 70
 —National Congress 63
 —Registration Act 287
 —Trade Union Act 396, 397
 Indore 181, 200, 254, 376, 394, 395, 396, 397
 Indraraja 38
 Industrial Disputes Act 396, 397
 Irwin 67
 Itarsi 1, 72, 73, 76, 119, 158, 186, 202, 209, 210, 216, 217, 254, 313, 376, 436, 438, 448, 449
 Itawah 61

HAKSAR JAYAWANTI BAI 362

Jabalpur 3, 13, 15, 55, 59, 125, 157, 236, 291, 294, 300, 315, 349, 380, 397, 421, 422, 430
 Jagdhar 7
 Jaipal 2
 Jairam Pant 53
 Jaitpal 39, 347
 Jainagar 42
 Jalaukuhe 37
 Jamai 61
 Jamathi 417
 Jambada 217
 Jambudip 5
 Jamdi 376
 Jamgarh 4, 5, 52, 259
 Jam Kodra 376

Janapada Act 339
 Janawani 15
 Janoji 54
 Japanese 28
 Jashpur 55
 Jatiba 49
 Jatindra Nath 47
 Jatwa 2
 Jaulkhera 217
 Jaura 382
 Jeen 166, 382
 Jenkins 56
 Jewarkhed 69, 170, 382
 Jhallar 4, 7, 32, 149, 152, 209, 210, 213, 354
 Jhansi 61
 Jharkhund 16
 Jones, Captain 58
 Jubbulpore—See Jabalpur
 Jury Put 56

KAISEA 4

Kajali 441
 Kalapakhan 8
 Kalfa Durrah 53
 Kalibhit 7, 9
 Kalidas 35
 Kanara 37, 175
 Kanari 3
 Kanauj 208
 Kangra 17
 Kanhan 7, 8
 Kanji Talao 20
 Kanojia 441
 —Bhonsle 50
 Kantawari 30
 Karkkaraja 38
 Karnataka 38
 Kartalab Khan 49
 Kashitalao 438
 Kasturba Gandhi 64
 Katasur 15
 Kathiawar 35
 Katni Bazar 2
 Kellode 53
 Kenrick, W. H. 375
 Keolajhar 16
 Keriya 376
 Kesia 382
 Kesla 73, 209
 Khairi 209
 Khamapur 4, 24, 213
 Khamla 8, 21, 138, 149, 152, 213, 386
 Khandesh 8, 9, 41, 44

Khandu 9
 Khandwa 9, 45, 212, 254, 430
 Khan Jahan 43
 —Khanan 41
 Khapa 15, 118
 Khaperkheda 172
 Khargone 62
 Kharpi 211, 216, 445
 Kharpura 6
 Khedi 119, 152, 153, 211, 312, 361, 386
 Khedisaoigarh 342, 345
 Khedili Bazar 153
 Khekaria 15
 Khemji 43
 Kheri 7, 18, 159, 216
 Kherla 2, 3, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48,
 49, 50, 51, 83, 88, 208, 347, 442, 443, 444
 Kherli 390
 Khetakapura 442
 Khidia 35
 Khirki 45
 Khirkiya 158
 Khurpura 1
 Kilendeo 5, 18
 Kilroe, E. G. 353
 Koba Gond 66,
 Kol 16
 Kolhia 317
 Kondalis 36
 Kondhar 83
 Konkan 37
 Koolajhir 23
 Korean 230
 Kosal Rai 44
 Kota 9
 Kothalkund 213, 386
 Kothi Bazar 11, 155, 301, 419
 Krishnan, M. S. Dr. 174
 Krishna Rao Dhamadhikari 64
 Kukru 18, 20, 23, 27, 159
 Kund Bukaju 4
 Kundi 119
 Kuppa 14
 Kursana 448

LADI 18, 21

Lahas Kukru 415
 Lalawadi 441
 Land Improvement Loans Act 160, 191
 Land Revenue Act 272
 Larkhana 79
 Lattarula 38
 Latur 38
 Local Self Government Act 337, 340

Lokhartail 209
 Londiya 16
 Lonia 24
 Low, Captain 256
 Lucknow 430

MACHNA 8, 10, 18, 19, 20, 58, 120, 155, 391, 442, 449

Macleon 60
 Madhavasena 35
 Madhoji Bhonsle 52
 Madhya Pradesh 1, 3, 27, 37, 38, 62, 63, 65,
 76, 79, 114, 117, 137, 173, 193, 240, 280,
 301, 314, 315, 320, 324, 356, 357, 360, 365,
 380, 387, 392, 395, 397, 398, 446, 449
 —Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates
 Mahals and Alienated) Lands Act
 265, 266, 274, 277
 —Agricultural Raiyats and Tenants
 (Acquisition of Privileges) Act 274
 —Bhoodan Yagna Act 278
 —Compulsory Primary Education Act 355,
 356
 —Civil Courts Act 292, 308
 —Industrial Employment (Standing Orders)
 Act 396
 —Fixation of Minimum Wages Act 185
 —General Sales Tax Act 285
 —Industrial Relations Act 396
 —Minimum Wages Fixation Act 242, 392,
 393, 396
 —Municipalities Act 321, 323, 326, 327
 —Panchayats Act 268, 324, 346
 —Protection of Scheduled Tribes (Interest
 in Trees) Act 276
 —Public Trusts Act 416
 —Refuse (Conversion into Manure) Act
 140, 156, 175
 —Shops and Establishment Act 425, 226,
 227, 394, 396, 397
 —Weight and Measures (Enforcement) Act
 207

Madras 1, 182, 217, 230, 430
 Mahadeo 55
 Mahadeva 5
 Mahakoshal 314
 Maharashtra 1, 9, 10, 35, 75, 80, 171, 172, 194,
 204, 264, 445, 447
 Maheskar 46
 Mahmudabad 46
 Mahmud I, 45, 47
 —Begada 46
 —Gawan 47
 —Khalji 45, 46, 48

—Shah Lashkari 47
 Mahur 41, 46
 Main 8
 Malajpur 11, 153, 170
 Malleson, Colonel 61
 Malwa 35, 37, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49,
 83, 86, 208, 443
 Manajar 46
 Mandanpur 14, 15
 Mandhavi 354, 386
 Mandi Khurd 16
 Mandla 40, 52, 58, 73, 422
 Mandu 43, 44, 46, 48
 Mandvee 4
 Mandvi 361
 Mandwi 52
 Manyakhet 38
 Maqbul Khan 48
 Maramjhiri 15, 217
 Maratha 2
 Mardongri 16
 Markha 180
 Marshall, General 58
 Martin 73
 Maru 4, 8, 110, 448
 Marud 50
 Masod 4, 7, 52, 118, 152, 153, 164, 165, 210,
 212, 216, 312, 386, 424, 425, 426, 428, 429,
 448
 Masdud Khan 45
 Matyardeo 6
 Mayo, Lord 320
 Mcpherson, Major 55, 56, 57
 Medlicott 173
 Mehpat Shah 49
 Melghat 1, 23, 56, 57
 Mhow 181, 209
 Michael, Major General 62
 Mihira Bhoja Pratihara 38
 Milanpur 120
 Mir Bahadur 50
 Mir Fuzl Ullah Anjoo 41
 Mohagaon 342
 Mohanlal 417
 Mohda 313
 Mohta 4, 32, 370, 383
 Mohupani 159
 Mantague 282, 322
 Mont Ford 342
 Mooltye 171
 Morand 1, 3, 5, 6, 8, 18
 Morea 4
 Morley, Lord 342
 Morshi 313
 Morsi 448

- Motidhana 449
 Motor Transport Act 396
 —Transport Workers Act 397
 —Vehicles Taxation Act 286
 Mountbattan, Lord 70
 Mowad 357
 Mowar 21
 Mudhoji 54
 Mughal 2
 Muhammad Shah Bahmani 47
 —Ghuri 45
 Mukund Raj Swami 39, 208, 347, 442
 Muktagiri 83, 110, 211, 216, 445
 Mulkapur 60
 Mulk Raj Swami 2
 Multai 2, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 32, 33, 34, 37, 49, 50, 51, 52, 55, 57, 58, 61, 62, 63, 68, 71, 72, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 84, 85, 104, 106, 110, 111, 112, 114, 115, 117, 118, 119, 123, 124, 140, 141, 146, 151, 152, 153, 155, 157, 162, 164, 165, 171, 172, 175, 180, 184, 190, 193, 194, 202, 203, 204, 206, 207, 208, 209, 210, 212, 213, 216, 219, 223, 224, 243, 244, 245, 250, 252, 254, 262, 263, 265, 269, 274, 277, 280, 287, 292, 297, 298, 299, 303, 307, 310, 312, 313, 315, 321, 322, 323, 324, 325, 326, 328, 329, 330, 332, 334, 335, 336, 337, 338, 341, 342, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 350, 354, 360, 361, 369, 376, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 386, 388, 389, 390, 391, 400, 404, 407, 415, 417, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 431, 432, 435, 436, 437, 439, 441, 446, 447, 448, 450
 Multal 181
 Mundadeo 5
 Muthni 16

NADA 30

 NagaBhatta II 38
 Nagari 85
 Nagpur 1, 2, 3, 29, 37, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 61, 62, 64, 67, 72, 76, 83, 118, 144, 157, 158, 170, 171, 172, 201, 204, 209, 210, 216, 217, 236, 253, 256, 278, 288, 291, 320, 343, 347, 349, 351, 368, 374, 420, 430, 436, 441, 443, 446, 448, 449
 Nahan 135
 Nahia 69, 180
 Nala 37
 Nalcha 47
 Nanaghat 35
 Nana Saheb 61
 Nanda 19, 20, 211, 213, 406, 415
 Nandarwara 52
 Nandivardhan 37, 38
 Nannaraja 37, 38, 446
 Naran 7
 Narayan Swami 64
 Narendra 361
 —Sena 37
 Narera 111
 Narkhed 450
 Narmada 1, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 51, 52, 53, 55, 61, 62, 74, 161, 163, 206, 347, 349, 350
 Narsimhapur 3, 58, 59, 61
 Narsimha Rai 442
 Narsingh Rai 2, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 48, 83
 Nasirabad 4
 Nasir Khan Faruqi 44
 Nawegaon 211, 212
 Neelgarh 4
 Neempani 23, 57, 83, 209, 376
 Neewgarh 4
 Nepal 17
 Nerbudda 3, 58, 59, 65, 75, 289, 291, 293, 421, 422 *also see* Narmada
 New Delhi 380
 Nilgarh 7, 23
 Nimar (East) 1, 3, 7, 9, 28, 41, 58, 62, 74, 334
 Nizam Shah 48, 443
 Nizam-ul-Mulk 47, 48, 443
 Northern India 320
 North-Western Provinces 3, 59, 288, 301, 302
 Nyaya Panchayat Act 308

ODDH 76

 Ousely, Major 257

PACHMARHI 58, 61, 66, 438, 448

 Pader 183
 Padhar 152, 379, 382, 386, 387
 Padmanagara 37
 Pakistan 79
 Panchhi 30
 Pandhurna 56, 57, 131, 377
 Panni 4, 50, 52
 Parasdho 110, 159
 Parasia 2, 186, 270, 449
 Paraskot 6
 Parsojee 54
 Paratvara 158, 436, 437, 445
 Parsodi 120
 Parseoni 53
 Patel, Biharlal 65
 Path 376
 Pathe 14

- Pathakheda 172, 173, 174, 243, 449
 Patuapura 318
 Patharkara 15
 Patia 20
 Patoli 23
 Patri 213
 Pattan 6, 16, 52, 63, 64, 69, 152, 210, 211, 322, 390, 447
 Pawarjhanda 438
 Payment of Wages Act 395, 396
 Pench 217
 Phandka 16
 Phopas 5, 9
 Phopes 10
 Phopli 7
 Photidhana 15
 Pindari 58
 Piparia 4, 213
 Piplauda 41
 Poona 52
 Poonji 155
 Portuguese 9
 Powerkheda 141
 Prabhat Pattan 11, 143, 146, 155, 165, 179, 180, 181, 244, 312, 361, 363, 364, 374, 381, 382, 388, 390
 Pranhita 10
 Pravara Sena II 36, 37
 Prayag 9
 Primary Education Act, 305
 Prithvi Sena 36, 37
 Prohibition Act 297, 400
 Ptolemy 2, 36
 Public Gambling Act 305
 Pulakesin II 37
 Punjab 58, 289
 Punji 317
 Purna 5, 7, 8, 9, 155, 437, 438
 Putum 4

RAGHUJI BHONSLA 2, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54

 Raheman Shah Dulah 39, 40, 289, 418, 444
 Raichur 55
 Rai Sahib Keshoram 417
 Raja II 39
 Rajasthan 444, 449
 Rajputana 86
 Rajyavardhan 208
 Rambha 4
 Ramdeen 60
 Ramli 170, 180
 Rampur 375, 434
 Ramsay 201, 353
 Ramtek 37
 Rangheli 213
 Ranipur 4, 10, 15, 16, 32, 69, 152, 153, 171, 211, 216, 281, 312, 382, 383, 438
 Rann of Kutch 17
 Ratanalji 213
 Ratamati 175
 Ratan Kaur 50
 Ratanpur 382
 Ratera 376
 Ratheda 382
 Rawalpindi 79
 Rawandeo 10
 Rawanwadi 11, 443
 Richard, Jenkins 40
 Ridhora 382
 Rikshavata 36
 Ripson, Lord 320, 321, 331
 Roberts, A. A. 288
 Rohndeo 5
 Rojhda 180
 Roop Shah Thakur 53
 Rotia 1
 Rudra Sena 36, 37
 Russell 88, 206
 Ruttawrie 56

SAGAR 58

 Sagar and Nerbudda Territories 297
 Sainkheda 32, 57, 297, 385
 Sainkhera 4, 52, 382
 Sajni 41
 Sakadehi 382
 Salbadi 8, 11, 110
 Salbardi 4, 16, 52, 175, 447, 448
 Sales of Goods Act 284
 Sambalpur 55
 Samman Singh Thakur 437
 Sampna 11, 117, 118, 119, 120, 132, 140, 141, 155, 183, 315, 435, 442
 Samudra Gupta 36
 Sanchi 35
 Sangalooda 37
 Santa Claus 365
 Saoligarh 4, 18, 19, 20, 24, 28, 30, 53, 55, 56, 158, 313, 386
 Sarguja 148
 Sariah Ghat 61
 Sarkawadi 69
 Sarni 4, 175, 205, 243, 313, 395, 448
 Sasoondra 209
 Susundra 281
 Satara 135
 Satkarni I, 35
 Satkund 8

- Satnair 4, 52, 386
 Satner 8, 210
 Satpura 1, 5, 6, 8, 9, 14, 17, 36, 55, 71, 84, 93, 118, 161, 202, 449
 Saugor 60, 288, 293, 376
 —and Nerbadda Territories 3, 58, 60, 301, 319, 347, 349
 Sauligarh 5, 7
 Saunsar 85
 Sausar 377
 Sauser 315
 Savalda 9
 Savitri Bai 65
 Sawalmondha 18, 20, 23, 24, 25, 28, 158, 179, 209
 Scottish 45
 Secondary Education Act 360
 Second Five Year Plan 10, 118, 176, 184, 198, 200, 204, 211, 234, 239, 243, 244, 245, 246, 248, 345, 354, 359, 360, 363, 364, 365, 377, 386, 391, 404, 409, 410
 —World War 28, 70, 149, 196, 230, 232
 Sehra 382, 388
 Senabala Hazari 52
 Sena Saheb Subah 50
 Sendurjana 210
 Seoni 52, 58, 73, 74, 85, 191
 Shadiabad 46
 Shahpur 4, 5, 14, 28, 32, 33, 34, 53, 46, 57, 63, 79, 110, 119, 153, 154, 158, 173, 174, 178, 179, 181, 194, 205, 209, 244, 245, 298, 312, 313, 315, 317, 318, 334, 356, 361, 374, 382, 385, 388, 390, 391, 399, 406, 409, 434, 438, 449, 450
 Sharma, N. K. 28
 —Bramhadin 65
 Shashank 207
 Sheodeen 60
 Shergarh 117, 450
 Sherkhan 450
 Sher Shah 51
 Shukla, Ravishankar 64, 68
 Simla 355, 358
 Sindkhera 431
 Singaji 146
 Singora 14
 Siraj-ul-Mulk 46
 Sirikot 6
 Sirripahar 5
 Sitabaldi 2, 55, 347, 349
 Sitadongri 28
 Skanda Varman 37
 Sohagpur 55, 152, 209, 382, 388
 Somaripet 48, 443
 Sonada 12, 14, 173
 Sonaghat 153, 175
 Sonegaon 16
 Songhati 15, 16, 154
 Sooraila 61
 Sparkes, Captain 56
 Standen 202, 206, 259
 State Aid to Industries Act 200
 Strachey, J. 289
 Sukri 173
 —Kumaria 14
 Sulaiman Shah 447
 Sunderlal 64
 Surat 9
 Surguja 55
 Svamikaraja 37
 Swally (Suwali) 9
 Sweden 83, 181, 182, 387
 Syed Husain Ali 50
- TEARI 213**
 Tail 11 38
 Tainkheda 68
 Taj Khan 47, 48
 Talchir 11, 14
 Tanda 30
 Tapasari 7
 Tapti 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 15, 18, 19, 20, 21, 23, 26, 30, 40, 56, 59, 62, 64, 110, 120, 155, 213, 313, 435, 347
 Tara 111
 Taramkhera 13
 Tated, Jethmal 64, 65
 Tatya Tope 61, 62, 63
 Tawa 1, 5, 6, 7, 10, 14, 15, 18, 120, 155, 173, 174, 243, 318, 448
 Teewasgaon 53
 Tekaree 60
 Temlhagaon 53
 Telingana 46
 Temnim 16
 Temple Sir Richard 319
 Temru 318
 Thalner 9
 Thang 79
 Thapoda 445, 446
 Theska 110
 Third Five Year Plan 118, 154, 159, 172, 176, 184, 197, 200, 204, 211, 212, 216, 224, 235, 240, 243, 244, 245, 246, 248, 352, 357, 364, 386, 390, 391, 404, 408, 409, 410
 Tikari 174
 Tilkari 15
 Tiverekheta 37
 Tiwarkhed 37

- Trench, G. C. 102
 Tripuri 35, 68
 Turkey 158
 Turner, F. C. 65
 Two-member Constituencies (Abolition Act 424
UJJAIN 85, 152
 Umardoh 15
 Umari 269, 357, 418, 443
 Umri 40
 United Provinces 76
 Union of Soviet Socialist Republic 77
 United States of America 182
 Usurious Loan (Amendment) Act, 189
 Uti 213
 Uttar Pradesh 135, 137, 157, 164
VACCINATION ACT 305
 Vatapi 38
 Vatasagulma 37
 Vatsaraja Pratihara 38
 Veer Singh Gond 69
 Vidarbha 35, 38, 123, 125, 132, 133, 138, 448
 Vidisha 36
 Vidhya Mandir Act 357
 Vidya Vardhan Sabha 63
 Vijayagram 345
 Vijayanagar 41
 Vijha 36
 Village Panchayat Act 344
 —Sanitation Act 321, 325
 Vindhya Shakti 36
 Virasena 35
WAINGANGA 8, 10, 40, 58
 Wali Shah 49, 50, 443
 Wardha 2, 6, 7, 8, 40, 49, 51, 57, 347, 366, 450
 Wardlaw, Lt. 56
 Warud 2, 131, 132
 Western India 62
 West Nimar 152
 —Pakistan 79
 Wigert, W. 181
 Wild Birds and Animals Protection Act 29
 Wilford 138
 Workmen's Compensation Act, 394 396, 397
YUDDHASURA 37
 Yajnasena 35
 Yusuf Shah 49
ZAMANI 52
 Zilpa 211
 Zitapati 262

ERRATA

Page	Line	For	Read
2	21	Na aguna	Nanaguna
8	12	Salbadi	Salbardi
17	6	very	vary
	7	Matur	Motur
18	14	detatched	detached
20	32	Batul	Betul
24	17	Sonligarh	Saonligarh
27	Side-Heading (c)	Cappice	Coppice
29		distruction	destruction
31	11	found	fowl
40	6	Shah Dull	Shah Dulla
41	23	therefor	therefore
	31	lions	lines
42	4	officed	offered
51	11	scourage	scourge
	28	coverted	converted
55	10	reuiqred	required
57	26	Cavarly	Cavalry
58	6	cotemptible	contemptible
	12	assult	assault
	15	placefully	peacefully
	25	Bordeni	Bordehi
63	9	cultet	outlet
64	29	know	known
68	8	as	at
		at	as
69		Gloradongri	Ghoradongri
79	3	offord	offered
87	18	look property	look after property
88	Footnote 2	Ararkh	Arrakh
89		or	of
104	30	wells	walls
106	36	also, and <i>bhat. Chapaties,</i>	delete
106	37	vegetable	vegetable also and <i>bhat. Chapaties,</i>
142	16	monery	monkey
150	32	diease	disease
154	12	redius	radius
171	19	receulty	recently

Page	Line	For	Read
172	16 F. N.	crores	crores ¹
		—	1. Cost Rs. 39.25 crores, vide "India 1970"
174	24	unctuous	unctuous
179	23	1961	1964
181	12	Multai	Multai
182	9	551	558
190	9	as late as	as early as
	Table Col. 5	218	213
197	13	societies	societies
198	Table Col. 1	Paid of	Paid up
199	27	promiting	promoting
203	17	trae	trade
204	9	lastely	lastly
205	19	to	two
	20	the capacity	the same capacity
206	4	consits	consists
	19	servents	servants
	23	plugh	plough
217	Table	106, 88	106.88
	Col. 5	23, 03	23.03
		80,61	80.61
219	1	1964-65	1864-65
223	Table Col. 3	3	13
236	14	contined	continued
241	6	famile	female
242	14	quarring	quarrying
252	26	consulation	consulation
	29	be	he
266	15	commisson	commission
274	3	propietary	proprietary
292	2	charatered	chartered
	7	cessation judges	judges
297	11	With the of	With the cessation of
298	35	immigration	immigrating
300	3	policemen	policeman
303	9	mannded	manned
		one	on
	33	efford	offered
	34	heart merciless	heart. Merciless
	35	originals	criminals
304	2	vacational	vocational
305	17	bearing golden	bearing in golden
	20	1968 given	1968 is given
309	23	1965	1955

Page	Line	For	Read
310	28	subscribe	subscribe
314	5	Centra	Central
315	26	ccountant	Accountant
	27	orks	works
	28	ad	bad
317	16	Office	Officers
		into	in
321	40	Rules in were	Rules were in
322	1	Resolution 1915.	Resolution of 1915.
	14	to	to
324	18	the	sewerage
331	1	sewarage	under. ³
334	29	under. ³	under. ³
339	32	then	than
340	31	primarily providing	primarily for providing
351	23	supervision	supervision
355	28	redius	radius
362	21	traching	teaching
368	8	or	of
388	1	also w..	also well
390	Table Col. 9	Heading	pumps
394	23	pum. . .	behalf
398	4	behelf	behalf
		Carabica	Cannabis
412	Table, Col. 1	24	2.4
414	6	chaning	changing
420	19	Delimination	Delimitation
422	34	extentions	extensions
424	Table 2, Col. 5	Heading	4 to 3
433	14	5 to 4	condensed
435	29	condenced	condensed
437	17	and heetares	hectares
438	4	age	ago
439	28	eleswhere	elsewhere
445	35	carpentary	carpentry
446	5	accomodate	accommodate
447	22	indegenous	indigenous
449	12-13	sanits	sanitation
		reservior	reservoir
450	10	radius	radius

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